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The Development of the Imāmī Shī'ī Doctrine of *jihād*

By E. KOHLBERG, Jerusalem

While the doctrine of $jih\bar{a}d$ has attracted the attention of scholars dealing with Sunnī Islam, its position in Imāmī (or Twelver) Shī'ism has remained relatively unexplored.¹ This neglect is unwarranted, particularly in view of the special significance which the Imāmī Shī'īs themselves attach to the subject. Hence the following attempt to examine some aspects of this doctrine.

I

Before embarking on an analysis of the specifically Imāmī views on $jih\bar{a}d$, it should be pointed out that a general similarity exists between Sunnī and Imāmī doctrines on the subject. A particular area of similarity is the great significance which both attach to holy war. Though Imāmī (as well as Sunnī) scholars did not as a rule follow the Khārijī example by officially sanctioning $jih\bar{a}d$ as a sixth 'pillar' (*rukn*), they none the less left no doubt as to its importance. Muḥammad b. 'Alī Ibn Bābawayhi (d. 381/991), one of the earliest Imāmī doctors, declares, ''jihād is a religious duty imposed by God on mankind''.³ The leading Imāmī figure of the Buwayhid period, Muḥammad b. Muḥammad al-Shaykh al-Mufīd (d. 413/1022), says that *jihād* ''maintains the strength of the foundations of Islam'',³ and Abū Ja'far al-Ṭūsī (d. 460/1067) sees in *jihād* ''one of the religious duties of Islam and one of its pillars''.⁴

¹ E. TYAN (art. $Djih\bar{a}d$, EI²) has a few observations on the Imāmī position. See also M. KHADDURI: War and peace in the law of Islam. Baltimore 1955, pp. 66—68; A. K. S. LAMBTON: A nineteenth century view of jihād. In: SI 32 (1970), pp. 181—192. The bibliographies offered by TYAN and KHADDURI deal mainly with jihād in Sunnī Islam.

² Al-jihād farīda wājiba min allāh 'alā khalqihī (Ibn Bābawayhi: Alhidāya. Tehran 1377, p. 11, cit. Muḥammad Bāqir al-Majlisī: Bihār al-anwār. Persia 1305—15 [= Bihār], XXI, p. 93).

Persia 1305—15 [= $Bih\bar{a}r$], XXI, p. 93). ³ Al-jihād [...] tathbutu $bih\bar{i}$ qawā'id al-islām (al-Shaykh al-Mufīd: K. al-irshād. Tehran 1320, p. 31.)

⁴ Al-jihād farīda min farā'id al-islām wa-rukn min arkānihī (Abū Ja'far al-Tūsī: Al-nihāya. Beirut 1970, p. 289). Al-Tūsī does not, in this work, use the term rukn to refer to any of the other five religious duties which are normally called $ark\bar{a}n$. These and similar statements are based on a wealth of traditions ascribed to the Prophet or to the Imams. Muḥammad al-Bāqir (d. 114/732 or 117/735) and Ja'far al-Ṣādiq (d. 148/765), the fifth and sixth Imams, are cited as authorities for the following utterance: "the root of Islam is prayer, its branch is alms-giving, and the top of its hump⁵ jihād for the cause of God."⁶ The Prophet is quoted as describing prayer, charitable piety (*birr*) and *jihād* as the three works most beloved by God.⁷ In other sayings, *jihād* is counted as one of four,⁸ five,⁹ six,¹⁰ eight,¹¹ or ten¹² elements which constitute the Islamic faith. All that is good is embodied in the sword;¹³ death in a holy war atones for all sins. (However, to die, even in a holy war, with outstanding debts for which no one would be responsible, is a sin.)¹⁴ Those who die in a *jihād* will enter Paradise through a special gate:¹⁵ conversely, those who try to save their skins

⁵ Or, according to a variant reading, "its peak and its hump" (*dhurwatuhū wa-sanāmuhū*).

⁶ Aşluhu 'l-şalāt wa-far'uhu 'l-zakāt wa-dhurwatu sanāmihi 'l-jihād fī sabīl allāh (Ahmad b. Muhammad al-Barqī: K. al-mahāsin. Ed. MUH. ṢĀDIQ BAHR AL-'ULŪM. Najaf 1964, p. 233; Muhammad b. Ya'qūb al- Kulīnī: Uşūl alkāfī. Ed. 'ALĪ AKBAR AL-GHAFFĀRĪ. Tehran 1375—7, II, pp. 23—24, cit. Bihār, XV/i, p. 193; al-Qādī al-Nu'mān: Da'ā'im al-islām. Ed. A. A. A. FYZEE. I. Cairo 1963, p. 403). See also A. J. WENSINCK: Concordance et indices de la tradition musalmane. T. 1—7. Leiden 1936-69, s.v. jhd: ra's al-amr al-islām wa-'amūduhu 'l-şalāt wa-dhurwatu sanāmihi 'l-jihād. Cf. I. GOLDZIHER: Muslim studies. Ed. S. M. STERN. II. London 1971, p. 354, n. 2.

⁷ Al-Barqī, op. cit., p. 235; Ibn Bābawayhi: K. al-khişāl. Ed. 'Alī Аквак Al-GHAFFāRī. Tehran 1389, pp. 163, 185, cit. Biḥār, XXI, p. 94.
⁸ In a saying attributed to 'Alī. See al-Qādī al- Nu'mān, op. cit., I, p. 403;

⁸ In a saying attributed to 'Alī. See al-Qādī al- Nu'mān, op. cit., I, p. 403; Haydar Āmulī: *Jāmi*' al-asrār. Ed. H. CORBIN and O. ISMĀ'ĪL YAHYĀ. Tehran and Paris 1969, p. 598; *Bihār*, XV/i, p. 198.

⁹ In a tradition of the Prophet; the other four being prayer, fasting, almsgiving, pilgrimage. See Haydar Amulī, op. cit., p. 591.

¹⁰ Ibn Bābawayhi: Al-hidāya, p. 12.

¹¹ Ibn Bābawayhi: Amālī. Ed. HASAN AL-MŪSAWĪ AL-KHURSĀN. Najaf 1970, p. 303, on the authority of the tenth Imam, 'Alī al-Naqī (d. 254/868). The eight duties are devotion to the Imams (*walāya*), prayer, alms-giving, fasting, pilgrimage, *jihād*, enjoining what is good, prohibiting what is evil.

¹² Buniya 'l-islām 'alā 'asharati ashum [...] (Ibn Bābawayhi: K. al-khişāl, p. 447, cit. Bihār, XV/i, p. 207; cf.id.: 'Ilal al-sharā'i'. Ed. Мин. Ṣādiq Ванк AL-ʿUlūm. Najaf 1966, p. 249).

¹³ Al-khayr kulluhū fi 'l-sayf wa-taḥta zill al-sayf (Biḥār, XXI, p. 94, quoting a tradition of the Prophet).

14 Ibn Bābawayhi: K. al-khişāl, p. 12; id.: 'Ilal al-sharā'i', p. 528.

¹⁵ Ibn Bābawayhi: Ma'ānī 'l-ākhbār. Ed. 'Alī AKBAR AL-GHAFFĀRĪ. Tehran 1379, p. 309, cit. Bihār, VIII, p. 699. See also Bihār, VIII, p. 682, XXI, p. 93.

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by running away from the battle-field $(al-fir\bar{a}r \min al-zahf)$ are guilty of a grave sin $(kab\bar{i}ra)$ and will be punished.¹⁶

As in Sunnī Islam,¹⁷ so too in Īmāmī Shī'ism, the term *jihād* does not merely refer to warfare, but is often broadened to include various meritorious acts requiring spiritual or physical exertion. Of these acts, perhaps the most famous is the so-called "greater *jihād*" (al-*jihād* al-akbar), which, in contrast to the "lesser *jihād*" (al-*jihād* al-akghar), involves a struggle not against hostile outside forces but against one's own baser instincts (*jihād* al-nafs).¹⁸ True *jihād* is also said to consist in striving for knowledge ('*ilm*),¹⁹ or in keeping the secrets of the Shī'ī religion.²⁰

Jihād is described in a Shīʻī tradition as comprising four parts or "branches" (shu'ab): jihād al-nafs, struggle against attacking unbelievers (i.e. defensive war), struggle against an enemy (referring probably to a Muslim offensive), and struggle to revive a dormant or neglected custom of the Prophet and the early generations (ihya, sunna).²¹

Other virtues are sometimes ranked above that of fighting in a holy war: thus Muhammad is said to have declared that on the Day of Judgment the ink of the scholars will outweigh the blood of the martyrs on the scales,²² and that the mu'adhdhin will receive a reward equalling

¹⁶ Furāt b. Ibrāhīm al-Kūfī: *Tafsīr*. Najaf 1354, p. 33 (on the authority of Ja'far al-Ṣādiq); Ibn Bābawayhi: *Man lā yaḥduruhu 'l-faqīh*. Ed. ḤASAN AL-MŪSAWĪ AL-KHURSĀN. Najaf 1378, III, p. 370; id.: '*Ilal al-sharā'i*', pp. 392, 474-475, 481. This is also the Sunnī doctrine; see e.g. al-Dhahabī: *K. al-kabā'ir*. Ed. MUH. 'ABD AL-RAZZĀQ ḤAMZA. Mecca 1355, pp. 77-78.

¹⁷ For which see especially the discussion in GOLDZIHER, op. cit., II, pp. 350—354 (where Sunnī sources are quoted for some of the traditions mentioned below).

¹⁸ See al-Kulini: Furū' al-kāfī. Ed. 'ALĪ AKBAR AL-GHAFFĀRĪ. Tehran 1375—7, V, p. 12; Ibn Bābawayhi: Amālī, p. 418; id.: Ma'āni 'l-akhbār, p. 160; al-Shaykh al-Mufīd: K.al-ikhtişāş. Ed. 'ALĪ AKBAR AL-GHAFFĀRĪ. Tehran 1379, p. 240; al-Majlisī: 'Ayn al-hayāt. Tehran 1373, p. 271; Bihār, XV/ii, p. 40. According to Ismā'ilī doctrine, the jihād al-nafs is the prerogative of "those who possess the necessary qualifications of 'ilm and 'amal, i.e. theoretical education and practical religious training" (N. Ivanow: A creed of the Fațimids. Bombay 1936, p. 59). For the Şūfī position cf. B. REINERT: Die Lehre vom tawakkul in der klassischen Sufik. Berlin 1968, pp. 82ff.

¹⁹ Ibn Bābawayhi, Amālī, p. 551.

²⁰ Wa-kitmān sirrinā jihād $f\bar{\imath}$ sabīl allāh (al-Mufīd: Amālī. Najaf 1351, p. 200, on the authority of Ja'far al-Ṣādiq).

²¹ Ibn Bābawayhi: *Ål-hidāya*, pp. 11—12, cit. *Biḥār*, XXI, p. 93; al-Kulīnī, op. cit., V, p. 9. See also Ibn Bābawayhi: *K. al-khiṣāl*, p. 240, cit. *Biḥār*, XXI, p. 97. For a different four-partite division of *jihād* see Ḥaydar Āmulī, op. cit., p. 599; *Biḥār*, XV/i, p. 199.

²² Ibn Bābawayhi: Amālī, p. 149, on the authority of Ja'far al-Ṣādiq.

that of 40,000 martyrs.²³ In another tradition the Prophet is quoted as ordering one of his followers to refrain from going on a *jihād* if his old parents would rather enjoy his company at home.²⁴ As GOLDZIHER has pointed out,²⁵ these and similar traditions reflect the reaction of Muslim scholars against the fanatical urge to court death in battle (*talab al-shahāda*), as exemplified above all by the Khārijīs. Such traditions spring from a common Sunnī-Shī'ī heritage, and cannot in themselves be cited as proof of any specifically Shī'ī reluctance to embrace the cause of holy war.

п

Some Imāmī traditions on *jihād* reflect the typically Shī^{\circ} view of history as a series of wrongful acts perpetrated against the Shī^{\circ}a. This view is epitomised by the Shī^{\circ} Imams being referred to as *mazlūmūn*, i.e. the victims of evil and injustice. It also explains the following Shī^{\circ} i justification of *jihād*: all believers (i.e. Shī^{\circ}s) are by definition *mazlūmūn*, since they have been robbed of their rightful property, the territory at present held by the unbelievers (the *dār al-ḥarb*). Hence believers at all times are called upon to go on a *jihād*, and this is the meaning of the verse, "those who are fighting have permission [to do so], since they have been unjustly dealt with" (Qur'ān 22/39(40)).²⁶

The close connection between $jih\bar{a}d$ and justice is also established in some Shī'ī legal texts, in which the portion dealing with the rules governing holy war includes a section on "enjoining what is good and prohibiting what is evil" (al-amr bi'l-ma'r $\bar{u}f$ wa'l-nahy 'an al-munkar).²⁷ Al-Shaykh al-Mufīd, who stresses that this activity is a fard kifāya (collective duty), explains that it springs from the belief in justice and in the imamate.²⁸ Since the Mu'tazilīs regarded al-amr bi'l-ma'r $\bar{u}f$ wa'l-nahy

²³ Alā wa-man adhdhana muhtasiban yurīdu bi-dhālika wajh allāh 'azza wajalla a'tāhu 'llāh thawāb arba'īn alf shahīd wa-arba'īn alf siddīq (Ibn Bābawayhi: Amālī, p. 388, on the authority of the Prophet).

²⁴ Ibid., p. 413. Cf. QUERRY: Droit musulman. Paris 1871-2, I, p. 322; WENSINCK: Handbook, s.v. "War"; KHADDURI, op. cit., p. 86.

²⁵ GOLDZIHER, op. cit., II, p. 352.

²⁶ Al-Kulīnī, op. cit., V, pp. 16—18; al-Qādī al-Nu'mān, op. cit., I, p. 439. ²⁷ See e.g. al-Kulīnī, op. cit., V, pp. 55—60; al-Tūsī: Al-nihāya, p. 299; QUERRY, op. cit., I, pp. 354—356; Najm al-Dīn al-Hillī: Al-mukhtaşar alnājš'. Tehran 1387, p. 139; Ibn al-Muţahhar al-Hillī: Tabşirat al-muta'allimīn (with the Sharh of Ṣādiq Mahdī al-Husaynī). I. Najaf 1382, pp. 298ff. Cf. 'Alī b. Ibrāhīm al-Qummī: Tafsīr. Ed. TAYYIB AL-MŪSAWĪ AL-JAZĀ'IRĪ. Najaf 1386—7, I, p. 306 (ad Qur'ān 9/112(113)), where al-āmirūn bi'l-ma'rūf wa'l-nāhūn 'an al-munkar are said to be the Imams.

²⁸ Al-Shaykh al-Mufid: Awā'il al-maqālāt. Ed. FAŅL ALLĀH AL-ZANJĀNĪ. Tabriz 1371, p. 98.

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'an al-munkar as one of their principal tenets,²⁹ there is little doubt as to their influence on this aspect of Shī'ī thought. Indeed, considerable similarity exists between the formulations on this subject made by the pro-Shī'ī Mu'tazilī al-Ṣāḥib b. 'Abbād (d. 385/995) and the celebrated Shī'ī theologian al-Sharīf al-Murtaḍā (d. 436/1044). Al-Ṣāḥib declares that the doctrine of enjoining what is good and prohibiting what is evil is obligatory "as far as possible",³⁰ and al-Murtaḍā makes the same point in saying that it is obligatory "as long as it does not lead to fasād (i.e. evil and corruption)".³¹

 \mathbf{III}

The Imāmī Shī'ī rules relating to $jih\bar{a}d$ are often very similar to those of the various Sunnī schools. Imāmī doctors, for example, agree with their Sunnī counterparts in defining the duty of $jih\bar{a}d$ as a fard kifāya, which may however turn into a fard 'ayn (individual duty) in case of a grave danger to the community.³² Both Sunnīs and Imāmīs discuss ribāt (or murābața), which is an essentially defensive concept, within the general context of $jih\bar{a}d$.³³ Both list certain categories of persons who are exempt from the duty of fighting a holy war (for instance women, children, old persons, slaves, the insane and the sick).³⁴

There are, however, within the Imāmī legal theory, specifically Imāmī elements which differ from the Sunnī system. These revolve around two major issues: the identity of the person who leads the $jih\bar{a}d$, and the enemies against whom $jih\bar{a}d$ may be waged. Even on these two issues, Imāmī doctrine appears at first sight to bear a considerable resemblance to the Sunnī position: Sunnī and Imāmī doctors agree that leadership of the *jihād* is one of the duties and prerogatives of the ruler, or Imam;

²⁹ See e.g. Ibn al-Murtadā: *Tabaqāt al-mu'tazila*. Ed. S. DIWALD-WILZER. Wiesbaden 1961, p. 8.

³⁰ Al-Ṣāḥib b. Abbād: Al-ibāna 'an madhhab ahl al-'adl. In: Najā'is almakhtūtāt. I. Ed. MUH. HASAN AL YĀSĪN. Baghdad 1963², p. 27; id.: K. altadhkira fi 'l-uşūl al-khamsa, loc. cit. II. Baghdad 1954, p. 94.

³¹ Al-Sharīf al-Murtadā: Muqaddima fi 'l-uşūl al-i'tiqādiyya, loc. cit., II, p. 82.

³² Al-Qādī al-Nu'mān, op. cit., I, p. 401, cit. *Bihār*, XXI, p. 105; al-Ţūsī: *Al-nihāya*, p. 289; id.: *K. al-khilāf*. Najaf 1376, p. 229; QUERRY, op. cit., I, p. 321; Ibn al-Muțahhar al-Ḥillī, op. cit., I, p. 279; al-Majlisī: *Risāla fi 'l-i*'ti*qādāt*. Persia 1321, p. 492; KHADDURI, op. cit., p. 60.

³³ Al-Qādī al-Nu'mān, op. cit., I, p. 405; al-Ṭūsī: Al-nihāya, p. 290; QUERRY, op. cit., I, p. 323; Najm al-Dīn al-Ḥillī: Al-mukhtaşar al-nāfi', p. 133. According to Ibn al-Muṭahhar al-Ḥillī (op. cit., I, p. 281), the reward for murābața lasting over 40 days equals the reward for jihād.

³⁴ Al-Qādī al-Nu mān, op. cit., I, p. 402; al-Tūsī, op. cit., p. 289; Najm al-Dīn al-Hillī, loc. cit.; Ibn al-Muţahhar al-Hillī, op. cit., I, pp. 279—280. and both state that *jihād* may be directed against polytheists, apostates, scripturaries (*ahl al-kitāb*, i.e. Jews, Christians, Sabians, Zoroastrians) and *ahl al-baghy* (or *bughāt*, i.e. dissenters who act wrongfully or unjustly).³⁵

The uniqueness of the classical Imāmī theory lies, first, in the fact that it limits leadership of the $jih\bar{a}d$ to one of twelve divinely appointed Imams, or to a representative chosen by the Imam to perform that function on his behalf.³⁶

Secondly, the position of the ahl-al baghy in Imāmī legal theory is altogether different from their position in Sunni tigh. This difference applies both to the definition of the term all al-bachu and to the importance which is attached to *jihād* against them. In Sunnī Islam, the ahl al-baghy are those who oppose the legitimate ruler; the duty to fight them assumed particular significance whenever the government in power felt threatened by hostile Muslim elements, whether internal or external. Thus al-Māwardī (d. 450/1058) stressed the ruler's right to fight the ahl al-baghy at a moment when the 'Abbāsid caliphate had reached its nadir and was largely at the mercy of the Shī'ī Buwayhids;³⁷ and the Syrian atābeg Nūr al-Dīn (ruled 541/1146-569/1174) whipped up popular sup**port** for the *jihād* against the *ahl al-baghu* (by which he meant especially the Shī'ī and Ismā'īlī heterodoxies) as part of his overall strategy of reviving enthusiasm for *jihād* in general in the context of the struggle against the Crusaders.³⁸ On the whole, however, the first priority was reserved in Sunni Islam for the holy war against the infidels.

The Imāmīs, on the other hand, define the *ahl al-baghy* as those who rise against one of the twelve legitimate Imams; and the duty to fight them is a central tenet, which is not contingent upon any particular historical occurrence. For while the Imāmīs concurred in the need to fight the infidels, they regarded as an essential first step the conversion of all Muslims into true believers (i.e. Imāmī Shī'īs); or, to put it in Imāmī legal terminology: the struggle to convert the *dār al-islām* into *dār al-imān* must precede the final onslaught on the *dār al-kufr.*³⁹ The term *dār al-islām* here means those areas ruled by Muslims who did not accept, and often fought against, the imamate of 'Alī and his descen-

³⁶ On this point see below, p. 80.

³⁷ Al-Māwardī: Al-ahkām al-sultāniyya. Ed. M. ENGER. Bonn 1853, p. 89.

³⁸ E. SIVAN: L'Islam et la croisade. Paris 1968, pp. 71-73.

³⁹ For this three-partite division into $d\bar{a}r al$ - $im\bar{a}n$, $d\bar{a}r al$ - $isl\bar{a}m$ and $d\bar{a}r$ al-kufr see al-Shaykh al-Mufīd: $Aw\bar{a}$ 'il al-maqālāt, pp. 70—71.

³⁵ Al-Qādī al-Nu'mān, op. cit., I, pp. 438ff.; al-Ṭūsī, op. cit., pp. 291— 299; QUERRY, op. cit., I, p. 324; Najm al-Dīn al-Ḥillī, op. cit., pp. 134—136; KHADDURI, op. cit., pp. 74ff.

dants; these Muslims were therefore, by definition, identical with the *ahl al-baghy*.

References to *jihād* against *ahl al-baghy* in Imāmī literature probably outnumber references to other kinds of *jihād*; in Imāmī *fiqh* works the *ahl al-baghy* are occasionally listed even before the other categories of enemies.⁴⁰ This is hardly surprising: the *ahl al-baghy*, after all, represent the entire hateful Sunnī world, a world held responsible for all the harassment and persecution to which the Shī⁴īs were subjected throughout the ages.

IV

Of the twelve Imams, only 'Alī b. Abī Tālib reached a position of power which enabled him to confront directly the threat posed by the ahl al-baghy; his conduct towards them lies therefore at the heart of all Imāmī thinking on the subject. In Imāmī tradition, 'Alī's role in combatting the enemies of Islam is referred back to the time of the Prophet. Muhammad is said to have declared that just as he. Muhammad, and the believers of his generation were destined to fight the polytheists, so 'Alī and the believers in his time would have to wage a *jihād* "against people who, though formally acknowledging God's unity and Muhammad's apostleship, would nevertheless introduce harmful innovations, would persecute the Prophet's family ('itra), and would cause dissension".41 A similar idea is contained in Imāmī interpretations of the verse, "oh Prophet, fight the unbelievers and the hypocrites (munāfiqūn)" (Qur'ān 9/73(74), 66/9). This verse was somewhat problematic, since it was known that Muhammad did not actually fight against the hypocrites; and the Imāmī interpretation is that the Prophet fought against the unbelievers and 'Alī against the hypocrites.⁴² Ibn 'Abbās is quoted as the authority

⁴⁰ This is done for example by Najm al-Dīn al-Ḥillī (both in his Sharā'i' al-islām (trans. QUERRY) and in the abridged version, i.e. Al-mukhtaşar alnāji'), but not by Ibn al-Muṭahhar al-Ḥillī (op. cit., I, pp. 281 ff.), where the order is: (i) ahl al-dhimma; (ii) other unbelievers; (iii) the bughāt. Al-Qādī al-Nu'mān lists the ahl al-baghy after the mushrikūn (op. cit., I, pp. 438, 452); this is also the procedure followed by al-Ṭūsī in his Nihāya (pp. 291, 296). In the case of al-Ṭūsī this may be attributed to taqiyya (precautionary dissimulation): al-Ṭūsī was still alive during the Saljuq occupation of Baghdad (447/1055), and suffered persecution at the hands of the Sunnī rulers.

41 Al-Mufid: Amālī, p. 169; Bihār, VIII, p. 445.

⁴² 'Alī b. Ibrāhīm al-Qummī, op. cit., II, p. 377, cit. *Bihār*, VIII, p. 147. Most Sunnī commentators explain that 'Alī's *jihād* against the *munājiqūn* consisted of threats that they would go to hell, or of the carrying out of the prescribed Quranic punishments (*hudūd*) whenever necessary. A different Shī'ī solution to the problem inherent in this verse is provided by the reading (*qirā'a*), "fight the unbelievers by means of the hypocrites" (*jāhidi* for the following tradition: "when the verse, 'oh Prophet, fight the unbelievers and the hypocrites' was revealed, the Prophet said. 'I will fight the Amalekites', referring to the unbelievers and the hypocrites. So Gabriel came down to him and said. 'either you or 'Ali [will fight them]'."48 Muhammad, then, thought that he would fight all his opponents: Gabriel corrected him, pointing out that some of these opponents would be combatted by 'Ali. 'Ali's jihād is thus presented as an extension and continuation of Muhammad's own jihād.

The first occasion on which 'Alī had to fight enemies within the Muslim camp was at the Battle of the Camel (Jumādā II 36/December 656), which took place near Basra shortly after 'Ali's accession. In that battle, 'Alī and his supporters were pitted against the combined forces of 'Ā'isha. Talha, al-Zubayr and their followers. Sunni traditionists view the Battle of the Camel, as well as the other civil wars fought during 'Alī's reign, as internal disputes within the community, for which no side was to blame. These traditionists neither present these wars as jihād, nor do they represent 'Ali as viewing them as such. The Imamis, on the other hand, stress that from the moment 'Alī realised the inevitability of war against 'Ā'isha and her camp, he regarded that war as jihād and expressed himself accordingly. On his way from Medina to Başra, for instance, he reportedly made a brief stop at al-Rabadha, whence he despatched letters to the Kūfans urging them to join the *jihād*.⁴⁴ He is also said to have appealed to Abū Mūsā al-Ash'arī to participate in the jihād, but without success.45 From al-Rabadha 'Alī marched to Dhū Qār, whence he allegedly sent the Kūfans another appeal to join him, while reminding them of the importance of holy war: "God has imposed on us the obligation to wage *iihād*; he has made *jihād* glorious, and has made participation in it a sign of support for Him. By God, it is only through jihād that worldly or religious affairs have ever prospered."46 'Alī is

'l-kuffār bi'l-munāfiqīn (instead of wa'l-munāfiqīn)). See A. JEFFERY: Materials for the history of the text of the Qur'an. Leiden 1937, p. 103 (the codex of Ibn Mas'ūd ad Qur'ān 66/9); 'Alī b. Ibrāhīm al-Qummī, op. cit., I, p. 301; al-Fadl b. al-Hasan al-Tabarsi: Majma' al-bayan. Beirut 1954-7, X, p. 100, XXVIII, p. 128, whence *Bihār*, VIII, p. 147. ⁴³ *Bihār*, VIII, p. 454 (quoting from al-Ţūsī's *Amālī*).

44 Bihār, VIII, p. 409 (quoting from the Sharh nahj al-balāgha of Ibn Abi 'l-Hadid).

⁴⁵ Al-Mufid: K. al-jamal (also known as Al-nasra fi harb al-Basra). Najaf 1368, pp. 114ff.

46 Ammā ba'du fa-inna 'llāha ta'ālā farada 'l-jihād wa-'azzamahū wa-ja'alahū nuşratan lahū; wa'llāhi mā şalahat dunyā qattu wa-lā dīn illā bihī (al-Mufīd: K. al-irshād, pp. 118-119, cit. Bihār, VIII, p. 416; cf. al-Mufīd: K. al-jamal, pp. 123-125).

reported to have called the war against his enemies "the pure $jih\bar{a}d$ " (al-jih $\bar{a}d$ al- $s\bar{a}f\bar{i}$), since it was untainted by any doubts or misgivings.⁴⁷

'Alī's supporters in the Battle of the Camel are identified in Imāmī traditions with believers waging a holy war. Muḥammad is said to have prophesied that 70,000 *shahīds* would be killed at Baṣra, all of whom would attain the same rank as the *shahīds* of Badr; and 'Alī is quoted as declaring that "those who kill 'Alī's enemies are blessed; and so also are those who are killed by them, for their entry into Paradise is assured".⁴⁸ In a similar vein, 'Alī's son al-Ḥasan is quoted as having declared that "*jihād* with 'Alī is the same as *jihād* with the Prophet".⁴⁹

Both during and after the Battle of the Camel 'Alī is said to have shown great mercy towards his enemies: he ordered that their lives be spared if they were wounded or were attempting to flee the battle-field, and forbade any infringement of the sanctity of their homes and any molestation of their women.⁵⁰ 'Alī's leniency towards the Başrans was the subject of a letter which he is said to have sent to his Kūfī supporters after the battle.⁵¹

The Battle of the Camel did not significantly alter the position of 'Alī's opponents, led by Mu'āwiya b. Abī Sufyān, and 'Alī came to realise that the Syrian opposition could not be overcome by peaceful means. The Battle of Ṣiffīn (Ṣafar 37/July 657), in which the armies of 'Alī and Mu'āwiya met in bloody conflict, is also regarded by Shī'ī traditionists as a *jihād*. Before the battle, 'Alī is said to have urged the reluctant Kūfans in speech after speech to join him in a *jihād* against the Syrians.⁵² In 'Alī's view, Mu'āwiya and his men had not really converted to Islam; in their hearts they persisted in unbelief, and when they found supporters they made their unbelief public (*azharūhū*).⁵³ In a letter to 'Abd Allāh b. 'Abbās, 'Alī reportedly urged him to excite people's desire for the struggle against Mu'āwiya (*wa-raghghibhum fi 'l-jihād*),⁵⁴ and in

 47 Bihār, VIII, p. 448 (quoting from the Sharh nahj al-balāgha of Ibn Mītham al-Bahrānī).

⁴⁸ Bihār, VIII, p. 447 (quoting the same source).

49 Al-Mufid: K. al-jamal, p. 126.

⁵⁰ Al-Mufid, op. cit., p. 166; al-Kishshī: K. al-rijāl. Ed. AĦMAD AL-HUSAYNĪ. Najaf c. 1964, p. 190, cit. Bihār, XXI, p. 98; Bihār, VIII, p. 438 (quoting from al-Nu'mānī's K. al-ghayba).

⁵¹ Al-Mufid: K. al-irshād, p. 122, cit.. Bihār, VIII, p. 442. Cf. al-Mufid: K. al-jamal, pp. 195ff.

⁵² Ibn Abi ¹-Hadīd: Sharḥ nahj al-balāgha. Ed. MUH. ABU 'L-FADL IBRĀ-HĪM. Cairo 1959—64, VII, p. 70 (istanfartukum li'l-jihād fa-lam tanfirū). Cf. al-Mufīd: K. al-irshād, pp. 125, 128, 130, whence Biḥār, VIII, p. 472.

58 Ibn Abi 'l-Hadid, op. cit., XV, p. 114, cit. Bihār, VIII, p. 460.

⁵⁴ Nașr b. Muzāhim al-Minqarī: Waq'at Şiffīn. Ed. 'ABD AL-SALĀM MUH. HĀRŪN. Cairo 1365, p. 130, cit. Bihār, VIII, p. 476. another letter, to Mikhnaf b. Sulaym (his governor in Işfahān and Hamadān), he is quoted as writing, "it is a religious duty (*farīda*), incumbent upon all men of true knowledge, to wage a *jihād* against those who deliberately strayed from the truth, and who preferred instead to fall into a slumber of blindness and error".⁵⁵ One of 'Alī's most loyal supporters, Qays b. Sa'd b. 'Ubāda, is said to have declared that *jihād* against Mu'āwiya was more important than *jihād* against the Turks and the Byzantines.⁵⁶ At Ṣiffīn, as in the Battle of the Camel, those who died while fighting for 'Alī are regarded as *shahīds*. Perhaps the most famous of these is 'Ammār b. Yāsir, who was allegedly told by the Prophet that he would be killed by "the rebel band" (*al-fi'a al-bāghiya*).⁵⁷

Imāmī sources present conflicting accounts of 'Alī's behaviour towards his enemies at Ṣiffīn. According to some reports, he showed considerable leniency by freeing all prisoners (except those who had killed one or more of his followers), and by forbidding any maltreatment of women, even when they vilified his men.⁵⁸ But other reports have it that 'Alī killed both the wounded and those trying to flee.⁵⁹

The Battle of Siffīn ended in virtual stalemate, and 'Alī continued to regard the struggle against Mu'āwiya as a religious obligation. After Mu'āwiya's envoys had assassinated Hassān b. Hassān, who had been appointed by 'Alī as governor of al-Anbār, 'Alī is said to have delivered a speech to his troops in which he extolled *jihād* as one of the gates to Paradise reserved by God for His most loyal supporters; he who forsook *jihād* would suffer ignominy and disgrace. In his speech 'Alī is said to have strongly upbraided his followers⁶⁰ for trying to conceal their reluctance to fight Mu'āwiya by inventing flimsy excuses (e.g., in winter it was too cold, in summer too hot to fight).⁶¹

In contrast to 'Alī's uncompromising attitude towards Mu'āwiya, Shī'ī traditionists quote some conciliatory remarks allegedly made by him

⁵⁵ Al-Minqari, op. cit., p. 116, cit. Bihār, VIII, p. 475.

⁵⁶ Al-Minqarī, op. cit., p. 104.

⁵⁷ See e.g. al-Minqarī, op. cit., p. 367; al-Nasā'ī: Khaṣā'iṣ amīr al-mu'minīn. Najaf 1369, pp. 59—61; al-Qādī al-Nu'mān, op. cit., I, p. 459; Ibn Bābawayhi: 'Uyūn akhbār al-Ridā. Ed. HASAN AL-MŪSAWĪ AL-KHURSĀN. Najaf 1970, II, p. 63, cit. Bihār, VI, p. 749.

⁵⁸ Al-Minqari, op. cit., pp. 230, 595, whence Ibn Abi 'l-Hadid, op. cit., XV, p. 104, *Bihār*, VIII, p. 102.

⁵⁹ Al-Kishshi, op. cit., p. 190, cit. Bihār, XXI, p. 98; al-Kulini, op. cit., V, p. 33, cit, Bihār, VIII, p. 622.

⁶⁰ E.g., "oh you who resemble men but aren't" (yā ashbāh al-rijāl wa-lā rijāl).

⁶¹ Ibn Bābawayhi: Ma'āni 'l-akhbār, p. 309, cit. Bihār, VIII, p. 699; al-Qādī al-Nu'mān, op. cit., I, p. 455; al-Mufīd: K. al-irshād, pp. 131—134; Ibn Abi 'l-Ḥadīd, op. cit., II, pp. 74—75.

about the Khārijīs. 'Alī is said to have been unwilling initially to take up arms against them.⁶² He is also quoted as declaring: "if they forsake the *jamā*'a or rise against a just ruler (*imām*), then fight them; but if they rise against an unjust ruler, do not fight them, for they have legitimate grounds for this".⁶³ 'Alī is even quoted as saving, "do not kill the Khāriis after my death; for those who erred while searching for the truth [sc. the Khārijīs] are to be distinguished from those who looked for falsehood and found it [sc. Mu'āwiva and his camp]".64 The famous theologian Muhammad Bāgir al-Majlisī (d. 1110/1699), feeling that 'Alī could not have meant that the struggle against the Khārijīs should cease forever, interprets 'Ali's attitude as referring only to the period in which Mu'āwiva and his ilk (wa-adrābuhū) were in power. In al-Mailisī's view, the Khārijīs were more sincere in their worship of God than Mu'āwiva. and were less sinful than he was. Therefore, while both had to be combatted, the *jihād* against Mu'āwiya was the more important.65

Such differences in degree notwithstanding, it is clear that all 'Ali's enemies, whether at Basra, Siffin, or Nahrawan, are regarded by Imami doctors as bughāt. To this category belong not only 'Alī's active opponents, but also men such as Abū Mūsā al-Ash'arī and his followers, who refused to take sides and did not respond to 'Alī's pleas for support.⁶⁶

Two main issues are examined by Imāmī doctors as regards the bughāt. The first relates to their religious position, and on this a wide measure of agreement seems to have been reached. The Shī'i philosopher, historian and politician Nașir al-Din al-Tüsi (d. 672/1274), who generally followed the views expounded by al-Sharif al-Murtadā in his Kitāb al-shāfi, sums up the prevailing doctrine when he declares, "those who fought 'Ali were unbelievers and those who disobeyed him were grave sinners".⁶⁷ This view is echoed by al-Tūsi's pupil, al-'Allāma Hasan b. Yūsuf Ibn al-Muţahhar al-Hilli (d. 726/1325), who asserts in his authoritative commentary on his master's work (the Sharh al-tairid): "anyone who fought 'Alī was an unbeliever".⁶⁸ This assertion clearly refers to "the breakers of covenants.

⁶² Bihār, VIII, p. 600.
⁶³ Bihār, VIII, p. 620, XXI, p. 97.

44 Bihār, VIII, p. 620.

⁶⁵ Bihār, VIII, p. 621. For an example of a much harsher attitude displayed by 'Alī towards the Khārijīs see al-Qādī al-Nu'mān, op. cit., I, p. 458. According to some Sunni authorities, 'Ali did not declare a jihād against the Khārijīs because of their small numbers. See KHADDURI, op. cit., p. 78.

66 Cf. Bihār, VIII, p. 460.

⁶⁷ Muhāribū 'Alī kafara wa-mukhālifūhū fasaga (Tajrīd al-'agā'id, cit. Ibn Ma'sum: Al-darajāt al-rajī'a. Ed. MUH. SADIQ BAHR AL-'ULUM. Najaf 1382, p. 33).

⁶⁸ Ibn Ma'şūm, op. cit., pp. 33—34.

the deviators, and the renegades" (al- $n\bar{a}kith\bar{u}n$ wa'l- $q\bar{a}sit\bar{u}n$ wa'l- $m\bar{a}ri-q\bar{u}n$), referring to 'Alī's enemies at Başra, Ṣiffīn and al-Nahrawān respectively.⁶⁹ Of these enemies, Mu'āwiya and his followers are considered the most vicious, hence their unbelief is more forcefully emphasised than that of the other groups.

The identification of the *bughāt* as unbelievers (kuffār) leads directly to the second issue, which is of a legal rather than a religious nature: are these *bughāt* to be treated in exactly the same fashion as other unbelievers, or are there different kinds of unbelievers, subject to different laws? In attempting to answer this question, Imāmī jurists rely on accounts of 'Alī's behaviour towards the *bughāt*, both at Baṣra and at Siffīn.

As has been pointed out, many Shī'ī traditionists stress that 'Alī showed great kindness to the Başrans. One explanation given for this behaviour is that he was following the example set by Muḥammad, who showed mercy to the Meccans after conquering their city in 8/630.70 'Alī's lenient behaviour at Başra (and, according to some reports, at Ṣiffīn as well) is interpreted as having been the result of practical, as well as humane, considerations: he was afraid that if he took action against his defeated adversaries, retaliatory measures would be taken against his supporters in areas controlled by his enemies.⁷¹ But such explanations could be applied to a war against any category of unbelievers, and are not in themselves proof that 'Alī's attitude to the *bughāt* was different from his attitude to other enemies.

A different method of approaching the issue is to presuppose (as do most Imāmī jurists) that 'Alī treated the Syrians more harshly than he had treated his opponents in the Battle of the Camel, and then to explain this alleged difference in 'Alī's behaviour by reference to what may be termed the ''*fi*'a-theory''. According to that theory (which does not apply to non-*bughāt* unbelievers), there are two sets of rules regarding conduct towards *bughāt* on the battle-field: when the *bughāt* can rely for support on additional groups of men (*man lahu fi*'a), their wounded and imprisoned men are to be killed and their *mudbir* (i.e. soldiers fleeing the battlefield) pursued; when they cannot fall back on any additional support (*man lā fi*'a *lahu*), then their wounded and imprisoned men are to be

⁶⁹ See in general $Bih\bar{a}r$, VIII, pp. 454—459, where various earlier sources are quoted.

⁷⁰ Al-Kulīnī: Rawdat al-kāfī, p. 180; al-Qādī al-Nu'mān, op. cit., I, p. 459; Bihār, VIII, p. 461.

⁷¹ Al-Barqī, op. cit., p. 262; Ibn Bābawayhi: 'Ilal al-sharā'i', pp. 150, 154, cit. Bihār, VIII, pp. 461, 622; al-Kulīnī: Furū' al-kājī, V, p. 33.

spared and their *mudbir* left alone.⁷² Mu'āwiya's men belong to the first category, since they could muster reinforcements from Syrian supporters not yet directly involved in the fighting; 'Alī's enemies at Başra belong to the second category, since no such help was available to them. Moreover, in the Battle of the Camel Talha and al-Zubayr were killed, thus leaving their followers in disarray, whereas at Şiffîn Mu'āwiya remained at the head of his forces throughout the battle and showed no sign of wanting to put an end to the fighting.⁷³

The notion of *fi*'a has a direct bearing on a related subject: the manner of dividing the spoils. According to Imāmī fiqh, a fifth of the spoils captured from non-bushāt unbelievers goes to the Imam, and the rest is distributed among the Muslims as follows: the warriors receive the possessions captured in the enemy camp (mā hawāhu 'l-'askar), and the rest of the community receives all other captured enemy property.⁷⁴ In the case of the bushat, in contrast, possessions not captured on the battlefield may not be touched (since the families of the bughāt may be loyal Muslims).⁷⁵ As to possessions captured in the enemy camp, there are two conflicting views among Imāmī jurists. One group maintains that these possessions are to be distributed among the warriors in the same manner as possessions of other unbelievers, regardless of whether or not the bughāt could rely on others for support during the battle.⁷⁶ A second group of jurists argues that these possessions may be distributed among the warriors only in the case of man lahu fi'a, but not in the case of man lā fi'a lahu.⁷⁷ Both groups base their claims on 'Alī's alleged behaviour at Başra. The first group relies on an account to the effect that 'Alī distributed among his warriors the spoils captured on the battlefield.⁷⁸ Another version has it that 'Alī subsequently decided to return these possessions to their original owners; but this is seen by the first group as a particular act of kindness and generosity, which does not establish any legal precedent. Members of the second group claim that 'Alī definitely returned to the bughāt at Basra their possessions, and that

⁷² Al-Kulini, op. cit., V, pp. 32—33; al-Qādī al-Nu'mān, op. cit., I, pp. 459—460; Abū Ja'far al-Tūsī: K. al-khilāf, III, p. 166; id.: Al-nihāya, p. 297; Najm al-Dīn al-Hillī: Al-mukhtaşar al-nāfi', p. 134; Ibn al-Muţahhar al-Hillī: Tabşirat al-muta'allimīn, I, pp. 288—289. The concept of fi'a appears in Qur'ān 8/16.

⁷³ Al-Kishshī, op. cit., p. 190, cit. *Biḥār*, XXI, p. 98; al-Kulīnī, op. cit., V, p. 33, cit. *Biḥār*, VIII, p. 622.

76 Ibid.

74 Al-Tūsī: Al-nihāya, p. 294.

⁷⁵ Al-Qādī al-Nuʿmān: op. cit., I, p. 461.

⁷⁷ Najm al-Din al-Hilli, op. cit., p. 134; cf. al-Tusi, op. cit., p. 297.

⁷⁸ Al-Qādī al-Nu'mān, loc. cit.

this action is to be interpreted as meaning that any other behaviour would be illegal.⁷⁹

Imāmī doctors are at pains to prove that even when legal distinctions are made between laws governing $bugh\bar{a}t$ and those governing other unbelievers, these distinctions do not affect the doctrine that all $bugh\bar{a}t$ are unbelievers. Al-Shaykh al-Mufīd, for instance, distinguishes two different categories of unbelief. He terms the first category kufr ridda, "unbelief as a result of apostasy", involving a total rejection of Islam. The second category is kufr milla, explained by al-Mufīd as referring to someone who is neither a believer, nor even a Muslim in the religious sense, yet who legally belongs to the Islamic community by virtue of his acknowledgement of the *shahādatān*. Hence, from the legal point of view, he is to be treated differently from an unbeliever who is outside the community. In God's eyes, however, a $k\bar{a}jir mill\bar{i}$ is an unbeliever like any other, and as such is condemned to eternal hell-fire.⁸⁰ By applying this theory to 'Alī's enemies, al-Mufīd can explain 'Alī's lenient behaviour towards some of them, while at the same time insisting that they are unbelievers.

Al-Sharif al-Murtadā, clearly influenced by the thinking of his teacher al-Mufid, also accepts without question that both classes of unbelievers go to hell, and therefore deals only with the purely legal issue, i.e. how they should be treated in this world. He points out that not all unbelievers are subject to the same laws $(ahk\bar{a}m \ al-kufr)$; for instance, a non-Muslim in lands not yet conquered by the armies of Islam (sc. a *harbī*) is in a different legal category from a *dhimmī*, although both are unbelievers. In the same way 'Alī's treatment of his enemies, though often different from that customary in dealing with infidels in conquered territories, does not imply that he did not regard them as unbelievers.⁸¹

To sum up: Imāmī jurists regard the *bughāt* as unbelievers, but maintain that there are certain laws which apply only to them $(ahk\bar{a}m al-$

⁸⁰ Al-Mufīd: K. al-jamal, pp. 13—14. Cf. also id.: $Aw\bar{a}$ 'il al-maqālāt, p. 14. Al-Mufīd was not the first to have used these terms, although he gave them a particularly Imāmī colouring. Ibn Taymiyya maintains (K. al-īmān. Cairo 1325, pp. 131—132) that the distinction between unbelief which excludes from the community (yanqulu 'an al-milla) and unbelief which does not was already known to the Companion Ibn 'Abbās. According to TRITTON (Muslim theology. London 1947, p. 39), the Khārijīs used kuļr milla as an equivalent to kuļr shirk. But this is not the sense in which al-Mufīd understood the term.

⁸¹ Al-Sharīf al-Murtadā: K. al-shāfī fi 'l-imāma.' Tehran 1884, p. 224; id: Jumal al-'ilm wa'l-'amal. Ed. AĦMAD AL-HUSAYNĪ. Najaf 1967, p. 45; Abū Ja'far al-Ṭūsī: Talkhīş al-shāfī, cit. Bihār, VIII, p. 461. Cf. al-Qādī al-Nu'mān, op. cit., I, p. 453.

⁷⁹ See the discussion in *Bihār*, VIII, p. 461. Cf. Muhammad b. Hasan al-Najafī: *Jawāhir al-kalām*. XVI. Najaf 1385, pp. 12—13.

bughāt), and which differ from the laws governing other unbelievers. Some aspects of these laws are in dispute; but there is broad agreement among jurists on two major issues: first, that the fi'a-theory (if it applies at all) applies only to the bughāt, and second, that possessions found outside the camp of the bughāt (mā 'adā mā ḥawa 'l-'askar) may not be distributed among the Muslims.

ν

After 'Ali's brief reign and al-Husavn's abortive attempt to return the 'Alids to power, the Imams did not engage in active combat, since in their view their precarious political position dictated a quietistic policy. Rather than provoking the existing régimes through revolts and uprisings (a policy often followed by the Zavdivva), they channelled their energies into consolidating the Shī'ī heritage and providing spiritual leadership for their community. The suspension of *jihād*, which to them was an inevitable consequence of the new reality, was justified by reference to the need to practise tagiyya (precautionary dissimulation).⁸² At the same time, the courage displayed by the followers of the Imams in adhering to the Shī'ī faith despite all dangers was seen as raising them to the level of warriors killed in a holy war. This idea is summarised in the words attributed to Muhammad al-Bāgir, "every believer is a shahid, even if he dies in his bed".83 Similarly, the Imams themselves are regarded as shahids.⁸⁴ Jihād itself was considered as being in abeyance until a propitious moment for its revival should present itself. That moment was identified with the return of the concealed Imam as Mahdī.⁸⁵ Until the Mahdi's appearance, a state of temporary truce (hudna) would continue to exist between the Shī'is and their enemies.86 In fact, one of the main reasons given by the Imāmīs for the concealment of the Twelfth Imam has to do with his future role as leader of the *jihād*. According to Abū Ja'far al-Tūsī, the rulers of the world know that the Mahdī, unlike his forefathers, would rise against them and would eradicate their unjust

⁸² Bihār, XV/i, p. 205. Aspects of taqiyya in Imāmī Shī'ism are discussed in an article forthcoming in JAOS.

⁸³ Bihār, XIII, p. 140b (quoting al-Ţūsī's Amālī).

⁸⁴ Ibn Bābawayhi: $Am\bar{a}l\bar{i}$, p. 57. The belief that all the Imams died unnaturally as the result of the machinations of their enemies must also have led to their elevation to the rank of *shahīds*.

⁸⁵ This doctrine led to pejorative parallels being drawn between the Shi'is and the Jews, both of whom were said to link resumption of holy war with the arrival of the Messiah (= Mahdi). See I. FRIEDLAENDER: The heterodoxies of the Shiites in the presentation of Ibn Hazm. II. In: JAOS 29 (1908), p. 95 (quoting al-Sha'bi).

⁸⁶ Bihār, XVI, p. 233.

rule. They therefore constantly send out spies to find him and have him killed. Moreover, each Imam knew that if he were killed, he would be succeeded by the next Imam; after the Mahdī, however, there will be no Imam. For these reasons the Mahdī has to stay in hiding until the time for him to rise with his sword arrives.⁸⁷ A different argument for the prolonged concealment of the Imam was that "in the personal presence of the Imam the obligations that would fall upon men would be more difficult, such as fighting in the *jihād* (holy war) against those opposing the Faith".⁸⁸ At the same time, the very belief in the coming of the Mahdī meant that the practice of *taqiyya*, far from respresenting a defeat for Shī'ism, was merely a stage which had to be passed on the road to ultimate victory.⁸⁹

The vast eschatological literature dealing with the return of the Mahdī as *mujāhid* deserves a separate study, but some outstanding motifs may be briefly mentioned here: the Mahdī's weapon will be the sword Dhu 'l-Faqār, used by both Muḥammad and 'Alī; when the time for his return comes, that sword will call on him to rise and kill the enemies of God. Upon his return, he will be joined by 313 warriors (called *aṣḥāb al-Qā`im*), equalling in number the Muslims who fought at Badr; they will proceed to punish the enemies of 'Alī, including Abū Bakr, 'Umar, 'Uthmān and 'Ā'isha, as well as the murderers of al-Ḥusayn and the Umayyads in general. The Mahdī will conquer the lands of the unbelievers and will invite all scripturaries and polytheists to choose between Islam and the sword; he will then establish a rule of justice and equity.⁹⁰

The belief in the Mahdī as sole leader of the future $jih\bar{a}d$ is firmly entrenched in classical Imāmī doctrine. As promulgated by al-Shaykh al-Mufīd, that doctrine stipulates that the concealed Imam does not delegate his authority, and that no one after him can claim to be divinely protected from error and sin $(ma'\bar{s}\bar{u}m)$.⁹¹ In theory, this would preclude

⁸⁷ Al-Ţūsi: K. al-ghayba. Najaf 1385, pp. 61—63, 200, whence Bihār, XIII, p. 135. For a Sunnī attack on the Shī⁴ī concept of the Mahdī see Ibn Qayyim al-Jawziyya: Al-manār al-munīf fi 'l-ṣaḥīḥ wa'l-ḍa'īf. Ed. 'ABD AL-FATTĀḤ ABŪ GHADDA. Beirut 1970, p. 152.

⁸⁸ Al-Majlisī: *Hayāt al-qulūb*, cit. Donaldson: The Shī'ite religion. London 1933, p. 310.

⁸⁹ Cf. al-Nūrī al-Ţabarsī: Kashf al-astār. N. p. 1318, p. 37.

⁹⁰ These and numerous other traditions may be found in *Bihār*, XIII, pp. 121ff., where earlier sources are quoted. One of the oldest of these is the *K. al-ghayba* of Muhammad b. Ibrāhīm al-Nu mānī (see pp. 121ff. in the 1318 Tehran edition).

⁹¹ D. SOURDEL: Les conceptions imāmites au début du XI^e siècle d'après le Shaykh al-Mufīd. In: Islamic civilisation 950—1150. Ed. D. S. RICHARDS. Oxford 1973, p. 194; cf. J. ELIASH: The Ithnā 'asharī-Shī'i juristic theory of political and legal authority. In: SI 29 (1969), pp. 26—27.

anyone from declaring *iihād*, such declarations being a prerogative of the Imam.⁹² Yet already in the late Buwayhid period, the first chinks in this structure become apparent. By that time, the Imam (as well as his four safirs, or representatives) had long been gone, and Imāmī leaders must have felt the need to devise alternative methods of conducting the affairs of the community during his absence. Their problem assumed acute proportions when the Buwayhids found themselves under mounting military pressure from the Sunnī Saljugs. Imāmī jurists must have realised that total suspension of all forms of warfare was becoming a practical impossibility if the Buwayhid régime was to survive. This realisation was probably at the root of the first significant modification of the classical theory of *jihād*, which was formulated by Abū Ja'far al-Tūsī, the last great jurist of the period. Al-Tūsī stresses that a defensive *jihād* may be carried on even when the Imam is absent. Thus guarding of the frontiers $(rib\bar{a}t)$ is always a praiseworthy act, irrespective of whether an Imam is present, and he who vows to go to the frontier areas must always fulfil his yows.93

Al-Tūsī's views on *jihād* proved the basis for all subsequent Imāmī thinking on the subject. They were taken up and reinforced by leading jurists of the Ilkhān period, which witnessed a revival of Imāmī Shī'i literature after two centuries of decline. Chief among these jurists are al-Muhaqqiq Ja'far b. al-Hasan Naim al-Dīn al-Hillī (d. 676/1277)⁹⁴ and Ibn al-Mutahhar al-Hillī. They both declare that people may be summoned to *jihād* by the Imam or by a person appointed by the Imam for that purpose (man naṣabah \bar{u}).⁹⁵ This (deliberately?) vague formulation leaves unanswered the question of the identity of the person thus appointed. Yet an indirect answer seems to be provided when they later say that during the Imam's absence, where there is no need to practise taqiyya, the duty of executing the prescribed Quranic punishments (hud $\bar{u}d$) devolves upon the doctors (fugah \bar{a}).⁹⁶ Since the fugah \bar{a} , thereby

⁹² This was the conclusion reached by GOLDZIHER: Schī 'itisches. In: ZDMG 64 (1910), p. 531.

93 Al-Tūsī: Al-nihāya, pp. 290-291.

⁹⁴ Some Shī'ī biographers confused al-Muhaqqiq al-Hillī with Ibn al-Mutahhar al-Hilli by quoting the year 726/1325 (in which Ibn al-Mutahhar died) as the date in which both died (cf. MUHSIN AL-'AMILI: A'yān al-shī'a. XV. Damascus 1940, p. 372). This confusion misled S. H. M. JAFRI in his biographical note on al-Muhaqqiq al-Hillī (EI2, III, p. 390). - Najm al-Dīn's formulations of the rules of ribat closely follow those of al-Tusi. See QUERRY, op. cit., I, p. 323; Al-mukhtaşar al-nāfi⁴, p. 133. ⁹⁵ QUERRY, op. cit., I, pp. 323, 352; Najm al-Dīn al-Hillī, loc. cit.; Ibn

al-Mutahhar al-Hilli: Tabsirat al-muta allimin, I, p. 280.

⁹⁶ QUERRY, op. cit., I, p. 356; Najm al-Din al-Hilli, op. cit., p. 139; Ibn al-Muțahhar al-Hilli, op. cit., I, pp. 300-301.

effectively serve as the Imam's representatives, it may perhaps be assumed that they are also responsible for summoning the people to $jih\bar{a}d$ whenever necessary.

With the advent of the Safavids in the late 9th/15th century. Imāmī 'ulamā' had to contend, for the first time, with Shī'ī rulers who had their own ideas on various doctrinal issues. Thus Shah Ismā'īl (reigned 907/ 1501-930/1524), whose brand of Shi'ism was imbued with extreme elements, claimed descent from the Imams and hence regarded himself as entitled to all of their prerogatives. These included *jihād* against his most dangerous external foes, the Ottomans.⁹⁷ The 'ulamā' did not always acquiesce in these Safavid pretensions to religious leadership, which were often used to further political ends.⁹⁸ Consequently, authoritative theological works of that period do not as a rule reproduce the more radical views on *jihād* held by some of the Safavid rulers, but are rather compilations of previous material on the subject. The best known of these works is probably al-Majlisi's Bihār al-anwār, which includes numerous references to *jihād*, as well as a separate chapter devoted entirely to it, and comprising mainly hadiths and utterances of the Imams.99

This situation changed in the late 18th century, when the Safavids were superseded by the Qajar dynasty. From a purely religious viewpoint, the new dynasty (which did not even claim to descend from the Imams) was illegitimate and its leaders could not speak with authority on religious matters. As a result, the '*ulamā*' found themselves in the position of sole interpreters of the *sharī*'a, a fact which increased their

⁹⁷ "[Ismā'Il's rule was] imbued with the ideal of promoting the cause of the Shi'a and fighting the Sunna both within and without its borders" (D. AYALON: Gunpowder and firearms in the Mamluk kingdom. London 1956, p. 109). This Şafavid attitude was more than fully reciprocated by the Ottomans, who heaped abuse on the Şafavids, branding them as unbelievers and finally declaring jihād against them. See J. R. WALSH: The historiography of Ottoman-Safavid relations in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. In: Historians of the Middle East. Ed. B. LEWIS and P. M. HOLT. London 1962, pp. 204—206; and in general E. EBERHARD: Osmanische Polemik gegen die Safaviden im 16. Jahrhundert nach arabischen Handschriften. Freiburg i.Br. 1970.

⁹⁸ According to the evidence of the 17th-century French traveller Jean Chardin, some members of the religious classes believed that the Imam's role should be filled by a divinely-protected *mujtahid*, while others held that only a direct descendant of the Imam had this right. See A. K. S. LAMBTON: *Quis custodiet custodes.* In: SI 6 (1956), p. 132.

⁹⁹ See Bihār, XXI, pp. 91—117. For an analysis of the Bihār see KARL-HEINZ PAMPUS: Die theologische Enzyklopädie Bihār al-anwār des Muhammad Bāqir al-Majlisī, ein Beitrag zur Literaturgeschichte der Šī'a in der Safawidenzeit. Diss. Bonn 1970.

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power and influence.¹⁰⁰ Nothing can illustrate this better than the role played by the 'ulamā' in the proclamations of *jihād* in the 19th century. The most famous of these occurred during the Perso-Russian wars of 1808-13 and 1826-28. The anti-Russian campaign was initially set in motion by representatives of the state. Mīrzā Buzurg Abu 'l-Qāsim Qā'im Magām (d. 1237/1822), who was the minister of Crown Prince 'Abbās Mīrzā (d. 1249/1833), asked and obtained from the leading 'ulamā' tatwās sanctioning *jihād*, thus acknowledging that religious approval for the war was essential. The process repeated itself in the second Perso-Russian war. Yet once the movement for *jihād* was set in motion, the 'ulamā' emerged as the real driving force behind it, and when second thoughts arose in court circles as to the advisability of waging war, they were largely swept aside by the wave of popular religious enthusiasm.¹⁰¹ The *fatwās* issued by the *'ulamā'*, which were collected in a volume entitled Risāla-vi jihādīva, bear witness to a burst of new thinking on the subject.¹⁰² Earlier theories were often elaborated upon, and sometimes even supplanted. As a result, the doctrine of *jihād* as promulgated in the Risāla differs markedly from the classical Shī'i exposition of the subject.¹⁰⁸

¹⁰⁰ See A. K. S. LAMBTON: A nineteenth century view of jihād. In: SI 32 (1970), pp. 184—187. The intricate relationship which existed between the 'ulamā' and the state during the Qajar period is the main subject of H. ALGAR'S book, Religion and state in Iran, 1785—1906. Berkeley and Los Angeles 1969. Cf. also N. R. KEDDIE: The roots of the ulama's power in modern Iran. In: SI 29 (1969), pp. 31—53.

¹⁰¹ ALGAR, op. cit., pp. 79—90; cf. R. K. RAMAZANI: The foreign policy of Iran, 1500—1941. Charlottesville 1966, p. 46. 'Abbās Mīrzā approached the 'ulamā' in order to gain popular support for the war against Russia, but his decision to go to war may in fact have been influenced less by religious conviction than by purely military considerations. See P. W. AVERY: An enquiry into the outbreak of the second Russo-Persian war, 1826—28. In: Iran and Islam. Ed. C. E. BOSWORTH. Edinburgh 1971, pp. 17—45.

¹⁰² ÅGHĀ BUZURG AL-ŢIHRĀNĪ: Al-dharī'a ilā taṣānīţ al-shī'a. Najaf 1936—8, then Tehran 1941ff., V, pp. 296—298, gives a list of works (in Persian and Arabic) entitled Al-jihādīya, and most or all of these must be the fatwās issued at that period. Most of them are presumably included in the Risāla-yi jihādīya. Unfortunately, I had no access to the original fatwās, and could only consult an abridged version of the Risāla originally published in Tabriz in 1234/1819. (I used a photographic reprint, kindly sent to me by Dr. J. GURNEY.) The author of the abridgement is probably the second Qā'im Maqām, who was the son of Mīrzā Buzurg (see AL-ŢIHRĀNĪ, op. cit., V, p. 296). His abridgement has the form of an independent treatise, and takes no account of whatever divergencies there may have been between the various passages from this work.

¹⁰⁸ The views of the leading contemporaneous theologian, Shaykh Ja'far

The Risāla (in its abridged form) opens with an explanation of the revived interest in $jih\bar{a}d$: "The practice of $jih\bar{a}d$ was neglected and abandoned in the lands of Iran — may God preserve them from misfortune — during the whole period between the concealment of the Imam and the accession, in our own times, of the glorious [Qajar] dynasty. As a result, none of the orthodox 'ulamā' and leading doctors wrote a work specifically devoted to this subject, and none took it upon himself to expound it. But it has now become clear that the Russians are plotting against Iran, and the Islamic community must once again use the sword of $jih\bar{a}d$; and so the 'ulamā' of this age — may God increase their likes — have decided that it is their duty to give a full account of the doctrines relating to $jih\bar{a}d$."¹⁰⁴

The author distinguishes two kinds of $jih\bar{a}d$: offensive $jih\bar{a}d$ (called $jih\bar{a}d$ - $i da^{\circ}vat\bar{i}$), in which Muslims turn to the lands of the unbelievers and call on them to embrace Islam, having first obtained permission for this action from the Prophet, the Imam or the Imam's deputy $(n\bar{a}^{*}ib kh\bar{a}ss)$;¹⁰⁵ and a defensive $jih\bar{a}d$ (called $jih\bar{a}d$ - $i dif\bar{a}^{*}i$), which in turn is divided into four types.¹⁰⁶

After quoting a number of Quranic passages and several $had\bar{i}ths$ in praise of $jih\bar{a}d$, the author declares: "It is possible to say that $jih\bar{a}d$ during the Imam's concealment is more praiseworthy than during his presence."¹⁰⁷ One can hardly imagine a statement more strikingly in Najafī(d. 1228/1813), on the subject of $jih\bar{a}d$, as set out in his Kashj al-ghitā, have been summarised by LAMBTON in: SI 32 (1970), pp. 187—192. Interesting parallels exist between Shaykh Ja'far's exposition and the treatment of the subject in the Risāla-yi jihādīya, although there are also important differences. While the author of the Risāla is especially interested in clarifying the legal differences between offensive and defensive $jih\bar{a}d$, Shaykh Ja'far's main concern seems to lie in establishing the predominant position of the mujtahids and in defining the duties and responsibilities of the reigning sultan.

¹⁰⁵ This term is used in two senses: with reference to the period of the "lesser concealment" it is used to refer to one of the four *safirs* of the concealed Imam; and with reference to the "greater concealment" it signifies a person appointed for a specific task by the $n\bar{a}$ 'ib ' $\bar{a}mm$, i.e. the body of the *mujtahids*. See LAMBTON, op. cit., p. 181, n. 1.

¹⁰⁶ These types are: (i) $jih\bar{a}d$ to preserve the territory and community of Islam (bayżā-i islām) during an attack by unbelievers; (ii) $jih\bar{a}d$ to prevent the unbelievers from gaining control over the persons of Muslims; (iii) $jih\bar{a}d$ to repel a particular group of unbelievers when it is feared that they might gain ascendancy over a particular group of Muslims; (iv) $jih\bar{a}d$ to evict unbelievers where they have succeeded in conquering Muslim territories. See *Risāla-yi jihādīya*, pp. 9—10.

¹⁰⁷ Ibid., p. 13. According to the author, this claim is based on Shī'i traditions relating to the verse, "oh Lord our God, we have heard a caller calling [upon us] to believe" (Qur'ān 3/193(190)), but I do not know which traditions he has in mind. Most Sunni and Shī'i commentators agree in identifying the 'caller' as either Muḥammad or the Qur'ān.

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contradiction with the classical view that a $jih\bar{a}d$ can only be carried out under the leadership of an Imam. The author then proceeds to explain that in times of danger to the community, the duty of $jih\bar{a}d$ turns from fard kifāya into fard 'ayn.¹⁰⁸ The Russian threat is a case in point: all Muslims must leave their families, their children and their property in order to preserve Islam.¹⁰⁹

The war against Russia belongs to the category of $jih\bar{a}d$ -i $dif\bar{a}$ 'i, and the rest of the $Ris\bar{a}la^{110}$ consists of a list of twelve — always a significant number in Imāmī Shī'ism — differences between the rules governing defensive and offensive $jih\bar{a}d$. These differences may be summarised as follows:

(i) Whereas an offensive *jihād* may not be waged without the permission of a prophet, an Imam, or a $n\bar{a}$ '*ib* $kh\bar{a}ss$ (whether present or absent), a defensive *jihād* depends neither on their permission, nor on the permission of the body of *mujtahids* (the $n\bar{a}$ '*ib* ' $\bar{a}mm$). If the *mujtahids* are unable to lead the *jihād*, then it becomes the duty of the believers to follow whoever is best equipped to win the war, regardless of his moral qualities. There follows a quotation, presumably from the Kashf alghițā', in which Shaykh Ja'far authorises Fath 'Alī Shah (reigned 1212/1797—1250/1834) to declare a *jihād* against the Russians.¹¹¹

(ii) Even persons who are exempt from fighting an offensive $jih\bar{a}d$ (such as women, slaves, the sick, the old and the insane) must participate in a defensive $jih\bar{a}d$, since such a $jih\bar{a}d$ is tantamount to self-preservation.

(iii) Offensive $jih\bar{a}d$ is limited to one campaign a year, and is not permitted during the sacred months.¹¹² Murābițūn (i.e. those who guard the frontiers) must not participate without specific authorisation from the Imam or the $n\bar{a}$ 'ib khāşş. None of these limitations obtain in defensive $jih\bar{a}d$; it is in fact incumbent upon the murābiţūn to wage $jih\bar{a}d$ when faced with imminent attack.

(iv) Levies imposed to finance an offensive $jih\bar{a}d$ may not reach a level where they bring about personal hardship and damage. In preparation for a defensive $jih\bar{a}d$, however, the neccessary sums must be raised, regardless of the financial sacrifice involved.

(v) The spoils of war (ghanimat) obtained during an offensive $jih\bar{a}d$ must be distributed among the warriors; but in a defensive $jih\bar{a}d$, if the

¹⁰⁸ Ibid., p. 15. Cf. above, p. 68. ¹⁰⁹ Ibid., p. 16.

¹¹⁰ Pp. 17-76.

¹¹¹ On the political implications of this act see LAMBTON, op. cit., p. 192.

¹¹² Al-ashhur al-harām, i.e. Shawwāl, Dhu 'l-Qa'da, Dhu 'l-Ḥijja, Muḥarram. On this question from the Sunnī point of view cf. KHADDURI, op. cit., p. 105. spoils are needed in order to finance the continuation of the war on other fronts, then they are to be spent for that purpose and are not to be distributed among the warriors.

(vi) Only in a defensive $jih\bar{a}d$ is it permissible to use coercion to obtain the funds needed for the battle.

(vii) The treaties agreed upon between Muslims and *dhimmis* (such as the payment of *jizya* and the promise of protection) may not be broken by the Muslims during an offensive *jihād*, unless the other side has broken them first; in a defensive *jihād*, however, such treaties may be unilaterally revoked by the Muslims if they deem this necessary.

(viii) Whereas an offensive $jih\bar{a}d$ is waged only against unbelievers, in a defensive $jih\bar{a}d$ no distinction is drawn between unbelievers and those Muslims who resemble them in their greed for power and wealth. Such Muslims, who aid the unbelievers by divulging military secrets and by spreading sedition, are not part of the Muslim community, are regarded as belonging to the category of a *murtadd fitri*,¹¹³ and are to be killed.¹¹⁴

(ix) In a defensive *jihād*, it is not obligatory, before attacking the enemy, to call upon him to embrace Islam (thus losing the element of surprise).¹¹⁵ If necessary, believers are allowed to wear — even during the prescribed prayers — clothes of a kind normally forbidden to them (e.g. garments made from the hide of animals whose flesh may not be consumed, or garments made with gold threads). No such dispensations apply in an offensive war.

(x) In an offensive $jih\bar{a}d$, care must be taken that the unbelievers do not outnumber the believers by more than two to one; in a defensive $jih\bar{a}d$, on the other hand, the number of the enemy is not to be taken into account.¹¹⁶

(xi) Various stratagems, which in an offensive *jihād* are frowned upon, are allowed in a defensive war. These include surprise attack, attack at night, using weapons such as muskets, pistols, carbines and grenades, uprooting trees, releasing water to flood the unbelievers or preventing water from reaching them so that they die of thirst, and so on.

¹¹³ A term referring to an apostate who was born as a Muslim. The distinction between such an apostate and an apostate who was not born as a Muslim (*murtadd ghayr fitrī*) was already known to the Meccan theologian 'Aṭā' b. Abī Rabāḥ (d. 115/733); cf. GOLDZIHER: *Muslim studies*, II, pp. 199—200, and in general the article on 'Aṭā' by J. SCHACHT, in: EI², I, p. 730.

¹¹⁴ This clause may have been directed against those elements who hesitated to join the call for $jih\bar{a}d$ against the Russians.

¹¹⁵ Cf. KHADDURI, op. cit., pp. 96—98. For the formula of this du^{a} , see al-Kulini, op. cit., V, p. 36.

¹¹⁶ Cf. KHADDURI, op. cit., p. 135.

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(xii) In an offensive $jih\bar{a}d$, it is forbidden to violate a cease-fire (*muhādana*) once it has been agreed upon; in a defensive $jih\bar{a}d$ this is allowed, as long as the danger from the unbelievers has not been completely averted.

The significance of the Risāla-yi jihādīya is two-fold: firstly, it established the religious leadership as the de facto vicegerents of the concealed Imam; and secondly, it reasserted the central position of the duty of jihād in Imāmī jurisprudence. While the ultimate victory of Shī'ism continued to be linked to the coming of the Mahdī, the pursuance of jihād-i difā'i could henceforth be regarded as a legitimate means of defending the Imāmī community. Viewed in perspective, the development of the Imāmī doctrine of jihād, from its earliest stages up to its manifestation in the Risāla, attests to the remarkable resilience of Imāmī thinking, which could adapt itself to vastly different historical situations without compromising the foundations upon which it was built.¹¹⁷

¹¹⁷ I am most grateful to Dr. F. H. STEWART for his painstaking revision of the text of this article and for his numerous suggestions relating to both style and contents.