THE MASSACRE OF THE BANU QURAYZA A re-examination of a tradition

The story of the massacre of the Banu Qurayza (April 627 A.D./Dhu I-Qa'da 5 A.H.), as recorded in various compilations of the *Sira*-literature, is concerned with the final blow which the prophet Muhammad struck at the last Jewish tribal group in Medina.

According to the widely current tradition, transmitted by the early Muslim scholars of hadith, biographers of the Prophet, jurists and historians, Qurayza are said to have concluded a pact with the Prophet in which they committed themselves not to help the enemies of the Prophet. But when the enemies of the Prophet (i.e. the Confederates, Quraysh and their Allies, the Ahzāb - K.) besieged Medina the Banū Ouravza are alleged to have aided the forces of the Prophet's enemies, the Ahzāb. Huyayy b. Akhtab, a former leader of the exiled Jewish tribe of the Banū Nadīr is blamed for having instigated Kacb b. Asad, the leader of Qurayza, to violate the agreement with the Prophet and for having pressed him to negotiate with the leaders of the Ahzāb. The Prophet succeeded by stratagem to undermine the mutual confidence between Ourayza and the Ahzāb and to spoil their strategic plans against him and against the Muslim community at Medina. The failure of the siege of Medina by the Ahzāb and their disordered and hasty retreat marked a manifest victory for the Prophet and left Qurayza in a precarious position, facing the forces of the Prophet in isolation.

Immediately after the withdrawal of the Ahzāb the Prophet was actually summoned by the angel Jibrīl to march out against the Banū Qurayza. The siege laid by the forces of the Prophet on the stronghold of Qurayza brought about a deterioration of the situation of the besieged shortly afterwards. Their leader, Ka^cb b. Asad put forward three proposals as solution: (a) that they should convert to Islam, (b) that they should kill the women and children and march out from the stronghold to fight courageously the besieging force of the Muslims, or (c) that they should

¹ See J.M.B. Jones, The Chronology of the Maghāzī, BSOAS XIX, 1957, pp. 274, 251.

surprise Muḥammad and his troops by a speedy and unexpected attack on the eve of Saturday. All the proposals were, however, rejected by the Banū Qurayza.

When the situation deteriorated Qurayza sent their messenger to negotiate with the Prophet the terms of their surrender. They proposed to surrender and depart leaving behind their land and property and taking with them movable property only, the load of a camel per person. When this proposal was rejected, the messenger returned asking that Qurayza be permitted to depart without any property, taking with them only their families; but this proposal too was rejected and the Prophet insisted that they surrender unconditionally and subject themselves to his judgment. Qurayza asked for Abū Lubāba, a Companion of the Prophet whom they trusted, to be sent to them in order to have his advice. Abū Lubāba indiscreetly pointed with his hand to his throat, a movement which clearly conveyed slaughter; he regretted his treason towards God and the Prophet, repented and the Prophet was glad to convey to him the joyous tiding of God's forgiveness, as it was revealed to him.

The Banu Qurayza, compelled to surrender, descended from their stronghold and were led to Medina. The men, their hands pinioned behind their backs, were put in a court $(d\bar{a}r)$ in Medina; the women and children are said to have been put in another one. When the Prophet was asked by people of Aus, who were allies of Qurayza, to show leniency towards their allies the Qurayza, he proposed to appoint as arbiter a man from Aus, Sa^cd b. Mu^cādh. Qurayza consented and so did the attending Muslims; among the Muslims were, of course, the Aus who in turn began to intercede with Sacd for Ourayza; Sacd's harsh answer was a bad omen for the fate of Qurayza. When all the parties agreed to abide by the judgment of Sa^cd he gave his concise verdict: the men shall be put to death, the women and children sold into slavery, the spoils divided among the Muslims. The Prophet ratified the judgment and stated that Sa^cd's decree had been issued as a decree of God pronounced from above the Seven Heavens. Accordingly some 400 (or 600, or 700, or 800, or even 900) men from Qurayza were led on the order of the Prophet to the market of Medina; trenches were dug in the place, the men were executed and buried in the trenches. The Prophet attended the executions, which were carried out by cAlī and al-Zubayr. Youths who had not reached maturity were spared. Women and children were sold into slavery; a number of them were distributed as gifts among the Companions.

The story of the massacre of Qurayza, of which a short summary has been given above, was thoroughly studied and analysed by several western scholars, who severely criticized the Prophet for it.² Although not unanimous in their assessment of certain details of the story, the scholars are in agreement concerning the cruelty of the judgment of Sacd b. Mucadh. Some Muslim scholars didn't deny the merciless character of Sacd's judgment, but justified it pointing out that the Banū Qurayza had yielded to the treacherous activities of Huyayy b. Akhtab and had committed deeds of treason. Sacd's decree, although severe and harsh, was a vital necessity as he regarded the fate of the Jews as a question of life and death for the Muslim community. The responsibility for the killing of Qurayza should be placed on Huyayy b. Akhtab who instigated the war-activities against the Prophet.³

² See e.g. Martin Hartmann, Der Islam, Leipzig 1909, p. 16: "Ein ewiges Schandmal bleibt die Ruchlosigkeit mit der Muhammed gegen den Stamm Quraiza verfuhr: 600 Männer erlitten den Tod durch Henkershand, die Weiber und Kinder wurden verkauft." W. Muir, Mahomet and Islam, London 1895, p. 151: "The massacre of Banu Coreitza was a barbarous deed which cannot be justified by any reason of political necessity..." "But the indiscriminate slaughter of the whole tribe cannot be recognized otherwise than as an act of monstrous cruelty, which casts an indelible blot upon the Prophet's name..." J. Andrae, Mohammed, Sein Leben und sein Glaube, Göttingen 1932, p. 126: "Es war der letzte Jundenstamm in Medina, Banū Kuraiza, den er nun exemplarisch zu strafen beschloss wegen der Unzuverlässigkeit, die er während der Belagerung gezeigt hatte. Bei dieser Gelegenheit zeigte er wieder den Mangel an Ehrlichkeit und moralischem Mut, der einen weniger sympathischen Zug seines Charakters bildete..." F. Buhl, Das Leben Muhammeds, Transl. H.H. Schaeder, Heidelberg 1955, p. 275: "... Diesmal war Muhammad jedoch zu erbittert um Schonung zu gewähren: aber die Art wie er seinen Willen durschsetzte, hatte etwas in hohem Grade Raffiniertes und zeigt wieder seinen Charakter in einem sehr abstossenden Licht..." M. Gaudefroy-Demombynes, Mahomet, Paris 1969, p. 145: "L'incident des B. Qoraïza est une vilaine page de l'histoire de Mohammed, mais c'est un acte qui fut tres profitable à la gloire d'Allah et de son prophète..." W. Montgomery Watt, Muhammad at Medina, Oxford, 1956, p. 214: "Some European writers have criticized this sentence for what they call its savage and inhuman character..." Maxime Rodinson, Mohammed, New York 1974, p. 213: "It is not easy to judge the massacre of the Qurayza. It must be remembered that the customs of the time were extremely primitive..." F. Gabrieli, Muhammad and the Conquest of Islam, London 1968, p. 73: "This dark episode, which Muslim tradition, it must be said, takes quite calmly, has provoked lively discussion among western biographers of Muhammed, with caustic accusations on the one hand and legalistic excuses on the other... In this case he was ruthless, with the approval of his conscience and of his God, for the two were one; we can only record the fact, while reaffirming our consciousness as Christians and civilised men, that this God or at least this aspect of Him, is not ours."

³ Muhammad Husayn Haykal, Hayāt Muhammad, Cairo 1358, p. 321. And see e.g. Hafiz Ghulam Sarwar, Muhammad the Holy Prophet, Lahore 1967, p. 247: "No one can dispute the justice of the sentence on the Quraiza... Traitors are always executed unless they ask pardon and circumstances justify the pardon being granted... Muhammad was absolutely

Odd assumptions appear in W.N. Arafat's article on this subject.⁴ Arafat tries to prove the unreliability of the account of the events of the massacre of Qurayza as recorded by Ibn Ishāq (d. 151 A.H.) and transmitted by later Muslim scholars, historians and biographers of the Prophet. The later historians "draw, and in most cases depend on Ibn Ishāq", states Arafat and comments: "But Ibn Ishāq died in 151 A.H., i.e., 145 years after the event in question". 5 Arafat's severe criticism refers first of all to the way in which Ibn Ishāq collected his information: his sources were untrustworthy, uncertain and late; his account is in Arafat's opinion "a sum-total of the collective reports, pieced together". Arafat quotes thrice the opinion of Mālik b. Anas (from Ibn Sayyid al-Nās, 'Uyūn al-athar) about Muḥammad b. Ishaq: "he was a liar", "an impostor" who "transmits his stories from the Jews" and stresses twice that "against the late and uncertain sources on the one hand, and the condemning authorities on the other must be set the only contemporary and entirely authentic source, The Qur'an." (Sūra XXXIII, 26: "He caused those of the People of the Book who helped them (i.e. the Quraysh) to come out of their forts. Some you killed, some you took prisoner." [as quoted by Arafat]).⁷ If 600 or 700 people were killed there would have been a clearer reference to it in the Qur'an; as only the guilty leaders were executed the reference in the Qur'an is very brief - argues Arafat. He rejects without hesitation the widely circulated story about the massacre of the Banū Qurayza and reiterates his argument: the verse of the Qur'an indicates clearly that only those men of Qurayza who were actually fighting were

free from blame. The real culprit in this tragedy, for it was a most horrible tragedy... was Huyayy b. Akhtab..." Ameer Ali, A short history of the Saracens, London 1961, p. 13: "It was considered unsafe to leave the traitorous Banū Koraiza so near the city, as their treachery might at any moment lead to the destruction of Medina... This was a severe punishment according to our ideas, but it was customary according to the rules of war then prevalent." Muḥammad Ḥamidullāh, Muslim Conduct of State, Lahore 1961, §443: "... The females and children of the Jewish tribe of Banū Quraizah were, by the decision of the arbitrator nominated by themselves, enslaved and distributed as booty. This arbitral award was in conformity with the Jewish personal law..."; §497: "... In the case of the Banū Quraizah, it was the arbitrator of their own choice who awarded exactly what Deuteronomy provided..."

⁴ W.N. Arafat, "New Light on the Story of Banū Qurayza and the Jews of Medina," JRAS (1976), 100-107.

⁵ Arafat, op. cit., pp. 101, ll. 1-2.

⁶ Arafat, op. cit., pp. 101, l. 8, 102 ult. -103 l.1, 106 ll. 2-3.

⁷ Arafat, op. cit., pp. 101 l. 20, 103 ll. 11-15.

executed; according to the rule of Islam only those responsible for the sedition were punished. Killing a large number of people is opposed to the Islamic sense of justice and the Our'anic rule regarding prisoners, argues Arafat. Why should the Qurayza have been slaughtered, asks Arafat, while other Jewish groups which surrendered both before and after the Banu Qurayza were treated leniently and were allowed to go. If so many hundreds of people were indeed put to death in the market-place and trenches were dug for the operation, why, asks Arafat, is there no trace of all that and no sign or word to point to the place? "Had this slaughter actually happened", contends Arafat, "the jurists would have adopted it as a precedent"; "in fact exactly the opposite had been the case" - asserts Arafat. Arafat stresses further that the details of the story imply inside knowledge, i.e. from the Jews themselves. Both the descendants of the Banū Qurayza and the descendants of the Medinan Muslims were eager to glorify their ancestors; it was one of the descendants of Sacd b. Mucadh who transmitted the judgment of Sacd and the saving of the Prophet to Sacd: "You have pronounced God's judgment upon them [as inspired] through Seven Veils".8 Finally Arafat raises some additional questions: how could many hundreds of persons be incarcerated in a house belonging to a woman of the Banū l-Najjār, and how can one explain the fact that some Jews are mentioned as remaining in Medina after the alleged expulsion of all the Jewish tribes?

Arafat draws a comparison between the story of Masada as recorded by Josephus Flavius and the story of the Banū Qurayza. Arafat's conclusions are surprising: the descendants of the Jews who fled to Arabia after the Jewish wars superimposed details of the siege of Masada on the story of the siege of the Banū Qurayza. According to Arafat, the mixture provided the basis for Ibn Ishāq's story.

Arafat's article was followed by another one by a certain Zaid. In his article entitled "The Masada Legend in Jewish and Islamic Tradition" the author reiterates Arafat's arguments, arrives at the same con-

⁸ Arafat's rendering of this sentence is erroneous: min fauqi sab^cati arqi^catin does not mean "Seven Veils". Guillaume translates: "You have given the judgment of Allah above the seven heavens." Montgomery Watt, "The Condemnation of the Jews of Banu Qurayzah", MW 42 (1952), p. 163: "You have judged their case with the judgment of God from above seven heavens."

⁹ IQ, vols. XX-XXII (1978), 94-103.

clusions and does not add any genuine opinion of his own. It seems thus that this article does not deserve any comment.

The daring assumptions put forth by Arafat and summarized above ought to be investigated. Data about the events surrounding the massacre of Banū Qurayza should be re-examined and certain traditions analysed and re-assessed.

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Four of Arafat's twelve arguments are of particular importance and have in fact a common denominator: the data of the story of Qurayza stand, according to Arafat, in contradiction to Muslim rules, Muslim law, Muslim justice and Qur'anic principles. The rule in Islam, says Arafat, is to punish only those who are responsible for sedition (argument no. 2); killing such a large number of people is diametrically opposed to the Islamic sense of justice and to the basic principles laid down in the Our'an (argument no. 3); the slaughter of prisoners is against the Qur'anic rule which orders that they either be granted their freedom or else be allowed to be ransomed (argument no. 4); had this slaughter actually happened, maintains Arafat, jurists would have adopted it as a precedent; in fact exactly the opposite has happened (argument no. 7). In order to strengthen arguments nos. 3 and 7, Arafat quotes Qur'an XXXV, 18: "No soul shall bear another's burden." If these four arguments put forward by Arafat are valid and sound - they would prove convincingly that the reports about Sacd b. Mucadh's judgment, its approval by the Prophet and the cruel massacre of the Banu Qurayza are all ficticious. If Arafat's arguments are true, then indeed no Muslim jurist could have based his judgment on an account totally alien to the spirit of Muslim law and contrary to Muslim justice and Muslim ethics.

Arafat's arguments are however unfounded, his conclusions incorrect •nd his opinion about Sīra tradition is misappreciative. Muslim jurists were well acquainted with the story of the Banū Qurayza and based themselves in their judgments and decrees on the account of the massacre. It was in fact al-Shāfiēī (d. 204 A.H.) who with deep insight analysed the case of Banū Qurayza, defined the nature of their mischievous actions, assessed the character of the transgression committed by them and elucidated the problem of individual and collective punishment. In a passage entitled "Violation of an agreement" (naqdu l-cahdi) Shāfiēī says:

If the Imam concludes with a people an agreement of non-agression (wāda^ca - K.) for a (certain) period or he receives from a people jizya and the person or persons who concluded the agreement of muwāda a or of the jizya on behalf of the people belong to that people we shall not oblige them (i.e. those who concluded the agreement, scil. to carry out the stipulations of the agreement - K.) until we know that those who remained (i.e. the people who stayed in their abode while their leaders concluded the agreement - K.) approved of it and were satisfied with it (hattā naclama anna man baqiya minhum qad aqarra bi-dhalika wa-radiyahu). If this is so, no one from among the Muslims is permitted to take from them (anything - K.) of their property or [harm them in their] body (literally: wa-daman, "of their blood"); if a Muslim commits it (a mischievous deed of this kind - K.) he has to be indicted for what he spent (from the property which he took unjustly) as long as the people (who concluded the agreement - K.) remain upright. If those who concluded the agreement violate it, or if a group from among them violate it and the people (who concluded the treaty - K.) do not oppose the violators by an open action or word (wa-lam yukhālifū alnāqid bi-qaulin au ficlin zāhirin) before they (i.e. the righteous - K.) come to the Imam or leave the territory (in which the violators stay - K.) and inform the Imam that they are continuing to adhere to the agreement (inna 'alā sulhinā); or if the violators go out to fight the Muslims or to fight the people under their protection (i.e. under the protection of the Muslims, ahl dhimmat li-l-muslimin) and aid thus the fighting men (i.e. of the enemy - K.) or help (the forces - K.) fighting them (i.e. those who fight the Muslims - K.) then the Imam is entitled to raid them. If he does it and there is nobody of the people (who opposed the violators - K.) who would (leave their abode -K.) and come out to the Imam - it is up to the Imam to (order to - K.) kill their fighting men (qatlu muqatilatihim), to enslave their progeny and to take their property as booty, whether they be in the dar al-islam or in the territory of of the enemy. So the Prophet acted in the case of the Banu Qurayza: he concluded with their leader an agreement of reconciliation on the basis of a truce (al-sulh bi-l-muhādana) and (their leader) violated it; but they did not abandon him (wa-lam yufariquhu). The Prophet then went out to fight them in their own abode which was in the extreme part of Medina (wa-hiva ma^cahu bi-tarafi l-madina) and killed their fighting men (fa-gatala mugātilatahum) and captured their property as booty; and (that while - K.) not all of them took part in aiding (scil. the Ahzab - K.) against the Prophet and his Companions, but all of them remained in their stronghold and did not abandon the treacherous people from among them, except a small party (nafar) and this (action) saved their lives and kept their possessions in their hands.¹⁰

¹⁰ Al-Shāfici, al-Umm, n.p. 1321 (repr. Kitāb al-shacb 1388 (1968) IV, 107).

It is evident that according to the judgment of al-Shāficī the Muslim law enjoins punishing people who were not responsible for breaking the agreement, but who merely remained passive in the territory occupied by the transgressors; this rule contradicts Arafat's argument no. 2. It is obvious that people who do not revolt against their iniquitous leaders and join the righteous party (i.e. the Muslim community – K.) may be put to death by order of the Imām; this is in fact contrary to Arafat's argument no. 3. It is apparent that the Banū Qurayza who surrendered did not enjoy the status of prisoners of war; this is, of course, contrary to Arafat's argument no. 4. Al-Shāficī considered the report about the slaughter of the Banū Qurayza reliable and sound and he based his judgment on it; this contradicts Arafat's argument no. 7.

In order to reinforce his argument that Muslim jurists did not adopt the case of Banū Qurayza as a precedent and championed ideas totally opposed to those reflected in the story of the slaughter of the Banū Qurayza, Arafat quotes a judgment of al-Auzārī as recorded in Abū 'Ubayd's Amwāl. But Arafat seems to have been unaware of the fact that it was the selfsame Abū 'Ubayd al-Qāsim b. Sallām (d. 224 A.H.) who in his Amwāl recorded carefully the traditions about the "Day of Qurayza" with their isnāds and attached his own valuable legal comments. Abū 'Ubayd records the tradition about the execution of Huyayy b. Akhtab: Huyayy concluded a treaty ('āhada) with the Prophet committing himself not to aid anybody against the Prophet. On the "Day of the Banū Qurayza" he was captured and brought into the presence of the Prophet. The Prophet ordered that he and his son be killed. Abū 'Ubayd comments:

The Prophet declared the shedding of the blood of Qurayza lawful because they extended their help against him (li-muzāharatihim) to the Ahzāb, after they had concluded a treaty with him. The Prophet considered it a violation of their treaty (fa-ra'ā dhālika nakthan li-cahdihim) although they did not kill anyone of his Companions (wa-in kānū lam yaqtulū min aṣhābihi ahadan). A verse concerning this was revealed in Sūrat al-Ahzāb (wa-nazala bi-dhālika l-qur'ān fī sūrati 'l-ahzāb).

Arafat did not realize that the widely circulated traditions about the massacre of the Banū Qurayza (the report about the appearance of Ji-

¹¹ Abū cUbayd, Kitāb al-amwāl, ed. Muhammad Hāmid al-Fiqī, Cairo.

brīl, the siege, the judgment of Sa^cd b. Mu^cādh and details about the numbers of the killed) were recorded by Abū ^cUbayd;¹² it is precisely the material discussed by Arafat in his article and it clearly contradicts his assumptions; the contents of the reports are almost identical with those of the *Sīra* of Ibn Ishāq, the *isnāds* are different and Abū ^cUbayd, the great Muslim jurist, records those traditions as precedents as regards Muslim jurisdiction.

Another eminent Muslim jurist, al-Māwardī (d. 450 A.H.), elucidates the slaughter of the Banū Qurayza from a quite different aspect: it was a religious duty incumbent on the Prophet to order the slaughter of the Banū Qurayza. Al-Māwardī emphasizes, among the other virtues of the Prophet, his leniency, kindness and his disposition to forgive his enemies their sins. He then continues as follows:¹³

If it is argued: "He struck the heads of the Banū Qurayza deliberately during one day (fa-in qīla: fa-qad daraba riqāba banī qurayzata sabran fī yaumin wāhidin), their number being about seven hundred, so where is his disposition to forgive and pardon? After all he retaliated like a man who was not inclined towards them by mercy, nor had in his soul softness for them", the answer would be: " He merely did it in order to carry out the rules of God (incumbent upon him) (... qīla: innamā facala dhālika fī huqūqi llāhi ta'ālā). The Banū Qurayza had consented to Sa'd b. Mu'ādh's arbitration in their case and he judged that those on whom the razors passed (i.e. those who reached puberty - K.)14 should be killed; those on whom the razors did not pass should be enslaved". Then the Prophet said: "This is God's judgment (issued - K.) from above the seven heavens". Therefore it was not permitted (the Prophet - K.) to forgive (in a case of) God's injunction incumbent upon them; he could merely forgive (transgressions, offences etc. -K.) in matters concerning his own person (fa-lam yajuz an ya fuwa an haqqin wajaba llahu ta'ala 'alayhim, wa-innama yakhtassu 'afwuhu bi-haqqi nafsihi).

It is thus obvious that the slaughter of the Banū Qurayza and the execution of those among them who had reached puberty was carried out ac-

¹² Al-Amwāl, pp. 129-130 (nos. 346-350), 167 (nos. 460-463).

¹³ Al-Māwardī, A^clām al-nubuwwa, Cairo 1319, pp. 146-147.

¹⁴ See the different versions: Barakat Ahmad, *Muhammad and the Jews*, New Delhi 1979, pp. 81-82.

cording to the order of God revealed to the Prophet. Al-Māwardī's opinion apparently reflects the current Sunnī view about the slaughter of the Banū Qurayza.

The report about the presence of the Prophet at the execution of the captives of Qurayza is fully confirmed by the great Muslim scholar Ibn Hazm (d. 456 A.H.): 14a "It is impossible (to assume - K.) that people could have been killed in the presence of the Prophet, while he would not know whether the execution was right or not. A Muslim can never assume this, as the Qurayza people were killed in his presence and at his order. (Qāla abū muḥammadin: wa-mina l-muḥāli l-mumtanici an tuqtala l-nāsu bi-ḥadrati l-nabiyyi ṣallā llāhu calayhi wa-sallama, wa-huwa lā ya lamu a-bi-ḥaqqin am bi-bātilin; hādhā mā lā yazunnuhu muslimunu l-battata. wa-qatlā qurayzata qutilū bi-hadrati l-nabiyyi (s) wa-bi-amrihi.)

One of Arafat's arguments for the rejection of the story of the Banū Qurayza (argument no. 5) is that "it is unlikely that the Banū Qurayza should be slaughtered when the other Jewish groups who surrendered before Banū Qurayza and after them were treated leniently and allowed to go." The answer is plainly given by Ibn Qayyim al-Jauziyya. He mentions the expulsion of the Qaynuqāc and the Nadīr, and the confiscation of their possessions and states:

As to Qurayza, they were the strongest among the Jews in their hatred of the Prophet and the most persistent in their unbelief; therefore their fate differed from that of their brethren. (wa-ammā qurayzatu fa-kānat ashadda l-yahūdi cadāwatan li-rasūli llāhi (s) wa-aghlazahum kufran wa-li-dhālika jarā calayhim mā lam yajri calā ikhwānihim.)¹⁵

Since Arafat quotes in his article this compilation of Ibn Qayyim al-Jauziyya, it is odd indeed that he should have overlooked this passage.

In order to strengthen his argument that the Prophet was lenient towards Jewish tribes, groups and clans Arafat mentions the case of the clan of Abū l-Ḥuqayq: when the Prophet conquered Khaybar he promised the Jews of this locality safety $(am\bar{a}n)$ on condition that they handed him over everything (of value - K.) in the stronghold. The utterance

^{14a} Ibn Hazm, al-Ihkām fi uşūli l-ahkām, ed. Muḥammad Ahmad ^cAbd al-^cAzīz, Cairo 1398/1978, V-VIII, 897 inf.

¹⁵ Ibn Qayyim al-Jauziyya, Zād al-macād fi hadyi khayri l-cibād, Beirut n.d., II, 72, ll. 6-7.

of the Prophet quoted by Arafat 16 indicates that in spite of the hostility of the clan of Abū l-Hugava he would grant them safety, as he had granted their brethren, if they would hand him over all their property. In fact a treasure belonging to the Banu l-Huqayq was detected. The Prophet then ordered to torture one of the sons of Abū l-Huqayq and to kill the others. The women and children of the executed sons of Abū l-Hugayg were enslaved, and their property confiscated.¹⁷ The attitude of the Prophet towards the clan of Abū l-Hugayg can hardly be described as lenient although the Prophet's order can formally be justified; as one of the sons of Abū l-Huqayq did not disclose the place of the family's treasure he thereby violated the terms of the surrender; this was considered a violation of an agreement and the Prophet was entitled to have him put to death. 18 It may be worthwhile to remark that Kināna b. Abī l-Hugayq, whom the Prophet ordered to torture and who was executed after the torture by al-Zubayr, was the husband of the captured woman Safiyya whom the Prophet married on the night of her husband's execution. Huyayy b. Akhtab, killed by order of the Prophet during the massacre of the Banu Ourayza, was Safiyya's father. 19

The legal basis for the torture, the execution and the confiscation of the property of the Banū l-Ḥuqayq is plainly outlined in one of the earliest compilations of Muslim law, the Siyar of al-Shaybānī (d. 189 A.H.).²⁰ The case of the clan of Abū l-Ḥuqayq is related in a special chapter entitled: "Safety (granted) on condition" (al-amān calā l-shart). Al-Shaybānī concludes that if the enemy is conditionally granted safety by the Muslims and then acts treacherously or conceals from them the object (scil. which was to be handed over under the terms of the agreement – K.) the imām is permitted to kill the enemy.²¹ Al-Sarakhsī

¹⁶ Arafat, op. cit., p. 104, argument no. 5.

¹⁷ See Abū ^cUbayd, op. cit., pp. 165-166 (nos. 457-459); Ibn Qayyim al-Jauziyya, op. cit., II, 76-77; al-Tabari, Ta'rikh, ed. Muḥammad Abū l-Fadl Ibrāhīm, Cairo 1969, III, 14; al-Balādhuri, Futūh al-buldān, ed. ^cAbdallah and ^cUmar al-Tabbā^c, Beirut 1377/1957, 34-35; al-Wāqidī, al-Maghāzī, ed. Marsden Jones, London 1966, pp. 672-673.

¹⁸ Abū 'Ubayd, op. cit., p. 168, no. 463: "... fa-hādhā mā kāna min nakthi banī quray-zata wa-bihi stahalla rasūlu llāhi (s) dimā'ahum; wa-kadhālika ālu abī l-huqayqi, ra'ā kitmānahum iyyāhu mā sharatū lahu an lā yaktumūhu nakthan."

¹⁹ See e.g. Ibn Hajar, al-Iṣāba fi tamyīzi l-ṣaḥāba, ed. °Alī Muḥammad al-Bijāwī, Cairo 1392/1972, VII, 738-742, no. 11401.

Muḥammad b. al-Ḥasan al-Shaybanī, Kitāb al-siyar al-kabīr, ed. Şalāḥ al-Dīn al-Munajjid, Cairo 1957, I, 278-282.

²¹ Al-Shaybani, op. cit., I, 278.

raises in his comment the question whether the Prophet issued this order of torture before or after he had uttered the prohibition of torture.²²

The killing of the captured fighting men of the enemy is explicitly permitted. Al-Shaybānī records the case of the Banū Ouravza as a convincing precedent; they were put to death on the order of the Prophet after they had been captured and after hostilities had ceased.²³ The problem discussed concerns the permissibility of killing the captured enemy while his hands are tied. Al-Shavbānī decrees that it is preferable to execute the captured enemy with his hands free; but if there is a danger that he may escape or kill a Muslim, he has to be executed with his hands tied.²⁴ al-Shaybānī emphasizes that the suffering of the captured ought to be alleviated by providing them with food and water; here, too, al-Shavbānī has recourse to the precedent of the Banū Ouravza: the Prophet ordered that the Qurazī captives be provided with dates,²⁵ be allowed to rest at mid-day and that their execution be delayed so as not to coincide with the hottest part of the day.²⁶ The alleviation of the captives' suffering is also recorded in the chapter dealing with the judgment of a Muslim to whom the fate of the captive ahl al-harb had been entrusted on the basis of their consent to his arbitration.²⁷ The chapter deals in fact with the judgment of Sacd b. Mucadh and the Prophet's approval of his decree. One of the problems touched upon is the age at which the fighting men of the enemy forces may be subjected to the death penalty. According to the decree of Sa^cd b. Mu^cādh (fighting) persons of Qurayza had to be put to death if they reached the age of puberty.²⁸ Al-Shaybānī's opinion is different: he points out that there are differences in the age of puberty between various peoples (for instance between Turks and Indians). But in the case of Banu Ourayza the

²² Al-Shaybānī, op. cit., I, 280.

²³ Al-Shaybānī, op. cit., III, 1024-1025 (wa-dalīlunā calā jawāzi l-qatli bacda l-asri qiş-şatu banī qurayzata, fa-qad qatalahum rasūlu llāhi (s) bacda l-asri wa-bacda mā wadacati l-harbu auzārahā). This rejects the argument (no. 4) of Arafat about the prohibition to kill prisoners of war.

²⁴ Al-Shaybani, op. cit., III, 1026, no. 1991.

²⁵ Al-Shaybani, op. cit., III, 1029, ult.: wa-qad kana amara rasûlu llahi (ş) bi-ahmali l-tamri fa-nuthirat bayna aydihim, fa-kanu yakdumunaha kadma l-humuri. Al-Waqidi (p. 513) has the same expression: fa-bātu yakdumunaha kadma l-humur. It probably refers to the fact that their hands were tied and they were compelled to grasp the dates with their lips.

²⁶ Al-Shaybani, op. cit., III, 1029.

²⁷ Al-Shaybani, op. cit., II, 587-592.

²⁸ Al-Shavbānī, op. cit., II, 590.

Prophet disclosed to Sa^cd b. Mu^cādh (on the basis of a revelation) that their age of puberty was the limit of their penal responsibility as fighting persons.²⁹ cUmar is said to have ordered the commanders of the (Muslim) troops to kill (as in the case of Qurayza - K.) every person on whom the razor had passed and to refrain from capturing anyone of the unbelievers.³⁰ Al-Sarakhsī quotes a passage from the maghāzī-compilations (... wa-fī l-maghāzī...) according to which cAlī and al-Zubayr carried out the execution of the captured Qurazīs. He records two different versions concerning the number of those killed (700 men were executed; according to Mugatil: 450 were killed, 650 were enslaved) and mentions the place where the Qurazis were put to death: at the dar abi l-jahm; their blood flowed until it reached ahjar al-zayt.31 This in fact is the place which is mentioned by al-Wāqidī³² and al-Samhūdī.³³ It is worthwhile to point out that al-Samhūdī quotes the report of Mūsā b. ^cUgba who stated that the execution of the Banū Ourayza was carried out at the dar abī l-jahm (it was close to the balāt; but - al-Samhūdī says - the balāt did not exist at that time): "some people claimed that their blood flowed and reached the ahjār al-zayt (the olive trees) which were in the market."34

The references quoted above from the compilations of al-Shaybānī, al-Shāfi^cī, Abū ^cUbayd and al-Māwardī show that the early scholars of Muslim law and jurisprudence were well acquainted with the literature of the *sīra* and *maghāzī*. The early jurists availed themselves of the traditions of the *maghāzī*; having examined some of the chapters of the compilation of al-Shaybānī referring to the story of the Banū Qurayza we could see how every detail was closely studied and analysed. The events of this expedition served as precedents, conclusions were duly drawn and

²⁹ Al-Shaybani, op. cit., II, 591.

³⁰ Al-Shaybani, op. cit., II, 592: wa-dhukira 'an 'umara (r) annahu kataba ila umara'i al-ajnādi an: uqtulū man jarat 'alayhi l-mūsā wa-lā tasbū ilaynā mina l-'ulūji aḥadan.

³¹ Al-Shaybānī, op. cit., II, 592, sup.

³² Al-Wāqidī, op. cit., p. 513, ll. 6-7.

³³ See al-Samhudi, Wafā'u l-wafā bi-akhbāri dāri l-muṣṭafā, ed. Muḥammad Muhyī l-Din 'Abd al-Hamīd, Cairo 1374/1955, pp. 744 inf. - 745, 1121-1123; and see Abū l-Baqā Muḥammad Bahā' l-Dīn b. al-Diyā' al-Makkī al-Qurashī l-Umarī l-Adawi, Ahwāl Makka wa-l-madīna, MS. Br. Mus. Or. 11865, fol. 172a: wa-nazala rasūlu llāhi (s) 'alā kulthūm b. al-hidmi; wa-fī hādhihi l-ḥarrati qit'atun tusammā ahjāra l-zaytī, summiyat bihi li-sawādi ahjārihā ka-annahā tuliyat bi-l-zaytī, wa-huwa maudī'un kāna yastaqirru fihi rasūlu llāhi (s); wa-ba'duhum yaqūlu: ahjāru l-bayt, wa-dhālika khata'un.

³⁴ Al-Samhudi, op. cit., p. 745 sup.

rules of the Muslim law of war were moulded according to these precedents. Al-Shaybānī was in fact a student of Abū Ḥanīfa, al-Awzāʿī, Abū Yūsuf and Mālik b. Anas. He was a scholar of immense knowledge, penetrating mind and deep isight; yet in his Siyar he did not hesitate to base himself completely on the compilations of the maghāzī.

The close links between fiqh and maghāzī can be gauged from the fact that the famous qādī Abū Yūsuf (d. 182 A.H.) attended the council (majlis) of Muhammad b. Ishāq and heard from him the maghāzī. The report about the Banū Qurayza and Sacd b. Mucādh's judgment is given by Abū Yūsuf on the authority of Ibn Ishāq and is followed by a detailed discussion of the various possibilities of the decree of the arbiter. Mālik b. Anas had an interest in maghāzī-literature and recommended the maghāzī of Mūsā b. Cuqba (d. 141 A.H.) whom he considered a reliable transmitter. Tigh and maghāzī were even subjects of competition among Muslim jurists. In a mudhākara-competition between Mālik and al-Auzācī in Medina, Mālik b. Anas beat Auzācī on the subject of fiqh, but Auzācī had the upper hand on the subject of maghāzī.

Arafat also raises some minor questions ³⁹ and dwells at length upon Ibn Isḥāq's transmission of the *maghāzī* tradition. As already mentioned Ibn Isḥāq is accused of transmitting dubious traditions derived from unreliable authorities.

³⁵ Al-Mu^câfâ b. Zakariyā, al-Jalīs al-ṣāliḥ al-kāfî wa-l-anīs al-nāṣiḥ al-shāfî, Topkapi Saray, MS. Ahmet III, 2321, fol. 134a.

³⁶ Abū Yūsuf, Kitāb al-kharāj, Cairo 1382, pp. 201-204.

³⁷ Ibn Abī Hatim, al-Jarḥ wa-l-ta dil, Hyderabad 1371/1952, Taqdima p. 22; vol. VIII, 154.

³⁸ Ibn Kathīr, al-Bidāya wa-l-nihāya, Beirut - al-Riyād, 1966, X, 116.

³⁹ How could so many hundreds of persons (scil. of the Banū Qurayza) be incarcerated in the house belonging to a woman of Banū l-Najjār – asks Arafat (op. cit., p. 105, argument no. 11). But dār does not only denote "a house"; it often denotes a compound building, sometimes of considerable dimensions, containing in certain cases stores, workshops, magazines and even markets. (See M.J. Kister, "Some Reports Concerning Mecca," JESHO XV (1972), 85-86 [about the dūr <translated "courts"> bought by Muʿawiya]; and see ib. p. 86, no. 1; and see e.g. Ibn Ḥajar, al-Iṣāba, V, 744, sup.: the court (dār) known as dār banī naṣr in Damascus was a church (kanīṣat al-naṣārā); Mālik b. ʿAuf alighted there at the beginning of the Muslim conquest of Damascus; therefore the court was known as dār banī naṣr.) It is quite possible that some hundreds of people could be incarcerated in such a dār. (See about the dār bint al-hārith: al-Suhaylī, al-Raud al-unuf, ed. ʿAbd al-Raḥmān al-Wakīl, Cairo 1390/1970, VI, 333-334).

In the case of the Banū Qurayza both the descendants of Sacd b. Mucadh and the descendants of the Jews who converted to Islam are accused by Arafat of inventing tendentious traditions transmitted and recorded by Ibn Ishāq.⁴⁰

Concerning the judgment of Sacd b. Mucadh one may remark that Ibn Ishāq was certainly not the only scholar who transmitted this tradition. Montgomery Watt's important article "The Condemnation of the Jews of Banu Ourayzah" contains rich material about the transmitters of this tradition. A glance at the article shows convincingly that there existed not just one tradition, namely the one transmitted by Ibn Ishāq; there were in fact many. Moreover, the tradition is recorded in the very early compilations, some of them contemporary with that of Ibn Ishāq, in Our'an commentaries, in later compilations in which early sources were quoted, in compendia of figh and in hadith collections. 42 It is obvious that there were many sources for the tradition about the Banū Qurayza. In his instructive article "The Materials used by Ibn Ishāq" Montgomery Watt rightly points out that "the criticism of Ibn Ishāq that he took material from Jews and Christians reflects the later attitude of suspicion towards such sources and the tendency to avoid them (at least in theory)."43 The utterance of Mālik b. Anas about Ibn Ishāq as it is recorded by Arafat from 1bn Sayyid al-Nās is in fact a combined saying blended together in a later period. The story about the enmity between Mālik b. Anas and Ibn Ishāq has it that Ibn Ishāq spoke with disdain about Mālik's compilation and said: "Lay the knowledge of Mālik before me, I will handle it as a surgeon". Thereupon Mālik said: "Look at this dajjāl of the dajājila, are my books to be in front of him?"44 Mālik's

⁴⁰ Arafat, op. cit., p. 105, argument no. 10.

⁴¹ MW 42 (1952), 160-171.

⁴² See e.g. ^cAbd al-Razzaq, *al-Muşannaf*, ed. Habiburrahman al-A^czami, Beirut 1392/1972, V, 360, no. 9733; 367-372 no. 9737; VI, 54, no. 9988; Ibn Sa^cd, *Tabaqāt*, Beirut 1380/1960, II, 74-77, III, 420-436; al-Tabari, *Tafsīr*, ed. Shākir, Cairo 1958, XIV, 21-26, 35-36, 44; XXI (Būlāq), 95-97; al-Wāqidī, *op. cit.*, 496-531.

⁴³ B. Lewis and S.M. Holt (ed.) Historians of the Middle East, London 1964, p. 33.

⁴⁴ Al-Fasawi, al-Ma^crifa wa-l-ta'rīkh, ed. Akram Diyā' al-^cUmarī, Beirut 1401/1981, III, 32; Ibn ^cAdiyy, al-Kāmil fi du ^cafā'i l-rijāl, MS. Ahmet III, 2943/3, fol. 25b, 26b, 27a; Ibn Abī Ḥātim, Taqdimat al-jarh, p. 20; Yāqūt, Mu^cjam al-udabā', ed. A.F. Rifā'ī, Cairo 1358/1938, XVIII, 7 inf. - 8 sup.; J. Horovitz, "The Earliest Biographies of the Prophet and their Authors", IC (1928), p. 171; al-Khaṭib, Ta'rīkh Baghdād, Cairo 1349/1931, I, 224 sup.; al-Dhahabī, Tadhkirat al-huffāz, Hyderabad 1375/1955, I, 173.

answer indicates his contempt of Ibn Ishāq and his lack of respect for Ibn Ishāq's knowledge. According to another version Mālik was informed that Ibn Ishāq prided himself on being the surgeon of the maghāzī; Mālik commented: "He told you that he was a surgeon of it? We expelled him from Medina." In this utterance Mālik points to Ibn Ishāq's ignorance, his lies, his lack of belief and other vices which caused the scholars of Medina to expel him from the city. Ibn Ishāq was indeed accused of many faults like: shīcī leanings, qadarī beliefs, transmission of sifāt traditions, for playing with cocks, tadlīs in transmission, and of course transmission of unreliable traditions, especially traditions of the descendants of Jews who had embraced Islam. The only version in which the utterance of Mālik about Ibn Ishāq as an impostor (dajjāl min aldajājila) is coupled with the accusation that he transmitted traditions of the descendants of Jewish converts to Islam is the version recorded by Ibn Sayyid al-Nās, and quoted by Arafat.

The assumption that the enmity between Mālik and Ibn Ishāq was caused mainly (or even solely) by the fact that Ibn Ishāq disseminated traditions of Jewish converts to Islam seems an oversimplification. The main cause for the antagonism is indicated in the report of Ibn Sayyid

⁴⁵ Ibn Abi Ḥātim, *Taqdima*, p. 19 inf.; al-Khaṭib, op. cit., I, 223; Ibn Abi Ḥātim, al-Jarḥ wa-l-ta^cdil, vol. III 2 (= vol. 7 repr.) p. 192 inf., no. 1087; Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-a^cyān, ed. Iḥsān ^cAbbās, Beirut 1971, IV, 277, 612; and see H.R. Idris, "Reflexions sur Ibn Ishāq", Studia Islamica XVII (1962), 29-30.

⁴⁶ See e.g. al-Dhahabi, al-c'Uluww li-l-caliyyi l-ghaffār, ed. c'Abd al-Raḥman Muḥammad c'Uthman, Cairo 1388/1968, pp. 108-109 (and see pp. 70-72); cf. al-Bayhaqī, al-Asmā' wa-l-sifāt, ed. Muḥammad Zahid al-Kautharī, Cairo 1358, pp. 397-398; cf. al-Dhahabī, Siyar a clām al-nubalā', ed. Salāḥ al-Dīn al-Munajjid, Cairo n.d. I, 205, 206, 212-215 (see esp. p. 215 inf.); al-c'Aynī, Umdat al-qārī, Cairo 1348, XVI, 268; al-Fasawī, op. cit., I, 137 (Makkī b. Ibrāhīm disliked the traditions of Ibn Isḥāq about the sifa).

⁴⁷ See al-Dhahabi, Tadhkirat al-huffaz, I, 173.

⁴⁸ Ibn Abi Ḥātim, al-Jarh, VII, 194, l. 1.

⁴⁹ Ibn Sayyid al-Nås, "Uyūn al-athar fī funūn al-maghāzī wa-l-siyar, Cairo 1356, I, 16 inf.-17 sup. (dajjālun mina l-dajājila yarwī cani l-yahūd); Ibn Sayyid al-Nås stresses that Mālik did not find fault with Ibn Ishāq's activity of transmission of hadīth, but he criticized severely his transmission of reports about the raids and expeditions against the Jewish tribes, based on the accounts of the "Children of the Jews" who converted to Islam. According to Yāqūt (op. cit., XVIII, 8) Ibn Iṣhāq used to transmit on the authority of Jews and Christians and used to refer to them in his compilations as "ahlu l-cilmi l-awwal". A witty anecdote is recorded by Ibn 'Adiyy: Ibn Iṣhāq said: "the reliable transmitter told me" (haddathanī l-thiqa). When asked about who was the transmitter he answered: "The Jew Yacqūb" (Ibn 'Adiyy, op. cit., III, 26b, sup.).

al-Nās: Ibn Ishāq surpassed every scholar in the Hijāz in his knowledge of the tribal strifes and tribal genealogy. He claimed that Mālik had to be counted as a maulā of the Dhū Asbah; Mālik stated that he was a genuine descendant of this clan. When Mālik completed the compilation of the Muwaṭṭa' Ibn Ishāq asked for it to be brought to him for examination, since he had said that he would be its surgeon. Mālik responded with the contemptuous comment quoted above. 50 The genealogical discussion seems to have been heated, as it touched upon the status of Mālik and humiliated his ancestors: Ibn Ishāq claimed that these ancestors had come to Medina as a group of clients of Taym (mawālī), not as their allies (hulafā'). 51

Ibn Ishaq was, however, not the first scholar who questioned the truth of Mālik's pedigree. He was preceded in this matter by the highly respected traditionist Sacd b. Ibrāhīm (d. ca 125 A.H.),52 the grandson of cAbd al-Rahman b. Auf, the distinguished companion of the Prophet. Sa^cd's criticism of Mālik's pedigree brought about a clash between the two scholars. This fact can be deduced from a peculiar conversation with Ahmad b. Hanbal in which he said that Mālik did not transmit traditions reported by Sacd b. Ibrāhīm because "there was a story between them" (kāna lahu maca sacdin qissatun); then Ahmad said: "Sacd did not care that Mālik did not transmit his reports."53 More details about the reasons for the enmity between the two scholars can be gleaned from the answer given by Yahyā (b. Macīn - K.) who questioned whether the reason of Mālik's reluctance to transmit Sacd's hadīths was not that Sa^cd was suspect of being a believer in *qadar*. Yahyā explained: Sa^cd did not believe in gadar; Mālik merely refrained from transmitting on his authority because he criticized the reliability of his nasab (li-annahu ta-

⁵⁰ Ibn Sayyid al-Nas, op. cit., I, 16, inf.; H.R. Idrīs, op. cit., p. 29-30.

⁵¹ See the lengthy passage on the problem: al-Qadi 'Iyad, Tartib al-madarik wa-taqrib al-masalik li-ma'rifati a'lām madhhab mālik, ed. Ahmad Bakir Mahmud, Beirut 1388/1968, I, 102-107; and see the references in F. Sezgin, GAS I, 458.

⁵² See e.g. the opinions of Ahmad b. Hanbal about Sacd: Ahmad b. Hanbal, al-cIlal wa-macrifatu l-rijāl, ed. Talcat Kocyigit and Ismacil Cerrahoglu, Ankara 1963, I, 278 sup.: sacdu bnu ibrāhīma athbatu min cumara bni salamata khamsīna marratan; and see about him Ibn cAsākir, Ta'rīkh (Tahdhīb), ed. cAbd al-Qadir Badran, Damascus 1399/1979, VI, 83; al-Bukhari, al-Ta'rīkh al-kabīr, Hyderabad 1384/1964, IV, 51, no. 1928; Wakīc, Akhbār al-qudāt, ed. cAbd al-cAzīz Mustafa al-Maraghi, Cairo 1366/1947, I, 150-167.

⁵³ Al-Fasawi, al-Ma^crifa wa-l-ta'rikh, ed. Akram Diya' al-^cUmari, Beirut 1401/1981, I, 411; and see Ibn Hajar, Tahdhib al-tahdhib, III, 465.

kallama fī nasabi mālik); it is therefore that Mālik did not transmit on his authority.⁵⁴ It is evident that Ibn Isḥāq did not invent the suspicions against Mālik's pedigree, but merely quoted earlier reports which had already gained currency in Medina.

The accounts saying that the only reason for the enmity between Mālik b. Anas and Muhammad b. Ishaq was the problem of Malik's pedigree are verified by a report transmitted by the well-known scholar of hadith, Baqiyy b. Makhlad (d. 276 A.H.)^{54a} and recorded in the compilation of Abū l-cArab (d. 333 A.H.) "Kitāb al-mihan". 54b Baqiyy relates a question of Yacqub b. Ibrāhīm b. Sacd (d. 208 A.H.)54c addressed to his father Ibrâhīm b. Sa^cd b. Ibrāhīm (d. 183 A.H.). 54d He inquired whether Ibn Ishaq was indeed affected by the vices and faults of which he was accused by the people of Medina. Ibrahim denied it; Ibn Ishaq had the misfortune to abide in Medina with its people. They charged him with foul deeds because he knew the pedigrees (of the people of Medina - K.); thus there was no clan in Medina the pedigree of which Ibn Ishaq did not impeach. Therefore the people of Medina were hostile towards him. He (i.e. the governor of Medina) therefore seized him and ordered to flog him 100 times. (qāla: wa-haddathanī yahyā 'an baqiyyi bni makhladin 'an ya'qūba bni ibrāhīma bni sacdin gāla: sa'altu abī hal kāna fi muhammadi bni ishāga mimmā yuḥaddithu bihi 'anhu ahlu l-madīnati; gāla: lā, walākinnahu buliya bi-ahli l-madīnati, kānū yushanni una alayhi wa-kāna rajulan [text: rajul] ya rifu l-ansāb, fa-lam yakun fi ahli l-madīnati baytun illā wa-qad adkhala 'alayhim fi ansābihim shay'an, fa'ādāhu ahlu lmadīnati fa-akhadhahu (sic!) wa-darabahu mi'ata saut)

The report of Ibrāhīm b. Sa^cd is credible. He was a student of Ibn Isḥāq and he recorded 17,000 legal traditions on the authority of Ibn Isḥāq in addition to traditions of *maghāzī*. ^{54e}

It is quite natural, on this background, for Qādī 'Iyād to provide a list of several scholars denying the suspicions about the pedigree of Mālik, asserting that he was a genuine scion of the genuine tribe of the Yemenite Dhū Aṣbaḥ and adding that his clan was not a client of the

⁵⁴ Ibn Hajar, Tahdhīb al-tahdhīb, III, 465.

⁵⁴a See on him F. Sezgin, GAS, I, 152, no. 97.

^{54b} MS. Cambridge Or. Qq. 235(8), fol. 142b.

⁵⁴c See on him: Ibn Hajar, Tahdhib al-tahdhib, XI, 380, no. 741.

⁵⁴d See on him F. Sezgin, GAS, I, 95, no. 14.

⁵⁴e Al-Khaţib al-Baghdādī, Ta'rīkh baghdād, VI, 83.

Taym b. Murra.⁵⁵ In the same vein, some distinguished members of Taym are said to have testified that the clan of Dhū Aṣbaḥ, the ancestors of Mālik had an alliance with, and were no clients of, Taym.⁵⁶

It may be well to note that Mālik seems to have referred in his contemptuous comment merely to the faults of Ibn Ishāq's Sīra compilation. This attitude on the part of a great scholar of Muslim law towards Sīra compilations in general and towards that of Ibn Ishāq in particular is by no means surprising. Ibn 'Adiyy (d. 360 A.H.) emphasized that it was Ibn Ishāq's virtue and merit to have engaged the kings in reading the magh- $\bar{a}z\bar{i}$, the stories of the beginning of Creation and the beginning of the Prophecy (of Muhammad - K.), thus distracting them from reading books of no import (lā yahşulu minhā shay'un). In this he outdid other scholars who fell short of his accomplishment. Ibn cAdiyy states in his concluding sentence that the many traditions transmitted by Ibn Ishāq became widely current (wa-qad fashat ahādīthuhu l-kathīratu); he (i.e. Ibn 'Adiyy - K.) could however find in his traditions nothing which might be characterized as "weak" (fa-lam ajid fī ahādīthihi mā yatahaya'u an yuqtaca calayhi bi-l-dacfi).57 Ibn Duhaym, a maulā of Mālik admitted that Mālik called Ibn Ishāq dajjāl merely because of the suspicion of his belief in qadar, not because of his transmissions of hadīth (qāla abū zurca al-dimashqiyyu: dhākartu duḥayman maulā mālikin fa-ra'ā anna dhālika lavsa li-l-hadīth, innamā huwa li-annahu ttahamahu bi-l-qadari).58 Ibn Ishaq may have erred or been mistaken like others, states Ibn cAdiyy; but reliable and distinguished transmitters of hadīth did not refrain from reporting his traditions. The mark granted him by Ibn cAdiyy is "la ba'sa bihi".59

Rigorous Muslim scholars of jurisprudence and *hadīth*, who usually display a highly critical attitude, had indeed a very high opinion of Ibn Ishāq. Ibn Taymiyya (d. 728 A.H.), quoting a *Sīra* tradition recorded by Ibn Ishāq, marks him as a man possessing knowledge and a perceptive

⁵⁵ See al-Qāḍī 'slyāḍ, op. cit., I, 104-105 (the readings Tamīm b. Murra are erroneous: read correctly Taym b. Murra).

⁵⁶ Ibid., p. 105.

⁵⁷ Ibn cAdiyy, op. cit., III, 30b.

⁵⁸ Al-cIraqi, Tarh al-tathrib fi sharhi l-taqrib, Halab n.d., I, 98.

⁵⁹ Ibn ^cAdiyy, op. cit., III, 30b: wa-rubbamā akhṭa'a au wahima fi l-shay'i ba^cda l-shay'i kamā yukhṭi'u ghayruhu, wa-lam yatakhallaf ^canhu fi l-riwāyati ^canhu l-thiqātu wa-l-a'immatu, wa-huwa lā ba'sa bihi.

mind in this matter (wa-huwa dhū 'ilmin wa-baṣīratin bi-hādhā l-sha'ni), a man who kept in his mind more (knowledge – K.) than anyone else. 60 Ibn Hajar, in arguing against Ibn al-Jauzī who qualified Ibn Ishāq as $majr\bar{u}h$ (in connection with his transmission of a tradition with a clear Shī 'ī tendency about the death of Fāṭima) states that Ibn al-Jauzī's attack lacks substance; the leading scholars (of $had\bar{u}th$ – K.), according to Ibn Hajar, accepted Ibn Ishāq's transmission and he was accused of nothing worse than that he had transmitted on the authority of some unknown persons ($majh\bar{u}l\bar{u}n$) and that he was a mudallis. Ibn Ishāq himself was a truthful person and an authority in the field of $magh\bar{a}z\bar{i}$ ($hujjatun\ f\bar{i}\ l-magh\bar{a}z\bar{i}$) in the opinion of the people (scil. of $had\bar{u}th$, 'inda $l-jumh\bar{u}r$). 61

One can hardly agree with Arafat as to the "glorification" of their ancestors by the descendants of Qurayza. They are described in the reports as wavering, undecided even in the most dangerous moments of their existence, stubborn and disobeying their leaders. Barakat Ahmad discussed the problem thoroughly in a lengthy passage in his book Muhammad and the Jews and concluded: "One might, however, ask in parenthesis if Mālik b. Anas' charge was fair. It shows a latter-day prejudice against the Jewish converts. Why should they be less reliable than the sons of the pagan Arab converts?" etc. 62 Watt is right indeed in his assessment of the reports about Qurayza: "About the primary matters, the broad outlines of events, there is practically no doubt. The Banū Qurayza were besieged and eventually surrendered; their fate was decided by Sacd: nearly all the men were executed; Muḥammad did not disapprove."63

Ш

A closer examination of the various reports about the expedition against Qurayza and their massacre may provide us with a clue to a better understanding of some of the events and a deeper insight into the circum-

⁶⁰ Ibn Taymiyya, al-Jawāb al-şahih li-man baddala dīna l-masīh, ed. Alī al-Sayyid Şubḥ al-Madani, Cairo 1383/1964, I, 92 ult.-93 l.1.

⁶¹ Ibn Hajar, al-Qaulu l-musaddad fi l-dhabbi cani l-musnad li-l-imāmi ahmad, Hyderabad 1386/1967, p. 62.

⁶² Barakat Ahmad, op. cit., p. 12; Montgomery Watt, The Materials, Historians, p. 33.

⁶³ Montgômery Watt, The condemnation, p. 171.

stances and causes which brought about the calamity of the Banū Qurayza.

Usually the Banū Qurayza are accused of having violated their treaty with the Prophet. This accusation is stated clearly in the commentary to Sūra VIII (al-Anfāl), 55 – 58:

Surely the worst beasts in God's sight are the unbelievers, who will not believe, those of them with whom thou hast made compact, then they break their compact every time, not being godfearing. So, if thou comest upon them anywhere in the war, deal with them with such wise as to scatter the ones behind them; haply they will remember. And if thou fearest treachery any way at the hands of a people, dissolve it with them equally; surely God loves not the treacherous.

(A.J. Arberry's translation)

Al-Tabarī comments on "those of them with whom thou hast made compact, then they break their compact every time": "You, Muhammad, took from them their bonds (mawāthīqahum) and compacts (cuhūdahum) that they would not fight you nor aid anyone who fights you (wa-lā yuzāhirū 'alayka muhāriban laka), like Qurayza and (people) like them, who had compacts (cahd) and treaties (capd)"; "then they break"... is glossed: "they fight you (hārabūka) and aid (zāharū) (your enemy - K.) against you".64 The denunciation is defined more precisely by Mujāhid: the verse refers to Qurayza; they aided (māla'ū) the enemies of the Prophet on the "Day of the Ditch" against him.65 The expression "fa-sharrid bihim man khalfahum" ("to scatter through them those who are behind them"; or "... as to strike fear"... or "... punish them an exemplary punishment, so as to spread fear...", or "to deter") refers consequently to Qurayza.66 Verse 58 is also alleged to refer to Qurayza. The phrase: "And if thou fearest treachery then throw back to them (their treaty) fairly"... has to be re-interpreted according to the commentaries. "If somebody should say" argues al-Tabarī, "how is it permissible to violate a pact on the ground of (mere - K.) fear of treachery, while fear is (just - K.) a conjecture, not a certainty (... wa-lkhaufu zannun lā yaqīnun), he may be answered: "the opposite of what

⁶⁴ Al-Tabari, Tafsīr, ed. Shākir XIV, 21-22.

⁶⁵ Al-Ţabari, op. cit., XIV, 22, no. 16210; and see Mujāhid, Tafsīr, ed. Abd al-Raḥmān al-Sūrati, Islāmābād n.d., I, 266-267.

⁶⁶ Al-Ţabari, Tafsīr, XIV, 22-23.

you assumed is true: if the signs of the enemy's treachery become apparent, and you fear that you may be affected by it, then throw back to them the keys of peace (treaties – K.) and announce war to them" (waādhinhum bi-l-harbi).⁶⁷ Al-Ṭabarī argues that this was the case of Qurayza: they responded to the summons of Abū Sufyān and the unbelievers to help them against the Prophet and to fight on their side. This response followed the conclusion of a treaty with the Prophet based on peaceful relations (calā musālama) and (the promise) not to fight the Prophet. When the signs of their treachery became manifest the Prophet had the right to declare war against them, concluded al-Ṭabarī.⁶⁸ The same method of explanation is followed by Ibn al-cArabī,⁶⁹ al-Qurṭubī ⁷⁰, and al-Suyūtī.⁷¹

The treaty itself between the Prophet and Qurayza is usually referred to as 'ahd,'2 walthu 'ahdin,'3 the already mentioned musālama and muwāda'a and the verbs'4 'āhada and 'āqada. In fact the expressions 'aqd and 'ahd do not define clearly the nature of the treaty and its contents. A more precise term is the muwāda'a, usually concluded with the unbelievers; it denotes a treaty of non-aggression, of renunciation of violence. A compact of this kind would mean that Qurayza and the forces of the Prophet would both refrain from any hostile action and would not aid any attacking force acting against either of these two parties. Muwāda'a is thus a treaty of peaceful co-existence. It is interesting to note the expression walthu 'ahdin used by Ibn Sa'd: a precarious, crude, incomplete agreement.'5 How this kind of agreement was concluded can be learned from a report recorded by 'Abd al-Razzāq on the authority of Mūsā b. 'Uqba:'6 The Nadīr and Qurayza fought the Prophet; the Prophet expelled the Nadīr but agreed that Ourayza should stay. Later

⁶⁷ Al-Tabari, Tafsir, XIV, 25.

⁶⁸ Al-Tabari, Tafsir, XIV, 26.

⁶⁹ Ahkām al-qur'ān, ed. Alī Muḥammad al-Bijāwī, Cairo 1378/1967, p. 860.

⁷⁰ Tafsīr (= al-Jāmi^c li-aḥkāmi l-qur'ān) Cairo 1387/1967, VIII, 31-32.

⁷¹ Al-durr al-manthur, Cairo 1314, III, 191.

⁷² See Ibn Sa^cd, op. cit., II, 71; al-Qurtubi, Tafsir, XIV, 139; Muqatil, Tafsir, Topkapi Saray, Ahmet III, 74/I 147a; Ibn Kathir, Tafsir, Beirut 1385/1966, V, 442.

⁷³ Ibn Sacd, op. cit., II, 77.

⁷⁴ See e.g. al-Qurtubi, Tafsir, XIV, 132.

⁷⁵ See Ibn al-Athīr, al-Nihāya fi gharībi l-ḥadīth, s.v. wlth; al-Zamakhsharī, al-Fā'iq, s.v. wlth: L-A. s.v. wlth.

⁷⁶ al-Muşannaf VI, 54 ult.-55, no. 9988 (the isnād recorded is: 'Abd al-Razzāq - Ibn Jurayi - Mūsā b. 'Uqba - Nāfic - Ibn 'Umar).

Qurayza fought the Prophet. They were defeated, the men were executed, the women, children and property were divided among the Muslims. Some of the Jews received the aman (safety) of the Prophet and converted to Islam. This account is corroborated and elucidated by a report traced back to al-Zuhrī: the Prophet, informed about the treacherous intentions of the Nadīr, marched out against them with troops (bi-l-katā'ib) and besieged them. He demanded that they conclude a compact with him; if they refused, he in turn would refuse to grant them an assurance of safety (...innakum lā ta'manūna 'indī illā bi-'ahdin tu'āhidūnī calayhi). They refused and the forces of the Prophet fought them (i.e. the Nadīr) throughout the day. Next day the Prophet left the Nadīr, went out with horsemen and troops against Qurayza and summoned them to conclude an agreement; they consented and concluded a treaty and the Prophet left them. He returned with his troops to the Nadīr and fought them until they surrendered on condition that they would be expelled.⁷⁷ The agreement between Qurayza and the Prophet was thus, as it is called by Ibn Sacd, walthu cahdin, a crude, not elaborated agreement of peaceful co-existence. It was probably of the muwādaca kind granting assurances of mutual safety.⁷⁸

An interesting case of muwādaca is recorded in some of the commentaries of Sūrat al-nisā' 87-89: fa-mā lakum fi l-munāfiqīna fi'atayn... Surāqa b. Mālik is said to have received information that the Prophet intended to send (after the battles of Badr and Uhud and after the conversion of the people of these localities to Islam) Khālid b. al-Walīd to the Banū Mudlij (scil. to attack them – K.). He went to the Prophet and said: "I heard that you intend to send to my people, but I would like you to conclude with them a muwādaca (... wa-ana urīdu an tuwādicahum); so if your people (i.e. Quraysh – K.) convert to Islam they (i.e. the Mudlij – K.) would embrace Islam; if they (i.e. Quraysh) would not convert to Islam they would not be harsh towards them (i.e. towards Mudlij – K.). The Prophet ordered Khālid to act according to Surāqa's request; Khālid indeed concluded with them an agreement on the basis that they would not give (anyone) aid against the Prophet of God (an lā yucīnū calā rasūli llāhi) and they would embrace Islam after

⁷⁷ cAbd al-Razzăq, op. cit., V, 360, no. 9733.

⁷⁸ Comp. EI², s.v. Kudā^ca (vol. V, 316 sup.): fa-authiq lanā ḥattā na'manaka wata'mananā.

the conversion of Quraysh.⁷⁹ One of the versions recorded by al-Suyūṭī contains an additional clause according to which people who would join Mudlij will join the muwāda^ca of Mudlij (wa-man waṣala ilayhim min al-nāsi kāna calā mithli cahdihim).⁸⁰ It is thus an interesting case of a treaty concluded with unbelievers granting them security and allowing other people to join them on the basis of that treaty.⁸¹

According to other traditions the verses of the Qur'ān refer to another muwādaca: a group of Meccans, claiming to be muhājirūn, came to the Prophet; however, having renounced Islam, they asked the Prophet's permission to go to Mecca in order to bring their merchandise. Some believers, who had received information about the treacherous plans of the group, wanted to kill them. Then the group declared that they were proceeding to Hilāl b. 'Uwaymir al-Aslami who had concluded a treaty of alliance (hilf or 'ahd) with the Prophet; this kept them from the attack of the believers and they hoped to get security from both parties (wa-yurīdūna bi-dhālika an ya'manū hāhunā wa-hāhunā). It is noteworthy that people "whose hearts were restricted" (haṣirat ṣudūruhum), who were reluctant to fight their own people and who consequently did not have the courage to join the Muslim force, were not forced at that early period to join the Muslim force.

The concise report recorded by al-Thaclabī is of some interest: the Prophet concluded a muwādaca with Hilāl b. "Uwaymir al-Aslamī when he left Mecca. According to this muwādaca Hilāl made a promise to aid neither the Prophet nor his adversary against him (an lā yucīnahu walā yucīna calayhi). The following stipulation established that anyone of his tribe or others who joined his court or asked shelter could be granted

⁷⁹ Ibn Kathīr, *Tafsīr*, Beirut 1385/1966, II, 353.

⁸⁰ Al-Suyûtî, al-Durr al-manthûr, II, 191.

⁸¹ See the discussion of this treaty and the problem of its abolition: al-Naḥḥās, al-Nāṣikh wa-l-mansūkh fi l-qur'āni l-karīm, Cairo 1357/1938, pp. 110-112; cf. al-Shaukānī, Fath al-qadīr al-jāmi bayna fannayi l-riwāya wa-l-dirāya min 'ilmi l-tafsīr, Beirut (reprint) n.d., I, 497; about the intent of the treaty see Ibn 'Arabi, Aḥkām al-qur'ān, Cairo 1387/1967, I, 470; and see the judicial analysis in Jaṣṣāṣ, Aḥkām al-qur'ān, Qusṭanṭiniyya, 1338 (reprint Beirut), II, 219-221.

⁸² Mujahid, Tafsīr, I, 168-169; and see al-Ţabarī, Tafsīr, IX, 9-10 (from Mujahid); al-Suyūṭī, al-Durr al-manthūr, II, 190 inf. (from Mujahid).

⁸³ The clause following this stipulation: hatta yara wa-yura (so vowelled in text) is slightly enigmatic; it probably means: until he would consider (the matter) and things would be considered.

the same protection (jiwār) as given to Hilāl (wa-man waṣala ilā hilālin min qaumihi wa-ghayrihim wa-laja'a ilayhim fa-lahum min al-jiwāri mithlu lladhī li-hilālin).84

Al Jassas gives a concise comment on the legal status of Qurayza: both Nadir and Ourayza had no protection (of the Prophet and of the Muslim community - K.) at all; the Prophet expelled the Nadir and ordered to have Qurayza killed. If they had had protection he would not have expelled them nor killed them. Between them and the Prophet there was merely a treaty and a truce which they violated. (wa-maclūmun anna bani qurayzata wa-l-nadira lam takun lahum dhimmatun qattu, wa-qad ajlā l-nabiyyu (s) banī l-nadīri wa-qatala banī qurayzata; wa-lau kāna lahum dhimmatun lamā ajlāhum wa-lā qatalahum; wainnamā kāna baynahu wa-baynahum cahdun wa-hudnatun fa-naqadūhā...)85 This corresponds exactly to what al-Shāficī described as al-sulh bi-l-muhādana.86 It is evident that a person or a tribal group, or a community could conclude a treaty of muwāda ca (or muhādana) with two conflicting parties. Qurayza seem to have been in such a situation when Ouraysh and their Confederates arrived: they had a favourable attitude towards the Prophet and the Muslims (who were their neighbours) and were not happy when the Ahzāb started the siege on Medina. Their attitude is described as follows by al-Wāqidī: "... they were at that time peacefully inclined towards the Prophet and disliked the arrival of Quraysh (... wa-hum yauma'idhin silmun li-l-nabiyyi yakrahūna qudūma qurayshin).87 In fact, according to the report of al-Wāqidī, Qurayza lent the besieged Muslims many tools for digging the ditch (for the defence of Medina - K.) like shovels, baskets and axes. 88 The fact that they adhered to the concluded treaty (the muwāda^ca or muhādana) is clearly reflected in a passage from the speech of Huyayy b. Akhtab in which he tried to convince Qurayza to abandon their neutrality and begin cooperating with the besieging Quraysh: You are not with Muhammad nor are you with Quraysh (fa-lā antum maca rasūli llāhi wa-lā maca quray-

⁸⁴ Al-Thaclabi, Tafsir, MS. Br. Mus. Add 19,926, p. 227.

⁸⁵ Al-Jassas, Ahkām al-qur'ān, Istanbul 1338, II, 435.

⁸⁶ Al-Shāfici, al-Umm, IV, 107.

⁸⁷ Al-Waqidi, op. cit., p. 445.

⁸⁸ Al-Wāqidi, op. cit., p. 445; and see al-Samhūdī, op. cit., p. 1207, l.1: wa-sta cārū min banī qurayzata mithla l-macāwili wa-l-fu'ūs wa-ghayri dhālika.

shin).⁸⁹ The lending of the tools to the forces of the Prophet in order to enable them to dig the ditch was certainly a display of the goodwill of Qurayza towards the Prophet and his force. There is no report whatsoever about military actions of Qurayza against the force of the Prophet. The expedition against Qurayza and the severe punishment inflicted on them are justified in the Muslim sources by reference to the clandestine negotiations said to have been arranged between Qurayza and Quraysh, and the secret plan to attack the forces of the Prophet, a plan which failed however due to a stratagem of the Prophet carried out by Nu^caym b. Mas^cūd.⁹⁰ As these negotiations were clandestine, the reliability of reports concerning them cannot be established.

What may however be assumed is that Qurayza had some commercial relations with the besieging Ahzab. This can be deduced from a story about a clash between a group from among the besieged Muslims and a caravan of the besieging Ahzāb. According to the report, a group of the Banū 'Amr b. 'Auf who dwelt in Qubā' asked the Prophet's permission to arrange a funeral for one of their relatives. When they went out to the plain in order to bury the dead man they met Dirar b. al-Khattāb with a group of unbelievers on camels loaded with wheat, barley, straw and dates. This group had been sent by Abū Sufyān on his camels to the Banū Qurayza in order to purchase provisions from them. They were on their way back to the camp of the besieging Ahzāb. In the encounter which ensued between the Muslims and the caravan of the unbelievers Dirar was wounded, the camel riders managed to escape and the camels loaded with the provisions were led to the Prophet's camp; the booty proved a relief for the besieged, helping them in their expenditure.91 A more detailed version is recorded by Dahlan. A group of the Ansār, who went out to bury their deceased relative, met a caravan of twenty camels with loads of straw, barley and dates. The caravan, which

⁸⁹ Häshim b. Sulayman al-Baḥrani al-Taubali al-Katakani, al-Burhan fi tafsiri l-qur'an, Qumm 1393, III, 299.

⁹⁰ See e.g. al-Wāqidī, op. cit., 480 seq.; but see the report recorded by al-Majlisī, Bihār al-Anwār, Tehran 1392, XX, 246, no. 11: The Prophet got information that Qurayza sent to Abū Sufyān and promised him to aid Quraysh in the case of an encounter between Quraysh and the Prophet. Then the Prophet stood up and addressed the Believers. He said: "Qurayza sent to us and promised us their aid and succour in the case of an encounter between us and Abū Sufyān." When Abū Sufyān was informed about the speech of the Prophet he said: "The Jews betrayed (us)." And he departed from them.

⁹¹ Al-Samhūdī, op. cit., p. 304.

had been sent as succour and assistance (madadan wa-taqwiyatan) to Ouravsh, was led by Huyayy b. Akhtab. The Ansār seized the caravan and brought it to the Prophet; it was a relief for the Muslims. 92 We can probably gauge from this report that Ourayza had large warehouses with provisions which they could sell. This confirms the soundness of the data about the huge quantities of food, cattle, utensils, weapons and coats of mail seized in the stronghold of Ouravza after their surrender. The comparison of these data with those of the numbers of the fighting troops and the data about the executed Ourazis and the enslaved women and children can help us to assess the details of the first stages of the clash and to evaluate properly the reports about the decisive period of the events. According to a widely current tradition the angel Jibrīl came to the Prophet, urged him to march out against Ouravza and promised him to crush their stronghold.⁹³ The stronghold seems to have been fortified. According to a tradition recorded by al-Suyūtī, the Prophet, urged by Jibrīl to raid Qurayza, asked him: "How can I conquer their fortress" (kayfa lī bi-hisnihim); Jibrīl assured him of his help in destroying their force.94 The aim of the raid is indicated in another tradition: Jibrīl ordered the Prophet to march out against Qurayza to kill the fighting men and to enslave their offspring, promising him that they would be a means of subsistence for him (fa-inna llāha cazza wa-jalla qad adhina laka fī dhālika, fa-hum laka tu^cmatun).⁹⁵ Tu^cma was a well known politico-

⁹² Dahlan, al-Sīra al-nabawiyya, Cairo 1310, II, 8.

⁹³ See e.g. al-cAyni, op. cit., XVII, 189; al-Katakānī, op. cit., III, 304; al-Baladhurī, Ansāb al-ashraf, ed. Muhammad Hamidullah, Cairo 1959, I, 347 inf.; Ibn Kathir, al-Bidaya wa-lnihāya, Beirut - Riyād 1966, IV, 116-118; Ibn Sayyid al-Nās, op. cit., II, 68; cAlī b. Burhān al-Din, Insan al-cuyun fi sirat al-amin al-ma'mun, (= al-Sira al-halabiyya), Cairo 1382/1962, II, 354; al-Diyarbakri, Ta'rikh al-khamis, Cairo 1283, I, 493; Ibn Kathir, Tafsir, V, 443; Ibn Hisham, al-Sīra al-nabawiyya, ed. al-Saqqa, al-Abyarī, Shalabī, Cairo 1355/1936, III, 244; al-Samarqandī, Tafsīr al-qur'ān, MS. Chester Beatty 3668, II, 134b; al-Qurtubī, op. cit., XIV, 138-139; Ibn Sacd, op. cit., II, 74; cAbd al-Razzāq, op. cit., V, 369; Abū cAwāna, Musnad, Hyderabad 1385/1965, IV, 167 seq.; al-Haythami, Majmac al-zawa'id, Beirut 1967 (repr.) VI, 137; al-Kalāci, al-Iktifā' fi maghāzi rasūli llāhi wa-l-thalāthati l-khulafā', ed. Mustafā cAbd al-Wāḥid, Cairo 1389/1970, II, 176; Ibn Ḥibbān al-Bustī, al-Thiqāt, Hyderabad 1393/1973, I, 274; Ibn Abi Shayba, Ta'rikh, MS. Berlin 9409 (Sprenger 104), fol. 49a; al-Isami, Simt alnujūm al-cawālī, Cairo 1380, II, 135; al-Suyūţī, al-Khaṣā'is al-kubrā, ed. Muḥammad Khalīl Harras, Cairo 1386/1967, II, 9; al-Maqrîzi, Imtā u l-asmā bimā li-l-rasūli min al-anbā'i wal-amwāli wa-l-hafadati wa-l-matāc, ed. Mahmūd Muhammad Shākir, Cairo 1941, I, 241; al-Waqidi, op. cit., p. 497.

⁹⁴ Al-Durr al-manthur, III, 178.

⁹⁵ Muqatil, Tafsir, II, 90b.

economic term in the period of the Jāhiliyya and in the period of the Prophet.

The firm economic position of Qurayza enabled them to invite the so-called "hypocrites", the Medinan munāfīqūn, during the siege of Medina to seek refuge in their stronghold. The munāfīqūn were in fact a group of Medinans who had outwardly converted to Islam, but who had remained loyal to their former allies, faithful to their Jāhilī ideals and their tribal relations; they cooperated with Qurayza and knew that they could rely on their help in times of need. They were reluctant to be involved in the conflicts of the Prophet with Quraysh or with other tribal groups. This attitude of the group of munāfīqūn can be gauged from a passage recorded by Ibn al-cArabī:

The $mun\bar{a}fiq\bar{u}n$ used to aid the Jews of Qurayza and the Christians of Najrān because they (i.e. the Jews and the Christians - K.) were people of cultivated land and used to supply them with provisions and lend them money. Therefore they said: "How are we to sever the bonds of friendship with a people who make our dwellings spacious when we are afflicted by a year of drought and are in need of them". 97

The close relations between Qurayza and the Aus, which had deep roots in the Jāhiliyya period, brought about the peculiar situation that several members of the Muslim Aus interceded with Sacd b. Mucādh, asking him to be lenient in his judgment of Qurayza. They were, of course, aware of being faithful believers, but they could not free themselves from the feeling that they should remain faithful to their Qurazī allies in accordance with their obligations from the period of the Jāhiliyya. This group is often referred to as "al-munāfiqūn".

The extent of the raid against Qurayza and its results can be judged by the number of the Muslim warriors who participated in the siege of the stronghold. Widely current reports give their number as three thou-

⁹⁶ Muqatil, Tafsir, II, 89a: wa-dhālika anna l-yahūda arsalū ilā-l-munāfiqina yauma l-khandaqi fa-qālū mādhā yahmilukum ʿalā an taqtulu anfusakum bi-aydī abī sufyāna wa-man maʿahu...innā la-nushfiqu ʿalaykum, innamā antum ikhwānunā wa-naḥnu jīrānukum, fa-halumma ilaynā...; and see al-Qurtubī, op. cit., XIV, 152 sup.

⁹⁷ Ibn al-cArabi, Ahkām al-qur'ān, II, 629: ...kāna l-munāfiqūna yuwāzirūna yahūda qurayzata wa-naṣārā najrāna li-annahum kānū ahla rifin wa-kānū yamīrūnahum wa-yuqridūnahum, fa-qālū: kayfa naqtacu mawaddata qaumin idhā aṣābatnā sanatun fa-htajnā ilayhim wassacū calaynā l-manāzila...; and cf. al-Waqidi, op. cit., p. 704: fa-innī cārifun bi-khaybara, hiya rifu l-hijāzi ajmaca.

sand warriors and thirty-six horsemen.⁹⁸ The data about the length of the siege⁹⁹ and the number of the executed Qurazī men and enslaved women and children are divergent.¹⁰⁰ The large force which marched out against Qurayza seems to indicate that the Prophet was aware of the strength of Qurayza. The Prophet could draw some conclusions from the "Campaign of the Ditch": he mobilized a great number of his troops. They could surround the stronghold of Qurayza and wait patiently until the besieged surrendered. There was some shooting,¹⁰¹ but there were no serious encounters and the number of killed from both parties was very small.¹⁰² The besieged Qurayza, forsaken by their allies, could not expect

98 See Ibn Sa^cd, op. cit., II, 74; al-Maqrizi, op. cit., I, 250; al-^cAyni, op. cit., XVII, 188; ^cAli b. Burhan al-Din, op. cit., II, 355: Ibn Sayyid al-Nas, op. cit., II, 68; al-Waqidi, op. cit., 522

99 See e.g. al-Qurtubī, op. cit., XIV, 139 (20 nights); al-Samarqandī, op. cit., II, 134b (15 nights); Muqātil, op. cit., II, 90b, I, 143b (21 nights); Ibn Saʿd, op. cit., II, 74 (14 nights); Ibn ʿAbd al-Barr al-Qurtubī, al-Durar fi khtiṣāri l-maghāzī wa-l-siyar, ed. Shauqī Dayf, Cairo 1386/1966, p. 189 (more than 20 nights); Ibn Kathīr, Tafsīr, V, 443 (25 nights); al-Diyārbakrī, op. cit., I, 493 (10, 15, 21, 25 nights); ʿAlī b. Burhān al-Dīn, op. cit., II, 357 (15 days, 25 nights, a month); Ibn Kathīr, al-Bidāya, IV, 124 (25 nights); al-ʿAynī, op. cit., XVII, 188 (more than 20, 15, 25 nights); al-Maqrīzī, op. cit., I, 241 (25 nights, 15 days, a month); al-ʿIṣāmī, op. cit., II, 136 (15 nights, 25 nights, more than 10 nights); al-Balādhurī, Futūḥ al-buldān, ed. ʿAbdallah and ʿUmar al-Ṭabbāʿ, Beirut 1377/1957, p. 32 (15 nights); al-Kalāʿī, op. cit., II, 177 (25 nights); Ibn Ḥibbān, op. cit., I, 274 (25 nights); and see Barakat Ahmad, op. cit., p. 73 (notes 7-8).

100 See e.g. Muqatil, op. cit., II, 90b (450 men killed, 750 enslaved); al-Waqidi, op. cit., 517-518 (600-700 executed); Mughultay, al-Zahr al-basim fi sīrat abī l-qasim, MS Leiden, or. 370, fol. 278a (400 men executed); al-Suyūtī, al-Durr al-manthūr, V, 193 (on the authority of Qatāda: 400 fighting men executed, 700 women and children enslaved); Abū cUbayd, al-Amwāl, p. 130, no. 348 (400 men killed); Ibn Junghul, Ta'rīkh, MS. Br. Mus. Or. 5912, fol. 287a (600-700 men, 800-900 men; on the authority of al-Layth b. Sacd: 400 men); al-Dhahabi, Siyar a^clām al-nubalā', ed. Ṣalāḥ al-Dīn al-Munajjid, Cairo 1956, I, 205 (400 men executed); Ibn Sacd, op. cit., II, 74 (600-700 men killed); al-Maqrīzī, op. cit., II, 138 (400, 800-900 killed); Ibn Hibban al-Busti, op. cit., I, 278 (600-900 executed); al-cAyni, op. cit., XVII, 192 (400, 600, 700, 900 beheaded); Ibn Kathīr, al-Bidāya, IV, 122, (400, 600-700, 800-900 executed); Ibn Sayyid al-Nās, op. cit., II, 73 (600, 700, 800-900 killed); Ibn al-Athīr, Jāmic al-uṣūl, ed. Muḥammad Hāmid al-Fiqī, Cairo 1371/1952, IX, 202, no. 6088 (400 men executed); Alī b. Burhān al-Dīn, op. cit., II, 360 (400, 600, 700, 750, 800 killed); al-Zurgānī, Sharh al-mawāhib al-laduniyya, Cairo 1325, II, 137 (600, 700, 800-900, 400 men executed); Ibn Kathîr, Tafsîr, V, 444 (700-800); al-Nasafi, Tafsīr, Cairo n.d. II, 300 (800-900 fighting men killed, or 600; 700 enslaved women and children); al-Diyarbakri, op. cit., I, 497 (400, 700, 700-800); al-Yacqubi, Ta'rikh, ed. Muhammad Sådiq Bahr al-Ulum, Najaf 4384/1964, II, 43 (750 fighting men executed); al-Mailisi, op. cit., XX, 212 (600 fighting men executed; or 450 men killed; 750 enslaved); al-Maqdisī, al-Bad' wa-l-ta'rīkh, ed. Huart, Paris 1899, IV, 220 (700 killed); Ibn ^cAbd al-Barr, al-Istī^cāb, ed. ^cAlī Muḥammad al-Bijāwī, Cairo 1380/1960, p. 603 (400 men killed).

¹⁰¹ See e.g. al-Wăqidi, op. cit., p. 500.

¹⁰² See e.g. al-Wāqidī, op. cit., p. 529.

any success if they launched an attack against the besieging force. They could probably attack suddenly and cause some losses to the besieging force, but they could not save themselves. The speech of Kacb b. Asad with his three proposals which were rejected by Qurayza 103 is probably an invention, but it reflects the grave situation of Qurayza, their despair and the few alternatives left to them. The stronghold of Qurayza was not far from Medina; al-Katakānī reports that the abode of Qurayza was 2 miles from Medina; the place was called Bi'r cAbd al-Muttalib. 104 The besieging force received their supplies from Medina; Sa^cd b. ^cUbāda supplied them with dates. 105 As mentioned above, there is no reference to serious war activities; but there was a lively movement of Ourazi delegates who went down in order to negotiate with the Prophet the terms of their surrender. Finally they were compelled to surrender unconditionally. They probably still fostered some hopes that they would be expelled, losing all their possessions. There were in fact some of the Aus who dared to intercede with the Prophet, asking him to be lenient with Ourayza. The Prophet preferred to transfer the authority of arbitration and judgment to Sa^cd b. Mu^cādh, a member of the Aus, who were the allies of Qurayza. The Prophet could indeed trust Sacd b. Mucadh and rely on his decision: after all, he had been entrusted with arranging the murder of Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf; it was Sacd b. Mucadh who sent Muhammad b. Maslama to Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf to slay him. 106 As arbiter, hakam, Sa^cd had to obtain in advance approval for his verdict from all the parties involved. Only then could he issue his judgment concerning Qurayza. The Prophet granted it his approval stating that it had been revealed from heaven. 108

¹⁰³ See Barakat Ahmad, op. cit., p. 72 seq. and his analysis of Ka^cb's speech. And see al-Majlisi, op. cit., XX, 210-211.

¹⁰⁴ Al-Katakānī, op. cit., III, 296; al-Majlisī, op. cit., XX, 217; but see al-Samhūdī, op. cit., p. 1141 (Bi'r Muttalib 5 miles from Medina).

¹⁰⁵ See e.g. al-Waqidi, op. cit., p. 500; cAli b. Burhan al-Din, op. cit., II, 357.

¹⁰⁶ See al-Bayhaqi, al-Sunan al-kubrā, Hyderabad 1344, IX, 183: fa-lammā abā ka^cb b. al-ashraf an yanzi^ca can adhā rasūli llāhi (s) wa-adhā l-muslimīn amara rasūlu llāhi (s) sa^cda bna mu^cādhin (r) an yab^catha rahṭan li-yaqtulūhu; fa-ba^catha ilayhi sa^cdu bnu mu^cādhin muḥammada bna maslamata l-anṣāriyya...; Ibn al-Dayba^c, Taysīr al-wuṣūl ilā jāmi^c l-uṣūl, Cairo 1388/1968, I, 285.

¹⁰⁷ See Barakat Ahmad, op. cit., pp. 77-78 (nos. VI-X) and the discussion pp. 79-82.

108 See Watt, The Condemnation; and cf. al-Dhahabi, al-cUluww, p. 32; Ibn cAbd al-Barr, al-Istīcāb, p. 603-604; and see al-Suyūṭī, al-Durr, III, 178: the decree conveyed to the Prophet in the morning by an angel (...fa-hakama [i.e. Sacd] fihim an tuqtala muqātilatuhum wa-tusbā

The order of the Prophet to stand up in honour of Sa^cd, their sayyid, and the remark of ^cUmar: "the sayyid is God"¹⁰⁹ seem to combine two elements: the injunction to honour an eminent person of the community (or of the tribe - K.) by standing up, and the permissibility of naming this person sayyid; ^cUmar had the courage to differ and to state that "sayyid", Lord, could only refer to God. The order of the Prophet to stand up in honour of Sa^cd contradicts utterances attributed to the Prophet in which he is said to have forbidden standing up in honour of important persons and to have prohibited notables from asking their people to stand up in front of them, ¹¹⁰ as it is a practice of the a^cājim. ¹¹¹

dhararīhim fa-qāla rasūlu llāhi (s): bi-dhālika ṭaraqanī l-malaku saḥaran); and see al-Zurqānī, Sharḥ al-mawāhib II, 135-136 (different versions of the judgment, the explanation of bi-dhālika ṭaraqanī al-malak saḥaran, the discussion whether the imām is permitted to transfer his authority to the arbiter); and see Muqātil, Tafsīr, ed. ʿAbdallah Maḥmūd Shaḥāta, Cairo 1969, I, 61 (commenting on faʿfū wa-sfaḥū Muqātil renders faʿfū by: utrukūhum wa-sfaḥū, yaqūlu: wa-aʿridū ʿani l-yahūdi; ḥattā ya'tiya llāhu bi-amrihi Muqātil explains: fa-atā llāhu ʿazza wa-jalla bi-amrihi fi ahli qurayzata: al-qatlu wa-l-sabyu...; and see ib. p. 303: fa-kāna amru llāhi fīhim al-qatla wa-l-sabya. The fate of Qurayza was thus predestined by God).

109 See Watt, The Condemnation, p. 161; Barakat Ahmad, op. cit., p. 92.

110 See e.g. al-Sakhāwi, al-Maqāṣid al-hasana, ed. ʿAbdallah Muḥammad al-Ṣadiq, Beirut 1399/1979, p. 393, no. 1043 (but the permissibility recorded according to the precedent of Saʿd b. Muʿadh); Ibn Ḥamza l-Ḥusaynī, al-Bayān wa-l-taʿrīf fi asbāb wurūdi l-hadīthi l-sharīf, Beirut 1400/1980, III, 194, no. 1508; al-Muʿafa b. ʿImrān, Kitāb al-zuhd, MS. Zahiriyya ḥadīth 359, fol. 246b (man ahabba an yamthula...); Ibn Kathīr, al-Bidāya, VII, 126 (man ahabba...); Ibn ʿAbd al-Barr, Bahjat al-majālis wa-uns al-mujālis, ed. Muḥammad Mursī al-Khūlī and ʿAbd al-Qādir al-Qutt, Cairo, I, 274 (man sarrahu...; and: qūmū ilā sayyidikum); al-Shaʿrānī, Lawāqih al-anwār, Cairo 1381/1961, p. 834 inf. (man ahabba an yatamaththala...); al-Bayhaqī, Shuʿab al-īmān, MS Reisūlkūttab 219, fol. 149, sup. (man ahabba an yatamaththala...); cAlī b. Muḥammad al-Muʿaddil, Juz', MS. Zāhiriyya 18, fol. 274a (man ahabba an taqūma lahu...); Şalāh al-Dīn al-Munajjid (ed.), Rasāʾil wa-nusūs III, Ibn Taymiyya, Fatwā fi l-nuhūd wa-l-alqāb, Beirut 1963, p. 11 (man sarrahu...).

111 See e.g. al-Zajjājī, Amālī, ed. 'Abd al-Salām Hārūn, Cairo 1382/1963, p. 68 (lā taqūmū kamā taqūmu l-a'ājim); al-Mu'āfā b. Imrān, op. cit., fol. 246b (lā-taqūmū kamā tu'azzimu (!) l-a'ājimu ba'duhum ba'dan; la'ana llāhu man qāmat lahu l-'abīdu sufūfan qiyāman; and see esp. ult.: lā yuqāmu lī, innamā yuqāmu lī-llāhi); al-Bayhaqī, Shu'ab, fol. 148b inf. ('an anas: mā kāna shakhṣun ahabba ilayhim min rasūli llāhi (s) wa-kānū idhā ra'auhu lam yataḥarrakū li-mā 'arafū min karāhiyyatihi li-dhālika); ib.: lā taqūmū kamā taqūmu l-a'ājim...; al-Sha'rānī, Lawāqih, p. 834 (lā-taqūmū 'alā ru'ūsi a'immatikum kamā taqūmu l-a'ājimu 'alā ru'ūsi mulūkihā; and p. 835: lā taqūmū kamā taqūmu l-a'ājimu); 'Alī b. Muḥammad al-Mu'addil, al-Juz' al-awwal, al-Fawā'id al-ḥisān, MS. Zāhiriyya 18, fol. 274a ('an anas: mā kāna shakhṣun ahabba ilayhim...; qūmū ilā sayyidikum...); Ibn 'Adiyy, al-Kāmil fī du'afā'i l-rijāl, MS. Ahmet III, 2943/I. fol. 127b (innamā halaka man kāna qablakum bi-an 'azzamū mulūkahum bi-an qāmū wa-qa'adū...); Şalāḥ al-Dīn al-Munajjid, ed., Rasā'il, p. 10 (lam yakun shakhṣun...).

The utterance $q\bar{u}m\bar{u}$ $il\bar{a}$ sayyidikum was commented in various ways in order to evade unnecessary polemics. $Q\bar{u}m\bar{u}$ was in some of the commentaries interpreted as a summons to the people to stand up and aid the wounded Sa^cd to alight. The word sayyid was explained as pointing to the idea of siyāda inherent in his authority as appointed arbiter. According to some traditions, however, reflecting the ideas of conservative-ascetic circles in Islam, the Prophet himself forbade addressing people by the title sayyid: When cAbdallah b. al-Shikhkhīr came to the Prophet and addressed him by "sayyidunā" the Prophet said: The sayyid is God. It was a plausible solution to record another version, which did not cause polemics: $q\bar{u}m\bar{u}$ ilā khayrikum. The phrase $q\bar{u}m\bar{u}$ ilā sayyidikum, which was in fact an expression of esteem and respect, seems to have been current in the period of the Prophet and became in later times a subject of politico-theological polemics.

The number of the besieging forces: 36 horsemen and 3000 foot-soldiers and the period of the siege generally given as lasting between 15 – 25 days indicates that the stronghold was fortified and that the population was numerous. The number of 400 Qurazī men able to fight, which is the smaller number recorded in all the versions about the surrender, seems to be plausible; nowhere in all the sources available is a smaller number mentioned. The different reports of Sacd's decree vary in their wording as to those who were to be put to death: "men", "those over whom the razors had passed", "fighting men", "adults". The meaning of all the reports is the same: the men able to fight have to be beheaded; in many compendia of figh this is identified with the age of puberty or adolescence.

The details about the place of execution and its duration are divergent or even contradictory. The commentators claim that Sacd issued his

¹¹² See e.g. al-Munăwi, Fayd al-qadīr, Beirut 1391/1972, IV, 530, no. 6164: ...wa-qīla macnāhu qūmū li-icānatihi fi-l-nuzūli cani l-dābbati li-mā bihi min al-jarh...

¹¹³ See e.g. al-cAynī op. cit., XVI, 269: ...wa-immā bi-an yurāda bihi al-siyādatu l-khāṣṣatu, ay min jihati taḥkīmihi fī-hādhihi l-qadiyya... and see the comment of Suhaylī, al-Raud al-unuf, VI, 368.

¹¹⁴ Mughultáy, op. cit., fol. 282a; Ibn Sa^cd, op. cit., I, 311, I.5; Ibn al-Athir, Usd al-ghāba, III, 182-183.

¹¹⁵ See e.g. al-ʿAynī, op. cit., XVI, 269, XVII, 191; Ibn Ḥamza al-Ḥusaynī, op. cit., III, 70, no. 1286; Yūsuf b. Mūsā l-Ḥanafī, al-Muʿtaṣar min al-mukhtaṣar min mushkili l-āthār, Hyderabad 1362, II, 387; al-Bayhaqī, Shuʿab, fol. 148a; Ibn al-Athīr, Jāmiʿ al uṣūl min ahādīthi l-rasūl, IX, 203, no. 6089.

¹¹⁶ See Barakat Ahmad, op. cit., 81-82.

judgment in the mosque erected on the territory of Qurayza.¹¹⁷ Some other sources state that he uttered it in the mosque of Medina. All the reports agree, however, that the Qurayza were led to Medina and executed there.

There are diverse traditions concerning the exact place of execution. Several reports say that the Ourazis were beheaded in the market of Medina and buried there; 118 some Shīcī sources report that the ditches were dug in Baqī^c, and the corpses of the executed Qurazīs were buried there. 119 The Baqīc, according to some reports, was adjacent to the market of Medina; some reports mention it as forming part of the market.¹²⁰ According to Shīcī sources the executions were carried out in the cool periods of the day: in the morning and in the evening, over a period of three days. 121 This was in compliance with an explicit order of the Prophet not to increase the sufferings of the Ourazis by executing them in the hottest hours of the day; the Prophet also ordered that they be provided with sweet water and good food and that proper conditions for their captivity be maintained. 122 Other reports say that the executions were carried out during one day and lasted until the evening when they were carried out at the light of firebrands. 123 Shīcī reports say that cAlī beheaded twenty Ourazī captives; each Companion beheaded one or two captives. 124 Certain reports tell an interesting story about how the Aus, who had criticized the execution of the Qurazīs, became involved in the operation: some captives were divided among the different clans of the Aus and each clan had to put to death their captives. 125 Several accounts stress that ^cAlī and al-Zubayr carried out the executions in the market of Medina. 126

The number of women and children which is given in some sources is 1000. This seems to be trustworthy when it is compared with the num-

¹¹⁷ Ibn Ḥajar, Fath al-bārī, VII, 317; al-cAynī, op. cit., XVI, 269; Barakat Ahmad, op. cit., pp. 90-91.

¹¹⁸ See above, and notes 31-34.

¹¹⁹ Al-Katakani, op. cit., III, 305; al-Majlisi, op. cit., XX, 23b.

¹²⁰ See M. Lecker, The Markets of Medina, note 57.

¹²¹ Al-Katakānī, op. cit., III, 305; al-Majlisī, op. cit., XX, 237 inf.-238.

¹²² See e.g. al-Majlisī, op. cit., XX, 238, 11.1-2.

¹²³ See e.g. al-Wāqidī, op. cit., p. 517; cAlī b. Burhān al-Dīn, op. cit., II, 365.

¹²⁴ al-Katakānī, op. cit., III, 306.

¹²⁵ See Barakat Ahmad, op. cit., p. 91; M. Watt, Muhammad at Medina, 215 inf.-216; al-Zurgānī, Sharh al-mawāhib, II, 137.

¹²⁶ See e.g. Barakat Ahmad, op. cit., pp. 83, 85; M. Watt, Muhammad at Medina, p. 216.

ber of executed men, which is said to have been 400. The women and children were sent to Syria and Najd and sold there in exchange for horses and weapons. ¹²⁷ Some of them were bought by the Jews of Khaybar, Wādī l-Qurā, Taymā, and by a Jew of Medina; ¹²⁸ others were bought by 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Auf and 'Uthmān; these two are said to have made a profit; it was especially 'Uthmān who was successful in this commercial enterprise. ¹²⁹ Several women were divided among the believers in Medina; some accounts say that this was done in accordance with one of the injunctions of Sa^cd b. Mu^cādh: to kill the men and spare the women "in order that the believers might be aided by them" (i.e. by the women – K.). ¹³⁰

The list of the booty of Qurayza which was collected by the believers after the surrender is of importance: 1500 swords, 300 coats of mail, 200 spears, 1500 shields; in addition to the weapons there were household goods, utensils, camels and cattle. The wine was, of course, poured out. 131 The large quantities of weapons are disproportionate relative to the number of fighting men (i.e. men who reached puberty – K.): 1500 swords, 1500 shields and 2000 spears exceed the military needs of 400 men able to fight. The only possible conjecture is that Qurayza used to sell (or lend) some of the weapons kept in the storehouses in their stronghold. The title "ahlu l-halqa" "the people of the weapons" by which Quraysh in their letter addressed the Jews is to be explained by reference to these storehouses, in which weapons were accumulated and stored. 132 These weapons seem to have strengthened their position and prestige in the tribal society.

The suspicions that Qurayza attempted to plot with Quraysh against the Prophet would probably not justify the cruel punishment of execu-

¹²⁷ See al-Wāqidī, op. cit., p. 523.

¹²⁸ See Barakat Ahmad, op. cit., p. 88.

 $^{^{129}}$ See e.g. al-Wāqidī, op. cit., p. 523; °Alī b. Burhān al-Dīn, op. cit., II, 379; al-Maqrīzī, $Imt\bar{a}^c$, I, 251.

¹³⁰ Abū ^cUbayd, op. cit., p. 130, no. 348; Ibn al-Athir, Jāmi ^c al-uṣūl, IX, 202, no. 6088.

¹³¹ See e.g. al-Waqidī, op. cit., 509-510; al-Zurqānī, Sharh al-mawāhib, II, 137 (500 shields); al-Maqrīzī, op. cit., I, 245; 'Alī b. Burhān al-Dīn, op. cit., II, 363 ult. (500 shields); Ibn Sayyid al-Nās, op. cit., II, 74 (500 shields); al-Diyārbakrī, op. cit., I, 496 inf. (500 shields); Ibn Sa'd, op. cit., II, 75; Muḥammad b. Yaḥyā Bahrān, Ibtisām al-barq, sharḥ manzūmat al-qaṣaṣ al-ḥaqq fī sīrat khayri l-khalq, ed. Yaḥyā b. 'Abd al-Karīm al-Fudayl, Beirut 1394/1974, p. 178 (100 spears).

¹³² See e.g. cAbd al-Razzaq, op. cit., V. 359.

tion of the fighting men and the sale of the women and children; Qurayza repented of their deeds, the people of Aus beseeched the Prophet, asking him to pardon Qurayza. 133 One might have expected the Prophet to pardon them. There must have been an additional reason for the hostility of the Prophet against Qurayza, not disclosed in the vague accounts about the violation of the treaty. This can be gauged from the passage in the commentary of Muqātil on Sūrat al-Anfāl, verse 57: "The Jews violated the compact between them and the Prophet and aided the unbelievers of Mecca by providing them with weapons with which to fight the Prophet and his Companions." 134

Qurayza were, as mentioned, ready to depart with their families leaving the huge quantities of weapons as booty for the Prophet. The Prophet's approval of the cruel judgment of Sacd cannot be explained in this case. Never before had the Prophet inflicted such a punishment on any tribal group.

Current reports say that the land and booty of Qurayza were divided among the 3000 warriors and 36 horsemen; the *khums* was taken out of the booty. A different account reports that Sacd b. Mucadh ordered in his decree that the property of Qurayza be divided among the Muhājirūn only, not among the Anṣār. According to another report it was the Prophet who allotted land and immovable property to the Muhājirūn, emphasizing in his address to the Anṣār that they were living in their abode (and consequently did not need additional land – K.). There seems to have been some feeling of discontent amont the Anṣār in connection with the division of the land of Qurayza. This is reflected in a report stating that Sacd b. Mucadh decreed that the land of Qurayza be allotted to the Muhājirūn (*wa-takūna l-diyāru li-l-muhājirīn*); the Anṣār

¹³³ Al-Wāqidī, op. cit., p. 510.

¹³⁴ Muqatil, op. cit., I, 147a: ...wa-dhālika anna l-yahūda naqadū l-cahda lladhī kāna baynahum wa-bayna l-nabiyyi (s) wa-acānū mushrikī makkata bi-l-silāḥi calā qitāli l-nabiyyi (s) wa-asḥābihi thumma yaqūlūna nasīnā wa-akhṭa'nā, thumma yucāhiduhum al-thāniyata fa-yanqudūna l-cahda.

¹³⁵ See e.g. al-Waqidī, op. cit., p. 521-525; Ibn Hishām, Sīra, III, 256; al-Balādhurī, Futūh, p. 33; al-Maqrīzī, op. cit., I, 250; Ibn Hibbān, op. cit., I, 278; al-Kalā̄̄, al-Iktif̄̄̄̄̄̄̄̄̄̄, II, 186; Ibn ʿAbd al-Barr, al-Durar, p. 193; al-Qurṭubī, op. cit., XIV, 142; and see Barakat Ahmad, op. cit., p. 89.

¹³⁶ Al-Yacqubi, op. cit., II, 43; al-Katakani, op. cit., III, 306.

¹³⁷ Al-Nasafi, Tafsīr, III, 301: ruwiya anna rasūla llāhi ja ʿala ʿaqārahum li-l-muhājirīna dūna l-ansāri wa-aāla lahum innakum fi manāzilikum.

objected, arguing that they had property shared with the Muhājirūn. Sa^cd replied: "I wanted them (i.e. the Muhājirūn – K.) to become self-sufficient, and not need your aid". More details about the division of the palm trees of Qurayza are given by Ibn Ḥajar: the Anṣār helped the Muhājirūn by granting them palm trees for their use. After the conquest of the lands of Naḍīr and Qurayza the Muhājirūn were granted land and palm trees and could thus return the trees which the Anṣār had given them. 139

The division of the land and property improved the status of the Muhājirūn at Medina and helped them to gain their economic independence. The military strength of the Muslim community of Medina grew due to the weapons taken as booty; the sale of the captured women and children as slaves for horses and weapons enabled to enlarge the Muslim military force for further conquests.

The Jewish tribe of Qurayza ceased to exist.