

STUDIES IN ARABIC LANGUAGE
AND LITERATURE

Volume 4

edited by

SASSON SOMEKH AND ALEXANDER BORG

The Majlis

Interreligious Encounters
in Medieval Islam

edited by

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1999

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vocalize the consonants, *‘arada ‘alayya*, “he showed me.” Others suggest *‘urida ‘ala*, “he was shown.” They translate: “When the ... Vizier ... was shown a translation ...” They believe that an exalted vizier is unlikely to have shown a Jewish scholar a translation that was made at his request and that it is more plausible the the vizier was shown that translation by others in the course of the *majlis*. However, the reappearance of the first person towards the end of the introduction (“I was saddened by what I heard and by what I saw...”) makes our interpretation equally plausible, we believe.

A second and more crucial textual difficulty is to be found in line 13 of the first page of the introduction. These are the words *mā wajaba ‘indahu*. We take the word *mā* to be the negative particle and understand these words to mean “ought not to have vilified ...” Some scholars suggest that the *mā* is a conjunctive pronoun. They understand the problematic sentence as follows: “When the Most Illustrious Vizier Ya‘qūb ibn Yūsuf, may God sustain his high station, showed me (or: was shown) a translation made by a certain Jewish translator, of the ‘Book of Prayers and Blessings’ ... which caused him and the company of thinkers ... to vilify, ridicule, and scorn the entire nation ...” The alternative reading does not solve the difficulties pertaining to the structure of this long, convoluted sentence, written by a man who apologizes for his lack of expertise in Arabic. It simply poses additional difficulties. Furthermore, on this reading, the sentence is devoid of any tone of censure towards the vizier, whose callous attitude towards Judaism is what seems to have driven the author to write the apologetic treatise in the first place.

Whatever the resolution of these philological difficulties, we have an important, first-hand testimony to the existence and nature of a *majlis* in the court of a high ranking official in early Fatimid times. The unusual congruence of Muslim literary accounts (al-Maqrīzī, Ibn Khallikān) and a first-hand Jewish text from the Geniza confirms that Ibn Killis’s *majlis* did, indeed, exist and that it was a forum in which different religions were discussed. Neither al-Maqrīzī nor the Geniza account rests exclusively upon a literary “topos.” Ibn Killis, veteran of the *majlis* of his first Fatimid patron, Caliph al-Mu‘izz, where religions were discussed and debated, seems to have replicated the “institution” in his own court.

Responses to Islamic Polemics by Jewish Mutakallimūn in the Tenth Century*

David Sklare

Historians have generally thought that Jews did not write books to directly refute Islamic claims. Indeed, one can only point to two relatively late Hebrew works, a responsum, *Ma’amar ‘al Yishma’el*, attributed to Solomon ben Abraham ibn Adret (c. 1235–c. 1310) and the section on Islam in Simeon ben ʿUemāh Duran’s (1361–1444) *Keshet u-Magen*.¹ Both of these authors came from Christian Spain and, not knowing Arabic, depended on translations of Islamic sources. Recent manuscript research, however, has shown that a small corpus of books of this sort was in fact produced by Jews living under Islam. The works under consideration all stem from the cultural context of tenth-century Baghdad and specifically the sessions for discussion of religious and theological matters (*majlis al-kalām*, pl. *majālis*) conducted there. Authors known to have written such works are the Karaite Ya‘qūb al-Qirqīsānī, Abū 1-Husayn ibn Mashiah, and Yūsuf al-Basīr and the Rabbanite, Samuel ben Ḥofni Gaon.²

The first two, al-Qirqīsānī and Ibn Mashiah, lived in Baghdad during the first part of the tenth century and we only know of their books from reports

* An earlier version of this article was presented to the Workshop on Interreligious Polemics held at the Institute for Advanced Studies of the Hebrew University of Jerusalem in July, 1995. I would like to thank Prof. Hava Lazarus-Yafeh for inviting me to take part in this workshop and to the participants for their helpful comments. I also express my gratitude to Prof. Sarah Stroumsa who so generously and graciously brought to my attention a number of the Firkovich manuscripts discussed here.

¹ Ibn Adret’s work was published in J. Perles, R. Salomo b. Abraham b. Adereth, Breslau, 1863. On it, see also M. Schreiner, “Die Apologetische Schrift des Shlomo b. Aderet gegen einen Muhammedaner,” *ZDMG* 48 (1894), pp. 39–42. The section on Islam in Duran’s *Keshet u-Magen* was edited by M. Steinschneider in *Ozar Tov* (= *Magazin für die Wissenschaft des Judentums*) 8 (1881), Berlin. A German translation was published by Steinschneider in the same *Magazin* 7 (1880).

² Mention should also be made of a very short work against the Muslim claim of *tahrif* written by the Karaite Abī ibn Sulaymān who lived in Jerusalem and Cairo at the end of the eleventh and beginning of the twelfth centuries. This text shows an acquaintance with the Qur’ān. It

about them. Al-Qirqisānī included a short précis of his arguments against Islam in his legal code, *Kitāb al-Anwār wal-Marāqib* and tells us there that he has written another book concerning the prophecy of Muhammad.³ Ibn Mashīah's book is mentioned by Yūsuf al-Basīr as being the only previous work on the subject which he was able to find.⁴ (This, by the way, would indicate that by the latter part of the tenth century, al-Qirqisānī's book was hard to come by and already at that time was not known to interested scholars.) The latter two authors, Yūsuf al-Basīr and Samuel ben Hofni, lived in the second half of the tenth century and the beginning of the eleventh. It has been possible to reconstruct their polemical works from manuscript fragments found in collections deriving from the Cairo Genizah and in the Firkovitch collections of the Russian National Library in St. Petersburg.⁵ In the case of Samuel ben Hofni's work, *Kitāb Naskh ash-Shar'* (*Treatise on Abrogation of the Law*), a significant part of the book has survived, while it has been possible to piece together almost all of Yūsuf al-Basīr's book on the inimitability of the Qur'an (*ijtāz al-qur'ān*).⁶ In addition to these works, there are also small fragments of another three or four books of this sort which would appear to belong to the same cultural and intellectual context but which at this point in time remain anonymous. A caveat should be made concerning the state of our knowledge of this genre of polemical works. Research in the Firkovitch collections is only at its beginning and there is still much work to be done even with the collections of Cairo Genizah material. It is therefore most likely that more manuscript material relevant to these books will be found and more will be known about them.

³ Chap. 15 of the third *maqāla* of *Kitāb al-Anwār wal-Marāqib* is devoted to a response to the Muslims (L. Nemoy, ed., New Haven-New York, 1940, Vol. 2, pp. 292–301). He mentions his book on Muhammad's prophecy on pages 284 (رَدَّ جُرْدَ كَابَةَ فِي إِنْسَادِ نَبِيِّ مُحَمَّدٍ), 292, 301 (رَدَّ أَسْنَفَتْ ذَلِكَ بَلْ بَلَةَ فِي الْكِتابِ الَّذِي أَتَى عَلَيْهِمْ وَذَرَرَتْ فِيهِ ابْنَةَ مَسْلَمٍ) and 304. The text was first published by I. Friedländer, "Qirqisānī's Polemik gegen den Islam," *Zeitschrift für Assyriologie* 26 (1912), pp. 77–110.

⁴ See the text quoted below in n. 18. Most of the little information known about Ibn Mashīah can be found in S. Poznanski, "The Karaite Literary Opponents of Saadiah Gaon," sec. 6 (reprinted in P. Birnbaum, *Karaite Studies*, New York, 1971, pp. 145–146).

⁵ The following abbreviations have been used below in references to manuscripts: BL = British Library; T-S = Taylor Schechter collection of the Cambridge University Library; II Firk. Yevr.-Ar. = Second Firkovitch collection of the Russian National Library in St. Petersburg, Hebrew-Arabic section. (The Russian National Library has recently ceased to use the name Firkovitch for these collections, but the name has been retained here in order to preclude confusion.)

The texts quoted in the notes below are given as found in the manuscripts, except for diacritical marks, usually lacking in the manuscripts, which have been added for the ease of the reader. Lacunae in the manuscripts have been indicated by square brackets.

A number of reasons have been pointed out to explain why Jews would have refrained from composing books refuting Islam.⁷ Perhaps the most salient was the fear of provoking the ruling religious group and then suffering from their reprisals.⁸ A second reason was the lack of a common ground of discourse. The Christians and the Jews shared a Scripture and throughout the Middle Ages they fought a war of verses on a common battlefield. In this sense, Christianity presented a theologically greater threat to Judaism than Islam in that it was seen as attempting to take over for itself God's revelation to Israel. Islam, while claiming like Christianity that the old covenant had been abrogated, had little theological concern for Jewish scriptures.⁹ The "playing field," so to speak, for Muslim-Jewish polemics was thus rather constricted. So, while Jews did relate to Islam in an occasional fashion, in responsa, legal works, theological works such as Judah Halevi's *Cuzari*, exegesis, sermons or in histories, they produced few works devoted to responding to the Muslims' polemic.¹⁰

I review these well-known points in order to emphasize the importance of the cultural context in which the books under consideration were produced. Among the intellectual elite of Buyid Baghdad there was a relatively high degree of tolerance which at times even bordered on skepticism.¹¹ Meetings

⁷ For a recent discussion of this phenomenon, see H. Lazarus-Yafeh, *Intertwined Worlds: Medieval Islam and Bible Criticism*, Princeton, 1992, pp. 6–8.

⁸ Maimonides is quite explicit about this concern at the end of his *Epistle to Yemen* in which he responded to Muslim polemical claims: "Read it (the Epistle) at public gatherings ... Take adequate precautions lest its contents be divulged to the Gentiles by an evil person and mishap overtake us. When I began writing this letter I had some misgivings about it, but they were overruled by my conviction that the public welfare takes precedence over one's personal safety." (Translation by B. Cohen in A. Halkin, ed., *Moses Maimonides' Epistle to Yemen*, New York, 1952, p. xx.)

⁹ Muslims thus had little interest in studying the Jewish Bible. Muslim attitudes towards the Bible and criticism of it has been discussed by H. Lazarus-Yafeh, *Intertwined Worlds*. In general, the amount of Muslim polemical literature directed against the Jews is fairly small. Additional recent studies of Muslim polemics include: M. Perlmann, "The Medieval Polemics between Islam and Judaism," in *Religion in a Religious Age*, ed. S. D. Goitein, Cambridge: Mass., 1974, pp. 103–138; C. Adang, *Muslim Writers on Judaism and the Hebrew Bible*: From Ibn Rabban to Ibn Hazm, Leiden, 1996; H. Lazarus-Yafeh, ed., *Muslim Authors on apologetische Literatur in arabischer Sprache, zwischen Muslimen, Christen und Juden*: Leipzig, 1877, Appendix VII (pp. 244–389). See also M. Cohen, *Under Crescent and Cross: The Jews in the Middle Ages*, Princeton, N.J., 1994, Chap. 9 (Interreligious Polemics), and (includes an updated version of Perlmann's bibliography).

¹⁰ A large amount of material of this sort was collected by M. Steinschneider, *Polemische und apologetische Literatur in arabischer Sprache, zwischen Muslimen, Christen und Juden*: Leipzig, 1877, Appendix VII (pp. 244–389). See also M. Cohen, *Under Crescent and Cross: The Jews in the Middle Ages*, Princeton, N.J., 1994, Chap. 9 (Interreligious Polemics), and pp. 154–161 (The Jewish Polemical Response to Islam) in particular.

¹¹ The intellectual atmosphere of Baghdad at this time and the flowering of a humanistic culture among certain parts of Baghddi society has been described by J. Kraemer in his *HUMANISM IN THE BAGHDADI STATE* (Leiden, 1986). Jewish participation in this Arabic humanistic

of intellectuals from various sects and faiths for polemical debates (*majālis*) provided an institutional framework in which the fear of reprisal was lessened and participants could argue in a relatively free fashion (although there were still limits and, as we will see, the element of caution remained). A common ground of discourse for the Jew and Muslim was furnished by Mu‘tazilite *Kalām*. All of the authors mentioned above were *mutakallimūn* and they shared with their Muslim counterparts a common view of the world, of how religion and revelation worked, and of particular importance, they shared a common conceptual vocabulary for discussing the epistemology of revelation and traditions.¹²

The general nature of the proceedings of the inter-faith polemical *majālis* was described in the famous account of Ibn Sa‘dī reported by al-Humaydī.¹³ To summarize again what al-Humaydī reports: Ibn Sa‘dī had traveled from al-Andalus to Baghdad in the latter part of the tenth century. After being cajoled into attending a *majlis al-kalām*, he was appalled at what he found. There were representatives of all of the Islamic sects, Pagans, Jews, Zoroastrians and Christians who agreed that only rational argumentation could be used within the framework of their polemical discussion. The use of citations from one’s own Scriptures was not permissible since these Scriptures were not accepted as authoritative by all present. Not being accustomed to this sort of openness, Ibn Sa‘dī fled from the gathering. Unfortunately, this report does not inform us as to how the debate proceeded after its formal opening or about its outcome, leaving us in the dark as to the actual arguments used or how the participants were affected by the disputation.

Here the works of Samuel ben Hofni and Yūsuf al-Basīr can shed some light. Both of their books were written to be guides or aids for those who found themselves participating in such polemical *majālis* and thus preservc for us some of the argumentation used by Muslims and Jews. As opposed to literary reports of debates which are likely to be fictional, we can presume that these books reflect a fairly accurate picture of what was actually said or

¹² For a general discussion of Mu‘tazilite *Kalām*, see G. Hourani, *Islamic Rationalism: The Ethics of ‘Abd al-Jabbar*, Oxford, 1971; R.M. Frank, “Several Fundamental Assumptions of the Basra School of the Mu‘tazilī,” *Studia Islamica* 33 (1971), pp. 5–18; J.R.T.M. Peters, *God’s Created Speech: A Study in the Speculative Theology of the Mu‘tazilī Qādī I-Qudār Abū l-Hasan ‘Abd al-Jabbar bn Ahmad al-Hamadhānī*, Leiden, 1976. Concerning topics particularly relevant to Jewish-Muslim polemics, see D. Sklare, *Samuel Ben Hofni Gaon*, Chap. 5. Materials concerning the phenomenon of the reason-based *majlis* have been collected in S. Wasserstrom, “The Shi‘is are the Jews of Our Community: An Interreligious Comparison Within Sunni Thought,” *Israel Oriental Studies* 14 (1994), p. 320, n. 76.

¹³ Muhammad b. Fu’ūth al-Humaydī, *Iadhwat al-Muqabiy*, ed., M. al-Tanji, Cairo, 1952, pp. 101–102.

at least the sort of proofs and responses that were utilized.¹⁴ For if they were to be useful guides for someone preparing himself to participate in a dispute, they had to contain a realistic account of what that person could expect to encounter. Furthermore, we know that both Samuel ben Hofni and Yūsuf al-Basīr themselves participated in such sessions; in Samuel ben Hofni’s case, it was a *majlis* conducted in the presence of a *wazīr*.¹⁵ They were thus intimately acquainted with the realities of the *majlis* and the sort of debate that took place there.

The reality of the polemical *majlis* was not necessarily a pleasant one. This was not because of any rude behavior on the part of the Muslim participants towards the Jews, but because of the impact the debate had on the Jewish audience. This impact is described by al-Basīr in the introduction to his book in which he tells the reader of his experience in such a disputation: “Many from among us who converted found that the Muslims had argued elegantly concerning the prophecy of their master in the most embellished and beautiful manner and that there was nothing by which they could refute it. So doubt took possession of them, they went astray and were lost.” In this context, al-Basīr quotes the verse from Daniel 11:34: “In defeat, they will receive a little help, and many will join them because of smooth words.” He then continues, “When I learned about that, I was worn out from enduring (the debate) and the doubts which they brought upon me came to me frequently. So I sought to be by myself in order to think and to request of ‘He who has created the world’ to set my feet firmly in His law so that I would not cease (from holding

¹⁴ Examples of literary reports of debates between Christians and Muslims are discussed by Sidney Griffith in his contribution to this volume. Such works seem to have been meant for internal consumption, to shore up the faith of those shaken by polemical claims. They may have formed a literary genre. See Bo Holmberg, “The Public Debate as a Literary Genre in Arabic Literature,” *Orientalia Suecana* 38–39 (1989–1990), pp. 45–53.

¹⁵ The participation of Samuel ben Hofni in a debate held by a *wazīr* is reported by al-Basīr in his *Naqd ‘Alā Shemuel Rās al-Mathiba* [Refutation of Samuel (ben Hofni) Head of the Yeshiva] (in ms. II Firk. Yevr.-Ar. I:3025, f. 38a). Yūsuf al-Basīr reports on his own experiences in his book described below. Al-Qirqisānī and Ibn Mashīah also participated in deliberations with Muslims (see the second quote in n. 3 above and n. 22 below) and it is reasonable to suggest that their polemical books also stemmed from their debating experiences. On the participation of Jews in *majālis*, see also D. Sklare, *Samuel ben Hofni Gaon*, pp. 100–102, n. 7–9.

It is of interest to note that the Jews also used the term *majlis* for the study sessions of the yeshivot. For example, the author of an anonymous commentary on Psalms comments: כה...מתקבְּלָה בְּלִיל פֶּלֶס וְלַעֲמֹד בְּצַדְקָה בְּנֵי שְׁרֵךְ וְלַעֲמֹד בְּלִיל פֶּלֶס (from II Firk. Yevr.-Ar. I:1430, quoted in J. Mann, *Texts and Studies in Jewish History and Literature*, Cincinnati–Philadelphia, 1931–1935, Vol. 2, p. 1461, note to Vol. 1, p. 227). Mann suggests that this Isaac b. Asher may have been either the Isaac who was head of the Sura Yeshiva in the period after Hāfi Ghāzi’s death or the thirteenth-century Isaac ha-Kohen

on to it), as it is said: ‘Make my feet firm through Your promise; [do no let iniquity dominate me.]’ (Ps. 119:133). I then returned to the *majlis* with renewed strength and it then occurred to me what I should say and I saw what I could use in order to respond.”³¹⁶

From this report, we can see that a number of Jews were so impressed by the Muslims' arguments for the authenticity of Muhammad's prophecy that they converted to Islam.¹⁷ It would seem from al-Basir's words that it was not only the content or the bottom line of the Muslim proofs which swayed the Jewish audience, but also the aesthetic element of the debate, the elegance of the argument. It would also appear from this report that the conversion was not because the Jewish intellectuals lost the debate and were thus forced by the Muslims to convert, but rather it seems to have been the logical outcome of their being unable respond to the Muslims' argumentation. Even someone of the intellectual stature of al-Basir was worn down by the debate and found himself overcome by doubts. Therefore, even if the Muslims were on their best behavior during the disputation and the Jews were allowed complete freedom to argue their side of the debate, the *majlis* contained within it a

danger for the Jewish participants. As al-Basîr put it, the Muslims' ornate argumentation was "a great trial." There was therefore a distinct need for manuals to prepare Jews for the rigors of the *majlis* debate. Al-Basîr himself felt the lack of some source of help, either from a book or from a person, and was thus moved to write his own short guide.¹⁸

It might be possible to compare the quality of the debate in the sort of *majlis* reflected in these works with what we know of other debates in which Jews participated. In addition to the Baghdadi *majalis* already mentioned (and here I should add that Saadya Gaon is also known to have participated

16 אז גברון דיל' ופְרָעָה פִי דיל' כְּרִי גְּנוּלָה עַלְיָה רַבִּי בְּבָלְקָלְקָתָה. ומִתְחִיר מֵאַמְּנָה דְּאַבְּלָה וְגַדְמָה נָא קַרְבָּן גְּמוֹרָה מֵאַלְכָלָם פִי גְּבוֹהָ צָאַתְהָם עַלְיָה אַלְתְּרִיָּה וְאַלְחָתָה פְּלָמָה בְּיַעֲנָה דִּיעַפְתָּ דִיל' עַזְנָפָטָה תְּמִכְמֻבָּת אַלְשָׁבָה מְגַהֵּל וְלָרָל. וְלָבָא אַלְלָעָתָה צְדִי דִיל' וּבְלָתָה בְּמַקְאָתָהָם כְּאֹנוֹת אַלְשָׁבָה אַלְתִּי יוֹדוֹוָה צְדִי חַדְאָלָבָן בְּנָכָת אַלְמָלָבָן אַלְתָּפָרָן בְּבָסָת לְלָבָרָן פִי דִיל' וּמְסָלָה בְּרָא הַלְּחִיבָּתָה קְדָמָה פִי שְׂרָעָה צְדִי אַלְלָיָה עַיְלָטָה בְּכָנָן בְּאַמְתָּרָה. פְּנָתָה אַגְּבָעָה אַלְמָגִילָם גְּדָרָה אַלְקוֹה יְרָקָה סְנָה לִי אַלְלָיָה אַלְלָיָה עַכְבָּרָה כָּבָן I:3022.

17 Al-Basîr at one point refers to his Mu'tazilite opponents as "those who cause to stumble" (�).

in the *majlis* of the *wazīr* ‘Alī ibn ‘Isā¹⁹), we know of *majālis* conducted in the Fātimid realm in which Jews participated. Most notable in this regard is an anonymous text in which it is told how the Jewish prayers were derided and criticized in the *majlis* of the Fātimid *wazīr* Ibn Killis.²⁰ This work, which has a very Mu‘tazilite quality to it, was then written in order to defend Jewish prayer and, evidently, Judaism as a whole. Yefet ben ‘Eli in his commentary on Daniel also mentions *majālis* which were ostensibly held to examine various religions (which he calls *majālis al-nazar fi dhikr al-madhāhib*), but which were actually conducted by Fātimid propagandists who attacked Judaism. Jews were generally forced to attend these sessions and quite understandably came to hate them.²¹ If we can generalize on the basis of such slim evidence, it would seem that in the Fātimid *majālis* the attack on Judaism was much more frontal and aggressive than what we find in Baghdad. From Yūsuf al-Basīr’s book, it would appear that the Muslims’ side of the debate did not include attacks on Judaism per se (except to prove that it had been abrogated). Rather, their argument seems to have concentrated on proving the authenticity of Muhammad’s prophecy to the Jews. Al-Basīr thus did not feel it necessary to provide his readers with a means for structuring a Jewish apologetic.

In addition to the formal confrontations in the *majlis*, the cultural atmosphere of tenth-century Baghdad also encouraged conversations or debates between individuals of various faiths. In this case, of course, the nature of the dialogue depended considerably on the personalities of the people involved. Just to give one example I might mention the discussions the Christian theologian Abū 'l-Khayr Dāwid ibn Mūsāj, Bishr b. Fimhās ibn Shu'aib and with our Ibn Mashīah 22

19 This is reported by al-Mas'ūdī, *al-Tanbīh wal-Ishrāf*, ed. M. J. de Goeje, Leiden, 1894, pp. 112–114.

20 The initial publication was in M. Cohen and S. Somekh, "In the Court of Ya^cqūb ibn Killīs," *A Tenth-Century Courtier*, TOP 80 (2000), 282–214. The final edition is available online at www.tau.ac.il/~somekh/yaqub.html.

A Fragment from the Cairo Genizah, *JQR* 80 (1990), pp. 283–314. The theological section of the fragment was published in S. Somekh, “Fragmentis of a Polemic Treatise from the Cairo Genizah” (Heb.), in I. Gluska and Ts. Kessar, eds., *Sefer Shivitel*, Tel Aviv, 1992, pp.

141–159; and see also their article in the present volume.

21 See S.M. Stern, "Fatimid Propaganda Among Jews According to the Testimony of Yefet b. 'Ali the Karaite," in his *Studies in Early Isma'iliism*, Jerusalem-Leiden, 1983, pp. 84–95.

22 Ibn Zur^c wrote a treatise explaining the basic differences between Judaism and Christianity at the request of Bishr ibn Shu^cayb (published in P. Sbaath, ed., *Vingt Traité Philosophiques et Apologétiques d'Auteurs Arabes Chrétiens du IX^e au XIV^e Siècle*, Cairo, 1929, pp. 19–52), in which he also mentions his contacts with Dāwūd ibn Müsaj (op. cit., p. 47). His debates with Ibn Mashiah, who was evidently a rather disputatious character, are mentioned by Ibn al-Hījī (G. Margoliouth, "Ibn al-Hījī's Arabic Chronicle of Karaite Doctors," *JQR* o.s. 14 (1902), p. 434). One might also mention the much earlier debate on the issue of *naskh* between an-Nazzām (d. 846) and a Jew named Yāsā ibn Saīlī which, however, might be a literary fiction. This was published in L. Cheikho, *Vingt traités théologiques*

As mentioned above, the book by Samuel ben Hofni which interests us here is his *Kitāb Naskh ash-Shar*.³⁰ As its title indicates, this work deals with the Muslim claim that the Torah has been abrogated by the subsequent revelations of Jesus and Muhammad.³¹ The impetus for writing the book was a query from someone whom Samuel refers to as “the distinguished Shaykh from among the people of learning and culture.” This scholar had evidently experienced the rigors of the polemical debate and sought guidance. We can hear the echoes of the battle in the book’s introduction where Samuel writes: “I have written these ten chapters to be a weapon in the hands of our compatriots who are fighting with the nations” and he then quotes the verse from Isaiah 49:2: “He made my mouth like a sharpened blade, He hid me in the shadow of His hand, And He made me like a polished arrow; He concealed me in His quiver.”³² The book evidently met a felt need and was in fairly large demand, as seen by the fact that the fragments of the book found so far represent at least eight different manuscripts, a substantial number by Genizah standards.³³

As described in the introduction, the book has ten chapters, logically and systematically arranged as are most of Samuel ben Hofni’s works. As in many Muslim treatments of the subject, the first few chapters are devoted to definition of terms. Here, he defines the term *naskh* (abrogation), making use of the same lexicographic examples to be found in Muslim treatises³⁴, and discusses at length what sort of Biblical passages and traditions might be theoretically subject to abrogation and which ones not. He then goes on to distinguish abrogation from *badda'* (changing one’s mind due to new circumstances) which both sides of the debate agreed was not admissible of God.

In the sixth and seventh chapters he describes the various schools of thought among the Jews concerning abrogation. He lists three groups. The first are

³⁰ This book is described in Sklare, *Samuel ben Hofni Gaon*, pp. 28–29. A fragmentary reconstruction of the text is available in D. Sklare, *The Religious and Legal Thought of Samuel ben Hofni Gaon: Texts and Studies in Cultural History*, Ph. D. Thesis, Harvard University, 1992, Appendix 3. This preliminary edition does not include ms. II Firk. Yevr.-Ar. I:3024 mentioned below.

³¹ A good summary of the issue of abrogation (*naskh*) can be found in H. Lazarus-Yafet, *Intertwined Worlds*, pp. 35–41; C. Adang, *Muslim Writers of Judaism and the Hebrew Bible*, Leiden 1996, pp. 192–222. See also J. Wansbrough, *Quranic Studies*, Oxford, 1977, pp. 192–202 and idem, *The Sectarian Milieu*, Oxford, 1978, pp. 109–113. *Naskh* is also an internal issue of Islamic legal theory. Treatments of this perspective can be found in J. Burton, *The Collection of the Qur'an*, Cambridge, 1977, pp. 46–104; idem, *Abū Ubaid al-Qāsim b. Sallām's K. al-nāsikh wal-mansūkh*, Cambridge, 1987, pp. 1–44.

³² T-S Ar. 47.238, f. 1a.

³³ For example, the same examples are found in the *Kitāb al-Nāsikh wal-Mansūkh* by Abū Ja'far al-Nahās (d. c. 949) and in the *Kitāb al-Mu'tamad* by Abū 'l-Husayn Muhammad al-Basrī (d. 1044).

the Karaite who claim that abrogation is rationally impossible, a view connected to their position that the commandments are pre-existent and eternal.³⁴ The second group, to which belongs the majority of the Jews, maintains that abrogation is rationally admissible, but that revelation and tradition have informed us that it is not possible. And third, there is a small group which holds that abrogation is admissible both from the point of view of reason and revelation. This categorization parallels almost exactly all-Baqillāni’s (d. 1013) description of the positions of the Rabbanites and the Karaites in his *Kitāb al-Tamhīd*.³⁵ Al-Baqillāni also describes a third group, the followers of Abū ‘Isā al-Isfahānī, who accepted Jesus and Muhammad as true prophets sent to their own peoples, but who did not abrogate the Torah. It is possible that this is the third group referred to by Samuel ben Hofni. Samuel himself, of course, belongs to the second group, but he does not base the rejection of abrogation on biblical verses as did some. Instead he claims that his position is supported by an authentic *tawātūr* tradition (a tradition transmitted by large groups of people in an unbroken chain) from Moses to the effect that the Torah will not be abrogated.³⁶

In the eighth and ninth chapters he disputes with those who would deny the existence or authenticity of such a tradition and claim that the Torah has been indeed abrogated. The debate in these chapters will clearly revolve around the issue of traditions. The tenth chapter thus discusses the nature of traditions and how to determine the veracity of those who transmit them, both by way of intuitive knowledge and by rational proof.

A large part of the ninth chapter has survived and it is of particular interest to us.³⁷ In this chapter Samuel contends with the arguments of Ibn Khallād and his main pupil, Abū ‘Abd Allāh al-Basrī, whom he refers to as “the leading theologians.” Both of these scholars were indeed central figures of

³⁴ This might be compared to al-Qirqisānī who says that this is true of the Ananites and some of the Karaites who maintained the pre-existence of the commandments because of their concern for the Muslim claim of abrogation. There are also, he says, some Karaites who do not hold that all of the commandments were pre-existent, but still maintain that abrogation is impossible. See *Kitāb al-Anwār*, Vol. 2, pp. 440–441.

³⁵ See al-Baqillāni, *Kitāb al-Tamhīd*, ed. R. J. McCarthy, Beirut, 1957, p. 160 who refers only to the Ananites, although many Arabic authors used the term Ananites to include Karaites. On Jews accepting the logical possibility of *naskh*, see H. Lazarus-Yafet, *Intertwined Worlds*, p. 39 n. 56 (where she does not mention what al-Baqillāni says concerning about the difference between Rabbanites and Karaites). On Baqillāni and his polemics against Judaism in *Kitāb al-Tamhīd*, see R. Brunschwig, “L’argumentation d’un théologien musulman du Xe siècle contre le Judaïsme,” in *Homenaje a Millás-Vallcrosa*, Barcelona, 1954, pp. 225–241.

³⁶ T-S Ar. 47.238, f. 2b.

³⁷ This section is preserved in ms. II Firk. Yevr.-Ar. I:3024 which contains the end of the ninth chapter and the beginning of the tenth chapter.

the Basrañ Mu‘tazilite school and both were residents of Baghdad. Since Ibn Khallād died sometime in the middle of the tenth century, it may be assumed that Samuel knew of his positions only from his writings. Samuel ben Hofni does mention that some of the arguments of Abū ‘Abd Allāh al-Basrī (d. 980) he discusses are found in al-Basrī’s book *Kitāb al-Idāh*.³⁸ There are however a number of references that indicate that Samuel and Abū ‘Abd Allāh al-Basrī disputed face to face. For example, in one instance Samuel says: ‘and then after this, Ibn al-Basrī (!) mentioned an issue to me and himself asked me about it even though I do not accept it nor maintain it.’³⁹ The tone of the relationship as reported by Samuel ben Hofni seems to be one of mutual respect, but then we have here only one side of the picture.

Some of the issues discussed can be summarized as follows, without going into the intricacies and subtleties of the *Kalām* argumentation: Samuel tells us that Abū ‘Abd Allāh al-Basrī in his *Kitāb al-Idāh* refuted those who maintain that abrogation is rationally impossible in a manner similar to the approach of Ibn Khallād. Samuel, however did not find it necessary to describe al-Basrī’s arguments since this is not his school of thought and he would in any case refute this position in the same manner. He similarly passes over the arguments against those who use biblical verses to prove the inadmissibility of abrogation. He then comes to the proof based on the tradition that the Torah would not be abrogated. Abū ‘Abd Allāh, he says, was aware of the fact that if he denied our tradition, his argument would turn back on itself, for there is the tradition from Muhammad who said that there would be no prophet after him. For if he claims that the Jewish tradition does not prove that the Torah will not be abrogated, how can he maintain that the Islamic tradition proves that the Qur’ān will not be abrogated? Both traditions have the same epistemological basis.

have misrepresented the basis of your proof? The foundation of this consensus is an individual report (*khabar wāhiid*).⁴⁰ He points out further that the Jews can also claim that they have a consensus that their law will not be abrogated. Al-Basrī then counters that there is no proof that the consensus of the Jews is not actually a consensus on an erroneous interpretation (*ta' wiil*) and perhaps the tradition that the Torah would not be abrogated has been misunderstood.⁴¹ Samuel's response is to ask al-Basrī if he had investigated the Jews in order to know whether or not there is such a proof. And so the discussion continues. I might mention that not only does the discussion continue here in Samuel ben Hofni's *Kitāb Naskh as-Shar'*, but it was also continued on the Muslim side of the debate. There is a manuscript in the British Library which seems to be additions to Ibn Khallād's *Kitāb al-Uṣūl*.⁴² In this manuscript we find a Muslim response to the Jewish response to Ibn Khallād's polemic against the

After dealing with the arguments made by these two theologians whom he respected, Samuel ben Hofni briefly mentions the claims made by a person he describes as someone who buried himself with *Kalām* and argued against him foolishly.⁴³ The arguments of this person are of the sort found more commonly in later Muslim polemics. This person claimed that the Jewish tradition was not trustworthy since Nebuchadnezzar had killed most of the Jews and burned all of the copies of the Torah and furthermore, that the Torah as it exists now was written by Ezra.⁴⁴ Samuel dismisses these claims as fables which this person is trying to foist on to the Jews, but which have no foundation and there is no need to waste words in refuting him. This perhaps

proves that the Qur'an will not be abrogated? Both traditions have the same epistemological basis.

Al-Basīr then sought to define the basis for the Muslims' knowledge that Muhammad's revelation would not be abrogated as being the consensus of the *umma* which has existed since the time of the prophet. Since the prophet has stated that the *umma* will not agree upon error, this must be an authentic consensus. Samuel retorts: "Do you think that the Jews do not know that you

does. (iii) -To examine observed facts (for example that the prophet said something)

41 A consensus (*ijma*) concerning observable facts (or examples) is considered to provide certain knowledge. A consensus concerning the interpretation of a verse or a tradition, however, can be based on lack of understanding and thus be erroneous.

42 The manuscript concerned is BL Or. 8613. This text might possibly be the *ziyādāt* of Yahyā ibn Mu'āwiyah, as suggested by L. Dozy, *Notes sur la littérature arabe*, 1870, p. 112.

b. Husayn. It is described in A. S. Tritton, "Some Mu'tazili Ideas about Keinot. In Particular about Knowledge based on General Report," *BSOAS* 14 (1952), pp. 612-622.

44 The first to mention this type of argument seems to be al-Qirdisānī who accuses the Rabbanites of saying that the Torah of Moses was lost and that the text known today was composed by Ezra. If the Muslims knew of this position, he says, they could denigrate us even more strongly, for there are some among their *mutakallimūn* who already claim that the Torah is not the one revealed to Moses [*Kitāb al-Anwār*, Vol. 1, p. 15; Vol. 2, p. 295 (note that here he says that this is the argument of *ahl al-‘ilm wan-nazar*)]. Ibn Hazm appears to be the first Muslim author to make use of these arguments. On this, see H. Lazarus-Yafeh, *Intertwined Worlds*, pp. 50–74.

gives us a sense of what sort of argumentation was deemed inappropriate in the contemporary *magis al-kalām*.

Both Ibn Khallād and Abū ‘Abd Allāh al-Baṣrī connected the discussion of the abrogation of the Torah with the idea of the inimitable character of the Qur’ān (*i’jāz al-qur’ān*). For the Mu’tazila, the only real basis for the veracity of the Qur’ān was its miraculous and incomparable nature.⁴⁵ The miracles performed by Muḥammad were known for the most part only through individual reports which could not be accepted as an absolutely trustworthy source of knowledge and hence these miracles could not be used to prove the authenticity of Muḥammad’s prophecy. If the Torah of the Jews was to be seen as abrogated, the Muslims had to demonstrate that there was another authentic revelation which did oblige them. Thus *naskh* leads directly to *i’jāz*. Samuel ben Hofni, however, refused to deal with the subject of *i’jāz* and gave two reasons for his refusal. First, he claimed rather disingenuously

and gave two reasons for his refusal. First, he claimed rather disingenuously that he need not treat it because he was not asked about it, but then he mentioned what would seem to be the real reason: it was too dangerous to touch the topic.⁴⁶ We see here that despite the seeming openness of the humanistic intellectual life in Baghdad, Samuel ben Hofni felt the need to be cautious and did not press the boundaries of dialogue too far.

But where Samuel ben Hofni felt faint of heart, Yūsuf al-Baṣīr pushed boldly forward and tackled the issue of *i‘jāz al-qur’ān* directly, evidently taking the attitude that the best defense is a good offense.⁴⁷ His is not a large

⁴⁵ For example, see ‘Abd al-Jabbar, *Kitāb al-Mughnī*, ed. Amīn al-Khūlī, Cairo, 1960, Vol. 16, p. 152, where he records that this was the position of Abū ‘Alī and Abū Hāshim. This position of the Mu‘tazila is also mentioned by Samuel ben Hofni in his work *Ten Questions* (See Sklare, *Samuel ben Hofni Gaon*, p. 256) and by al-Baṣir in the work described below (ms. II Firk. Yevr.-Ar. I:3022, f. 2b). The Mu‘tazilite reticence concerning Muhammad’s miracles actually may have only been for debating purposes, as ‘Abd al-Jabbar points out: لَنْ شُوئَا أَتَشْرِكُ مَعْجَزَةً دِلَانَةً لَكُمْ لَمْ يَجْرِوا إِلَّا سَعَادٌ فِي مَكَانِ الْمَغْفِلَةِ .

reports that Samuel ben Hofni did deal with the issue of *i'fāz* both in his *Nast al-Shar'* and

in his *Kitab Usul al-Din* (of which no fragments have yet been identified). See Moses ibn Ezra, *Kiṭāb ad-Muḥādara wal-Muḥākara*, ed. A. S. Halkin, Jerusalem, 1975, pp. 36–38. In this context, he also mentions that Dāwūd al-Muqammas (in his *'Ishrūn Maqāla*) and Saadya Gaon (in a number of his books) dealt with the topic. He, of course, may have had in mind discussions of *naskh* and quite naturally associated it with *i'jāz al-qur'ān*.

Al-Qirqisānī also addressed the issue of *i‘fāz al-qur’ān* in the section on Islam in his *Kitab al-Anwār* (Nemoy ed., Vol. 2, pp. 298–300), this section presumably being a précis of his lost polemic against Islam. He has three types of arguments against the Qur’ān’s inimitability being a proof for the truth of Muhammad’s prophecy. 1) In every field of endeavour there is always someone who is the most accomplished, and it is possible that Muhammad was indeed the most eloquent of the Arabs. This, however, does not prove that his speech was miraculous. 2) If the Qur’ān was a revelation meant to oblige all of mankind, then its

book and al-Basīr refers to it as merely an outline or summary (*mukhtasar*) of the topic.⁴⁸ The beginning of the book, however, is still missing and we cannot give it a name. Even a direct attribution to Yūsuf al-Basīr is absent in the manuscripts of this work. There are some indications, however, which point to al-Basīr as the author. When discussing the issue of the veracity of Moses' miracles, the author says that he has already treated the topic in another book which he has dictated (*amlā'nāhu*) in which he clarified his position that these miracles are known as intuitive knowledge ('ilm *darūrī*).⁴⁹ Al-Basīr is one of the few Jewish authors known to have dictated his works, presumably due to his blindness.⁵⁰ Furthermore, this is quite likely a reference to al-Basīr's ⁵¹

book, *Kitab al-Isrā*, in which this topic was discussed. Al-Basīr's authorship, though, can be demonstrated by means of another book, an anonymous Karaite polemic against the Samaritans.⁵² This anonymous book contains what appear to be paraphrases from the work under discussion which are quite clearly attributed to al-Basīr.⁵³ In this polemic

proof cannot be based on the eloquence of its Arabic language which will be a meaningful proof only to Arabs. 3) He attacks the idea that the Arabs were not capable of producing an imitation of the Qur’ān in a fashion similar to that of al-Basīr as described below. Even though al-Basīr does not mention al-Qirqisānī as a predecessor of his in polemics, the similarities between al-Basīr’s book and the very short summary found in *Kitāb al-Anwār* [al-Anwār] form a common pool of arguments.

suggest that they may have been drawing from a common pool of arguments. Jewish reactions to the idea of the miraculous nature of the Qur’ān, mostly on a literary level, have been collected by J. Sadan, “Identity and Inimitability: Contexts of Inter-Religious Polemics and Solidarity in Medieval Spain in the Light of Two Passages by Moses ibn Ezra and Ya‘aqov Ben El‘azar,” *Israel Oriental Studies* 14 (1994), p. 328, n. 12.

48 As it is possible to reconstruct almost the entire book from two large manuscripts (II Firk. Yevr.-Ar. I:2980 and I:3022), one can estimate that a complete manuscript of the work filled 32–34 folios. The book is referred to as a *mukhtaṣar* at the end of the introduction (see the quote in n. 18 above) and on one other occasion.

⁵⁰ A common way of presenting the results of a regression analysis is to report the estimated coefficients and their standard errors. Your calculator does not have the ability to calculate standard errors.

⁵² Two large fragments from the same manuscript of this work are bound in in fol. 1 rev. Arab. I:1681 and BL 1098 (Or. 2523). While the identity of the author is still far from clear there are some indications that it may have been written by al-Basir's student, Yeshu'ah b. Ya'acob. I choose to treat this work in another forum.

against the Samaritans, we also see another interesting example of the caution some Jews exercised when writing about Islam. When the author touches on something Islamic (as in the quote from al-Basir concerning the Qur'an), he uses a mixture of Hebrew and Arabic, a writing style which presumably would be opaque to Muslims. The possibility that Muslims might read his book evidently did not bother al-Basir, perhaps because he knew that some of them had already heard his arguments in person. It can also be shown that his book was written in Arabic characters at some point in the manuscript transmission and perhaps it was originally written in this way.⁵⁴ It was not at all unusual for Karaites of the eleventh and twelfth centuries to copy books in Arabic characters, but in the instance of al-Basir's book, doing so increased the possibility that it would be read by Muslims, perhaps bringing unwanted consequences.⁵⁵ In any case, the fragments found so far represent at least five

different manuscripts indicating that the Jews did find it to be a useful work.

In the beginning of his book, al-Basir defines two major topics of dispute between the Muslims and the Jews. The first is that of traditions. The Jews see their traditions as being *tawâtur* traditions which provide direct or intuitive knowledge (*‘ilm darînî*), for example, of miracles performed for Moses. Muslims claim on the other hand that these things are known by traditions stemming from Muhammad who himself performed miracles to substantiate his prophecy. However, since the Mu‘tazilites considered the traditions concerning Muhammad’s miracles to be weak and did not themselves use them in debate, al-Basir did not feel the need to deal with this topic. He did, however, have recourse to these issues in another response to Muslim polemics, a work entitled *Kitâb al-Isrâ‘âma*, which was a refutation of Abû Ja‘far al-Tabârî, presumably the famous ninth-century exegete and historian.⁵⁶

The clearest proof of the use of Arabic script is the Hebrew phrase לְבָנָן בַּרְאָה which appears

The criticism of the authenticity of the biblical traditions which relate the miracles performed for Moses and discussed the epistemological status of traditions. The second area of dispute is that of abrogation. And since the Muslims claim that the Qur’ān is the compelling proof for abrogation, al-Baṣīr made it his goal to disprove the proof for the miraculous nature of the Qur’ān. He proceeds to present in some detail the Muslim demonstration that the Qur’ān is inimitable which can be summarized as follows: Muhammad challenged the pagan Arabs and invited them to attempt to imitate the Qur’ān. This challenge is found in certain verses of challenge, the *āyāt at-tahaddī*. However, even though to have produced an imitation (*mu‘āradā*) would have released them from being subjugated to him and would have shown that he was no better than they were and would have certainly been easier than fighting against him, the Arab pagans chose to fight. This demonstrates that the Arab pagans who were the most talented of people in elegant speech could not produce a text of the quality of the Qur’ān, even though they had good incentives to do so. The style of the Qur’ān must therefore be beyond human capabilities and verifies the prophecy of Muhammad.⁵⁷

people evidently found Arabic script easier to read and some preferred Hebrew character manuscripts. On this phenomenon, see G. Khan, “On the Question of Script in Medieval Karaite Manuscripts: New Evidence from the Genizah,” *Bulletin of the John Rylands University Library of Manchester* 75 no. 3 (1993), pp. 133–141. Copying biblical manuscripts in Arabic script seems to have had some ideological background. See H. Ben-Shammai, “Hebrew in Arabic Script — Qirqisani’s View,” in S. R. Brunswick, ed., *Studies in Judaica, Karaitica and Islamica Presented to L. Nemoy*, Ramat Gan, 1982, pp. 115–126; G. Khan, “The Medieval Karaite Transcription of Hebrew into Arabic Script,” *Israel Oriental Studies*

Karaite Manuscripts: New Evidence from the Genizah," *Bulletin of the John Rylands University Library of Manchester* 75 no. 3 (1993), pp. 133–141. Copying biblical manuscripts in Arabic script seems to have had some ideological background. See H. Ben-Shammai, "Hebrew in Arabic Script—Oirqisani's View," in S. R. Brunswick, ed., *Studies in Judaica, Karaïtika and Islamica Presented to L. Nemoy*, Ramat Gan, 1982, pp. 115–126; G. Khan, "The Medieval Karaite Transcription of Hebrew into Arabic Script," *Israel Oriental Studies*

12 (1992), pp. 157–176; and ibid., *Karaite Bible Manuscripts from the Cairo Genizah*, Cambridge, 1990.

56 This book was also known as *an-Naqd 'ala Abi Ja'far at-Tabarī*. On this work, see Sklare,

55 Karaites not only copied Arabic texts in both Hebrew and Arabic characters, but also transcribed the Hebrew text of the Bible into Arabic characters. The choice of script to be used for Arabic texts seems to have been up to the purchaser of the manuscript. Some

Al-Basîr stresses that this is the proof as he heard it orally and not as he found it in books and that he has presented it at length lest anyone claim that he has left something out.⁵⁸ There are, however, some elements commonly found in Muslim discussions of *i‘jâz* which are missing from al-Basîr’s description and which by their nature would not be strong arguments in a polemical setting. This lack helps confirm that this is indeed how the demonstration of the inimitability of the Qur’ân was presented in a polemical *majlis*. In internal Muslim discussions of *i‘jâz*, the concept of *sarfa* (“turning away”) is often included.⁵⁹ This is the idea that the true miracle of the Qur’ân was that even though the pagan Arabs may have been capable of producing a *mu‘ârûda*, God prevented them from doing so. The idea of *sarfa*, perhaps first suggested by al-Nazzâm (d. 846), was introduced because of the weaknesses of an argument based solely on the lack of imitation.⁶⁰ Clearly, however, the claim that God prevented the pagan Arabs from imitating the Qur’ân was not going to carry much weight in a polemic with Christians or Jews. On the other hand, al-Basîr’s Muslim contemporaries, al-Bâqillâni and Abû al-Jabbâr rejected the idea of *sarfa* as a proof of the Qur’ân’s inimitability.⁶¹ Muslim disputants influenced by them might have left it out of their repertory of arguments. In general, it should be pointed out that the vocabulary, style of argumentation and content of the debate in al-Basîr’s book are very similar to those in al-Bâqillâni’s *I‘jâz al-Qur’ân* and the sixteenth volume of ‘Abd al-Jabbâr’s *Kitâb al-Mughnî* which is devoted to *i‘jâz*. This similarity demonstrates that they all came from the same intellectual and polemical environment.

was that the literary style of the Qur’ān was aesthetically incomparable. For example, al-Bāqillānī and ‘Abd al-Jabbar devoted much of their discussion of *i‘jāz* to a treatment of the Qur’ān’s literary qualities. Scholars analyzed the Qur’ān’s stylistic tropes and compared its language with epitomes of Arabic poetry. This type of investigation strongly affected the development of Arabic literary theory. In the polemical setting, however, this type of argument was also not particularly useful. Christians and Jews could easily point out that this is a rather subjective argument and is actually rather particular to the Arabs.⁶³ Indeed, only learned scholars of Arabic language can truly appreciate the excellence of Qur’ānic language and non-Arabic speakers would not be aware of its transcendental nature at all. So while the issue of the Qur’ān’s miraculous style is central to the Muslim argument as presented by al-Basīr, analysis of its literary style is missing both from the Muslim argument and from al-Basīr’s critique. Indeed, he states that he is not an Arabic stylist and is not competent to judge such matters. He was even strongly criticized in a *majlis* for his lack of eloquence.⁶⁴

Al-Basīr’s goal was not to refute the Qur’ān’s inimitability entirely, but simply to weaken the cogency of the Muslim argument so that it would not be convincing. If he could raise sufficient doubts about the main elements of the Muslim’s proof, his purpose would be accomplished. His response is structured as follows: He points out that there are three points at which the

structured as follows. ¹¹ First there is the question as to whether argument for *i‘jāz* can be attacked. First there is the question as to whether the challenge to the pagan Arabs actually took place or not. Related to this is the issue of when the challenge was issued, before or after Muhammad had defeated his opponents militarily. Even if they could do so, defeated adversaries might not be so quick to anger their new ruler by imitating him.

If we were to accept, however, that there was challenge, the second point to be questioned is the claim that a *muṣārada* was not produced. Al-Baṣīr breaks this issue down into two sub-topics. The first is that there were imitations of the sort produced by counter-prophets such as Musaylamah, Tulayḥah and al-Aswad or by Nadr ibn al-Hārith who opposed Muhammad and sought to challenge him by the quality of his stories. The second sub-topic to be questioned is the Muslim claim that if a *muṣārada* had been

57 II Firk. Yevr.-Ar. I:3022, ff. 4a-5b.

58 arguments which he had heard, he then supplements his description with points taken from ^c Abd al-

⁵⁵⁹ Jabbar's *Kitab al-Muhit bit-Taklif*. G. E. von Grunebaum, "['djaz'" in *The Encyclopaedia of Islam*, 2nd ed., Vol. 3, pp. 1019a; Abdul Aleem, "['Ijazat' / 'our'an'" *Islamic Culture* 7 (1933), pp. 222-223.

61 Al-Bāqillānī, *I‘jāz al-Qur’ān*, Cairo, 1930, pp. 33–34; ‘Abd al-Jabbār, *Kitāb al-Mugnī*

vol. 16, D. 322:

⁶² G. E. von Grunebaum, *A Tenth-Century Document of Arabic Literary Theory and Criticism* (1956), pp. 10, p. 222.

Chicago, 1950, p. xvii; A. Aleem, op. cit., p. 223-224.

63 As did Qirqisani, see *Kitab al-Anwar*, vol. 2, p. 220.

64 For example, in one place he says: קְדוּמָה בְּעֵינֵיכֶם אֲלֹת לְאַגְוִת (II Firk. Yevr.-A. 1:2980, f. 17b). His own eloquence was criticized as follows: קְדוּמָה בְּעֵינֵיכֶם אֲלֹת לְאַגְוִת כִּי תְּלִבְתֶּן אֶלְמָרְקָד וְלֹא תְּלִבְתֶּן אֶלְמָרְקָד (I Firk. Yevr.-A. 1:2980, f. 17b).

produced, it would have been transmitted as the Qur'an was transmitted. The lack of such transmission indicates that it never existed. If we were to accept, however, that no imitation was produced, the third point to be attacked is the Muslim argument that no *mu'ârafa* was produced because it was beyond human capabilities to do so. Perhaps there were other reasons why there was no imitation such as fear.

From this short description, it is clear that the book does not contain al-Basir's personal opinions concerning the Qur'an and Islam.⁶⁵ It does not contain any attacks on Islam or criticism of the Qur'an per se. In fact, in one place he has a rather positive description of Muhammad as the person who brought monotheistic faith to the Arabs. But, as pointed out above, the book is an attempt to call into question the logical consistency of the proof that the Qur'an is superhumanly incomparable. His general approach is to examine traditions and to apply a historical analysis. This may be illustrated by a few examples.

The Muslims initially claimed that the challenge to produce an imitation of the Qur’ān is known in an direct or intuitive fashion (*‘ilm darūrī*) by way of a *mutawātir* tradition in the same way that we know that Muhammad appeared in Mecca claiming to be a prophet. Al-Basir points out that by claiming intuitive knowledge of this, the Muslims thus preclude any discussion of the matter for it is then not a matter of proof. However, he continues, it is possible to separate between the existence of Muhammad and the reality of the challenge. The only real source for the challenge actually would be the few verses of the Qur’ān such as Sura 2:23-24 or 17:90 which indicate that a challenge to imitate the Qur’ān was indeed made. Here we find one of the several remnants of the actual face-to-face debate to be found in his book

Al-Basir reports a discussion in which he said to his adversary that even if he had his opponent's great faith in the Qur'an, he probably would not know the existence of the challenge from the few verses which mention it. His opponent was baffled by this and was at a loss for a reply.⁶⁶

תברא (ב': א'': א'ב'ב'א'ת' כ'ב'ב'א') פקלה לה לא עשרה אכריד מ-ן אשר באכיד צבאה לברא העשומה פרי אלפפום פשען (ב' 17) f 29980-2022).

⁶⁵ The attitudes of early Karaite towards Islam have been discussed by H. Ben-Shammai, "The Attitudes of Some Early Karaites Towards Islam," in *Studies in Medieval Jewish*

לidak נאצ'ה בצעדים פאראן פֵי דילן אונג, אלתהי חעל אל עלם אליזורי פקלה לה אונעלם דילן פֵי שכך

Al-Basîr raises the possibility that these verses were not said at all by Muhammad. His opponent responded to this suggestion by saying that we know that the Qur’ân originated with Muhammad in the same way that we know that an author’s book is his, giving as examples, interestingly enough, Abû Hâshim’s *al-Jâmi’ al-Kabîr* and Saadya Gaon’s *Kitâb al-Amânat*.⁶⁷ But al-Basîr continues and points out that the Qur’ân and authored books are not comparable in this way. An author’s book is organized by him from the beginning with chapters and any addition or detraction would be noticeable. This was not true of the Qur’ân.

At this point he does something quite interesting. He retells the story of the canonical collection of the Qur'ān made by the third caliph, ‘Uthmān; how he sent to ‘Umar's daughter, Hafṣa, for the leaves which had been collected by ‘Umar and how the material was authenticated by a group of experts.⁶⁸ (His version is somewhat different from the tradition usually cited. He has only three experts involved: ‘Alī, ‘Abd Allāh ibn Māsūd who is usually not listed and Zayd ibn Thābit.) He tells this story to emphasize that the Qur'ān as it is in our hands today is not exactly the text as pronounced by Muhammad, but rather to a certain extent the creation of ‘Uthmān. “We really don't know,” he says, “what ‘Uthmān did with the material he collected.” Furthermore, the Shī‘ites maintain that there was Qur'ānic material relating to ‘Alī which ‘Uthmān removed. They even assert that additions were possibly made to the Qur'ān.⁶⁹ It is therefore reasonable to suggest that the challenge verses (*āyāt at-tahdī*) were added by ‘Uthmān in order to increase the eminence and glory of the Qur'ān, although not to provide a proof for its authenticity as that was already well-rooted in the souls of the Muslims. In concluding

אלכלאים גיבונו וברנום לאניהם ליטו מסחרלון נסאלבם בצהה ר' לא נעהדרם בעתראי, למומה אלגאנטבּוּ (ה- 3022, ס' 1, ערך טויב, ט-ט' יייר).

ונענשנו בראם כנרכך, כי לא תני לנו אמן נציר לנו ורשות לנו כון לברך ג', ורשות לנו אמְנָה נציר לנו ורשות לנו כון לברך ג', ורשות לנו אמְנָה נציר לנו ורשות לנו כון לברך ג'.

לעומת דילמה אורטוגו סולני (1912) מציין את הימנאי כמי שבודד ג'ז מונטג'ו וט. ל. רוס, ומכיר במאמריו של אנטון צ'רניאק על מלחמת העצמאות האוקראינית. אך לא ידוע אם הוא אכן פגש אותו. אנטון צ'רניאק היה מלחין ומלחין מלחמות העצמאות האוקראינית ולבסוף נפטר ב-1938.

עומקם או דר' א' אלונס', מטאוברכיה לתל אלונס'ה (III FIRK. Yevr.-Ar. I:3022, f. 10a).

68 Part of this argument can be found in the second quotation in n. 53 above. An analysis of the various traditions of this story may be found in J. Burton, *The Collection of the Qur'ān*, pp. 138–159.

69 Such claims were evidently not widespread among Shi'ites of the tenth century, but they were commonly attributed to the Shi'ites by Mu'tazilite authors. On this, see H. Modarressi, "Early Debates on the Integrity of the Qur'ān," *Studia Islamica* 77 (1993), pp. 5–39. Note also E. Kohlberg, "Some Notes on the Imāmite Attitude to the Qur'ān," in *Islamic Philosophy and the Classical Tradition. Essays Presented by His Friends and Pupils to Richard Walzer on His Seventieth Birthday*, S.M. Stern, A. Hourani and V. Brown, eds., Oxford, 1972, pp. 209–224; and Meir Bar-Asher, "Variant Readings and Additions of the Imāmi Šāfi'i to the

this line of reasoning, al-Basîr points out again that he does not have to prove that these verses were actually added by ‘Uthmân. All he has to do is to raise reasonable doubts about their authenticity. This argument is quite similar to the Muslim polemical claim that the Jews had altered the text of the Torah, adding and removing verses from Moses’ original revelation (*tâhrîf*).⁷⁰ It is tempting to speculate that al-Basîr particularly enjoyed giving back to the Muslims what they had dished out.

He further raises doubts about the challenge to imitate the Qur'ān by pointing out that we don't know the circumstances of when it was made. If it was made after Muhammad's military successes, then it is understandable that no one answered the challenge, cowed as they probably were by the force of arms. The Muslims answered that it is possible to know which suras were revealed in Mecca and which in Medina and to show that the *āyāt at-tahdī* were revealed in Mecca, before Muhammad had defeated his enemies. Al-Basīr responded that is unreasonable to expect that the proof for the authenticity of the Qur'ān should be dependent on such arcane knowledge held only by experts of *hadīth*, particularly when you are trying to convince

Jews who cannot be expected to know such things.
Furthermore, he says we don't know if the challenge was issued to the lowly types who surrounded Muhammad in Medina who could not be expected to produce any sort literary elegance or to men of stature such as the Quraysh. The suggestion that the people who were attracted to hear Muhammad were only a common rabble must have touched a sensitive spot as al-Basir reports here that this argument really made his opponent in the *majlis* angry.⁷¹ He then proceeds with a historical reconstruction of Muhammad's career in order to show that there was really no instance when a challenge could have been

Quran," *Israel Oriental Studies* XIII (1993), pp. 39–74. I thank Prof. A. Udovitch and Prof.

⁷⁰ A good recent treatment of the topic of *tahrif* can be found in H. Lazarus-Yafeh, *Intertwined* (1997), pp. 1-17, 10-29.

issued with the reasonable expectation that those hearing it would have attempted an imitation.

Another example of his style of argumentation is how he treats the Muslim claim that no *muṣārada* was actually produced. He expresses amazement at their claim that they have immediate knowledge (*ilm darūri*) that there was no such imitation. They say that this like the widespread knowledge that between here and Baghdad, there is no city larger than Baghdad. (This by the way might show that the book was not written in Baghdad.) What follows is a rather convoluted discussion of the possibility of knowing positively the lack of something. Al-Basīr's conclusion is that there can be no simple immediate or intuitive negative knowledge of something which does not exist, but only knowledge of the absence of something based on positive knowledge. For example, we know that there are not six prayers because we know that Muhammad only made it obligatory to have five prayers. Or we know that there is no city greater than Baghdad between here and Baghdad because witnesses have reported to us about the cities and towns in between. We cannot know, however, that no imitation of the Qur'ān was produced. Many more examples could be given, but I think that those presented here are sufficient to impart some sense of what al-Basīr sought to accomplish, the nature of his argumentation and the quality of the discourse which took place in the *majālis* he attended.⁷²

Such a text raises the question of the extent of al-Basîr's knowledge of Islam and the Qur'ân.⁷³ In this book, he actually quotes only a few Qur'ânic verses. In addition to the *âyât at-tahaddî*, he also quotes verse 17:88 and Sura 109, *al-Kâfîrûn*. The nature of debate, however, did not demand extensive use of the Qur'ân and it is difficult to judge the extent of his Qur'ânic knowledge from this book alone. In addition, he was apparently familiar with the *Sîra* (presumably in the version of Muhammad ibn Ishâq) and al-Wâqîdî's *Kitâb al-Maghâzî*.⁷⁴ From the description of his *Kitâb al-Îsti'âna* as a

Yevr.-Ar. I:3022, ff. 15a-16a with corrections from I:2980.

⁷² It is of interest to note that some of al-Basîr's arguments against the Qur'ân are similar to those put forth by the Muslim free-thinker Abû 'Isâ al-Warrâq who was active in the first part of the ninth century. Al-Basîr may have been familiar with al-Warrâq's works which still circulated in the tenth century or these arguments may have been part of the general pool of debating points used in the polemical *majâlis*. On al-Warrâq's refutations of the Qur'ân, see David Thomas, *Anti-Christian Polemic in Early Islam: Abû 'Isâ al-Warrâq's "Against the Trinity"*, Cambridge, 1992, p. 28.

73 Jewish knowledge of the Qur'ān has been summarized by H. Lazarus-Yafeh, *Intertwined Worlds*, Appendix, pp. 143–160. One can add to the sources brought there the author of the anonymous work published by J. Mann, "An Early Theologico-Polemical Work," *HUCA* 12–13 (1937–1938), pp. 411–459.

74 Al-Whāridī's book is mentioned in H. H. Yevr., "Ar. I:3022, f. [3a]. Al-Bashir's utilization of *Against the Trinity*," *Cambridge*, 1992, p. 20.

refutation of Abū Ja‘far al-Tabarī, it would seem that he would have had a familiarity with the works of this scholar, perhaps both his *tafsīr* and his history. On the other hand, he may merely have responded to sections of al-Tabarī’s works which were brought to his attention. In general, there is the question of whether someone like al-Basir actually sat down and read Muslim literature or whether he depended upon the information gleaned from attendance in the *majālis al-kalām*. Al-Qirqisānī tells us that some of his knowledge of the sayings of the scholars came from books and some was gained from what he heard in *majālis* or was reported to him by others who had been in attendance.⁷⁵ It is quite likely that these polemical debates served not only as a jousting arena, but also as a means for Jews to learn something about Islam and *vice versa*.

Were the arguments found in the books of Samuel ben Hofni and Yūsuf al-Basir ever actually used in a *majlis* debate? The question arises particularly in relationship to the work of al-Basir in which he attempts to undermine the foundations of a major element of Muslim belief. For example, it is a bit difficult for us to imagine that Muslims sat and listened with equanimity while al-Basir suggested that not all of the verses of the Qur’ān were pronounced by Muhammad. On the other hand, both of these books preserve traces of live encounters between the authors and Muslim interlocutors. While it is true that works of this period are frequently written in a dialogue style (“He maintained . . . and I would then respond . . .”) which could sometimes be mistaken for a re-written and edited record of a live debate, the bits of dialogue found in these books go beyond the barebone give-and-take normally found. Al-Basir reports, for example, that his opponent was baffled and confused by a particular argument or became angry at another and Samuel ben Hofni says that Abū ‘Abd Allāh al-Basir asked him a specific question.⁷⁶ Furthermore, al-Basir says quite clearly in his introduction that he himself was overcome by doubts by the Muslims’ proofs, but that he garnered his strength and realized how to respond, presumably using the arguments which he presents in his book. It would seem, therefore, that the cultural climate in Baghdad, at least among certain groups of intellectuals, was indeed tolerant

enough to allow the sort of exchange indicated by the books discussed here. It may also be presumed that other Jews made use of these books to prepare themselves for polemical encounters, either in formal debates or in casual discussions. We have also seen above that the elegant logic of the Muslims’ arguments in these disputation with Muslims deeply affected many Jews, some to the extent that they converted to Islam. Jews who found themselves confused and their faith weakened surely found these works useful in their struggle with Muslim claims and in restoring their confidence in their own tradition. Books of the type discussed here thus had a dual function, being directed both outward and inward.

A final point to be noted is the similarity between the Jewish-Islamic polemic as seen in these two books by Samuel ben Hofni Gaon and Yūsuf al-Basir and the Karaite-Rabbinate polemic of the same period, a debate which to a significant extent was conducted by these same individuals.⁷⁷ The underlying question for both polemics was how do we know about revelation, Scripture and traditions and what is their epistemological value? For both, Mu‘tazilite *Kalām* or *Kalām*-influenced legal theory (*usūl al-fiqh*) provided the conceptual framework for the discussion and the technical vocabulary. In summary, we have seen how the polemical *majlis* created the need for Jews to compose books responding to and refuting Islamic claims. On the one hand, the absorption of *Kalām* theology and discourse by some Jewish intellectuals made them more susceptible to the elegant sophistry of the Muslim *mutakallimūn*. On the other hand, however, it provided them with the tools and techniques to respond. Samuel ben Hofni and Yūsuf al-Basir rose to the challenge of the *majlis* and by their reports, succeeded in disputing with the Muslims. It is reasonable to believe that our knowledge of the dynamics of the interchange between Jews and Muslims in this cultural context will deepen as we further explore the manuscript resources.

⁷⁵ *Kitāb al-Anwār*, Vol. 1, p. 5.

⁷⁶ See the quotes in notes 39, 64, 66, and 71 above. These works also do not have the style of the fictional debates of the sort discussed by Sidney Griffith in his contribution to this volume. Our works are more or less systematic presentations of their topics into which intrude residues of their origins in actual disputations.

⁷⁷ The Karaite-Rabbinate polemics of the period still need to be reconstructed and described in detail. For now, see Sklare, *Samuel ben Hofni Gaon*.