The concept of revelation in Islam, from the book of traditions of al-Bukhârî

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Abstract

The present article deals with the notion of revelation in Islam through the study of one of the sources of Islamic dogma: the Sunna or “tradition”, a corpus constituted of hadiths (accounts about the Prophet Muhammad or his companions). It investigates what information is provided about the Qur’ân in one of the most canonical collections of hadiths: the Sahîh (“authentic”) gathered by Abû ‘Abdullâh al-Bukhârî (d. 256 h./870 CE). The first part shows that a substantial portion of the text was used to support and reinforce the status of the Qur’ânic text, and the authority which proceeds from it. The second part analyzes the other important component of the speech about the Qur’ân, the speech about the Qur’ânic readings (tawâhid) and about the bodily movements, postures, and conditions that accompany it. This research has shown the conceptualization of the relationship of the believer towards the Qur’ân as it is put forth by the collection of hadiths of al-Bukhârî: the concept of an external relationship towards the performance of Qur’ânic recitation.

Key Words

Islam, hadith, Sunna, Qur’ân (Koran/Quran), Islamic dogma, tradition, Bukhârî, authority, recitation, rituals, beliefs, religious practice, interreligious dialogue.

The dialogue between religions constitutes a vital issue today, and this includes the dialogue that deals with the dogmas enunciated by these religions. The creation of the Foundation for Intereigious and Intercultural Research and Dialogue, initiated by eminent representatives of the three main monotheist religions, is a prominent sign of this. The support granted by this Foundation to the development of mutual knowledge among religions is fundamental, because it places this knowledge within the framework of scholarly knowledge, that is, within the framework of scientific and critical knowledge which aims at being independent and neutral. It refuses to serve religious edification or, on the contrary, the “destruction” of religions. It seeks to support an objective knowledge of religious dogmas and facts. Thus, such knowledge is designed to improve the mutual understanding of religions as well as the conceptualization and comprehension of religions by the states, governments, administrations, companies, institutions, groups, or persons of whatever religious affiliation.

The present article comes out a long research conducted within the framework of the fellowship provided by this Foundation. It thus lies within a framework that seeks to establish objective knowledge about religions. It deals with the notion of “revelation”. Indeed, the notions of “revelation” as well as those of “Scripture” or “revealed Scripture” are central notions in Judaism, Christianity, and Islam. Their concepts are specific: for instance, generally speaking, according to Judaism the Torah was “revealed” to Moses as the action of Adonai towards His chosen people; according to Christianity the person of Jesus Christ is the “revelation” of the love of God the Father towards all humans; and according to Islam the Qur’ânic Scripture was directly “revealed” by God and recited by Muhammad, the Seal of the Prophets. Whatever their particular concepts might be, each of the three main monotheism has the concept of “revelation” as a central aspect of the definition of its own faith. Therefore, a dialogue which seeks genuine beyond general considerations should not be initiated without considering developing a mutual knowledge concerning the different concepts of “revelation” and “Scripture.” A discussion of such concepts cannot be achieved, I believe, without a study of the funding texts, in their own original language, with suitable linguistic tools, and situated within the historical and cultural context where they appeared and developed.

Let us focus on the notion of “revelation” in Islam. A first philological analysis led me to observe that there was no term that expressly encompassed this notion in Arabic, and that this notion was for the most part inadequately translated in Western-European languages by the word “revelation.” “Revelation” in the English language as well as in similar Western idioms refers to the “unveiling of something which is hidden.” In a civilization imprinted by Christianity – and of
course in relation to Judaism – the term means “unveiling of the identity of God, leading humans to realize or discover who He is and what He does, that is, His love towards all mankind.” Now, in the Arabic language, in the Qur'anic text as well as in the Islamic literature and tradition which goes along with it, the terms generally translated later on by the word “revelation” do not exactly carry this meaning. The term wahy means, among other things, “inspiration,” and was used within a religious framework to name the mode of mysterious communication, by which God transmitted His divine Word to Muhammad. Whereas the term tanzzil literally means “the fact of having something come down, of making something come down,”9 and refers as well to the mode of transmission of the divine Word to Muhammad, defining the fact that God is “higher” than mankind, that is, “transcendent.” The concept of “revelation” in Islam is thus different from the one in Christianity and from the one in Judaism. Nevertheless, the Islamic concept of revelation is meant, from the beginning and from the Qur'anic text itself, to be following upon the Christian and Jewish concepts of “revelation.” It indeed possesses their main feature: the dimension of transcendence, of divinity. The notion of “revelation” in Islam, just as in Judaism and Christianity, is understood as the communication of something which originates in the divinity; however, each religion understands this in its own specific way.

Thus, using this brief example, one can see that this notion does not refer to the same concept in each of the three dogmas, but that it nevertheless implies a shared common definition. It is essential to understand this nuance: the same notion refers to three distinct concepts, but these three concepts have some features in common. Thus, the use of these concepts requires a certain caution, because to try to understand them is more delicate than to try to understand concepts which have nothing in common. One has to make clear what they have in common and what is different in the same notion. The present article will try to contribute to this by providing more information about the notion of revelation in Islam through the study of one of the sources of Islamic dogma: the Sunna or “tradition.”

The “Sunna”

By “tradition” (in Arabic Sunna) is meant here something more specific than the common use of the word “tradition” in English, which has a broad meaning including all kinds of culturally transmitted items. The Sunna-tradition refers to transmitted short accounts of what the prophet Muhammad said, or did – or did not say in a particular circumstance – or what his companions said, did, or did not say. Each unit account is termed “a hadith,” but this word also designates the whole of the knowledge emanating from a number of hadiths. This latter meaning generally somehow equates with the term of “Sunna,” as the knowledge about the “tradition” or “way of doing” of Muhammad, which has to be imitated by the believers and the community. The “ways of doing” of the companions of Muhammad are also presented as an example. For Shi‘i Muslims, the hadiths also include the “ways of doing” of the Imams (who are the religious leaders descending from the family of the prophet via his daughter Fāṭima, wife of ‘Ali).

Each single hadith is normally composed of two parts: the first is a chain of transmitters indicating the names of who is said to have heard the hadith from whom, back to Muhammad, or one of his companions (or an Imam), and the second part is an account of what happened, or what was said (by Muhammad, his companions, or an Imam). The chain of transmitters is called insād, and the main account is called mathnī. Nevertheless, some hadiths do not have an insād, whereas some insāds are quoted without mentioning the full mathnī if similar to an adjacent hadith in a collection. The hadiths were gathered during the classical period of Islam by scholars called the muhaddithin (sing. muhaddith). Six collections of hadiths have been considered by the Sunni Muslim milieu as valuable: those of al-Bukhārī (d. 256/870), Muslim (d. 261/875), Ibn Māja (d. 273/886), Abū Dawūd (d. 275/888), al-Tirmidhī (d. 279/892), and al-Nasā‘ī (d. 303/915). The most highly recognized are the first two, called “authentic, true” Šābīḥ – the two of them referred to as “the Ṣaḥḥāyīn.” To these six books can be added the collection of a predecessor: the Ma‘watta’ of Imam Mālik (d. 179/795), and other collections such as the Musnad of Ibn Hanbal (d. 241/855). Shi‘i Muslims do not rely on these collections but have their own. Only a portion of the hadiths are common to both Sunna and Shi‘i collections.

Because the Sunni collections of hadiths exposed what Muhammad and his companions had done or said, and that these deeds and words were considered as a model, the “six collections” are thus representative of what was supposed to be the duty, or what was supposed to be believed, in the Sunna milieu of the ninth century. They provide a testimony of the predominant religious vision in Sunni Islam some two and half centuries after the death of Muhammad.

I have chosen to conduct my research using the collection gathered by Abū ‘Abdullāh al-Bukhārī (the Šābīḥ of al-Bukhārī). Along with the Šābīḥ of Muslim, it is the collection which has received the highest degree of canonicity. Nevertheless, a researcher recently showed that the two Šābīḥ were not immediately canonized, and were even quite criticized in the beginning.4

Methodology of this research

One question was important to address before starting my research: What was the relationship between the accounts (mathnī) provided by each hadith of the collection and the historical truth? Indeed, it is well known that frames (scaffolding) of hadiths took shape at around period of...
in Mecca, it is well known that jARGONY (inaccurate) or nauinis took place at several periods of Islamic history, especially during the Umayyad and Abbasid periods. This was identified by Muslim scholars during the classical period of Islam, and they tried to organize ways of guaranteeing the validity of hadith through both a “science of hadith” (‘ilm al-hadīth) and a “science of the transmitters” (‘ilm al-aghādīth), checking, for instance, whether two transmitters of an isnād could actually have met. Contemporary scholars also tried to investigate the reliability of hadith by questioning the validity of transmissions and went a step further than ancient Muslim scholars by critically addressing the construction of isnāds as a claim for their authenticity: quotable in this regard are the pioneer works of Ignaz Goldzweig and Joseph Schacht, and those of more recent scholars such as Gautier H.A. Jaynoll, John Burton, Harald Motzkü, Asma Hâlak, Lahcen Darsî, or Nicolet Bockhoff-Van der Voort.

For each hadith I studied in the Sahih of al-Bukhârî, there were two possibilities:

- either the hadith was “authentic,” in the sense that it had transmitted faithfully an event which had really occurred; a word, an action, or an attitude of Muhammad, or of one of his followers;

- or this hadith was “false,” in the sense that what it transmitted did not actually happen, and that this hadith was invented at a later period.

In this latter case, the maat al is no longer about what Muhammad did or said, but rather about what some people found worthy of expressing and transmitting during a period which took place at some point in time after the beginnings of Islam and possibly until al-Bukhârî’s time. These people thus transmitted it by investing this material with religious authoritative — or they may even have transmitted it without any idea of investing it with a religious authority, and their text may have received such authority later on.

The position of scientific research is to suppose that a collection of hadiths such as the one of al-Bukhârî includes both these types of hadiths, and that each hadith can possibly have been modified or altered during its transmission. It maintains that it is impossible to state precisely if such or such a hadith is close to what historically happened or not.

Nevertheless I believe that an analysis of the content of the text of hadiths can be done while putting these issues to one side, and only taking them into consideration when analyzing the results. Regardless of these questions, my current study deals at the very least with what was important for the mawaddith (ancient hadith scholar) al-Bukhârî to transmit to his contemporary believers.

The research I conducted deals with the question: What is the information provided in the collection of hadiths of al-Bukhârî about the Qur’ân? In a previous work, I had shown what information was provided about the Qur’ân in the qu’ânic text itself, that is, I had analyzed the “self-referential speech” of the Qur’ân. The present article is about exploring how this self-referential speech and the dogmas it generated in the Islamic faith are seen in the hadith texts: Do these latter continue the qu’ânic speech or bring new specificities about the definition of the Qur’ân?

Let me emphasize at this juncture that this article does not deal with the issue of the global effective link between the Qur’ân and the Sahih of al-Bukhârî. The study of such a link would consist of how the information provided about all the possible topics dealt with by the qu’ânic text — from the story of Muhammad to religious dogmas — appears or does not in the hadiths and how; whereas in this article the focus is only on one particular topic: the description of the Qur’ân.

In the Sahih of al-Bukhârî, speech about the Qur’ân is scattered in different chapters, and is expressed in both explicit and implicit ways. The Sahih is divided into 97 chapters about very eclectic topics, which reflect the divisions of the sub-disciplines of Islamic law. Each chapter lists a number of entries, whose title usually provides the juridical application or the dogmatic concept which is supported in it. Following each entry are a number of hadith units which are related more or less to the entry topic — and more or less to the chapter topic — and next to these hadiths appears a commentary here and there, some qu’ânic verses, and some information which looks like a maat without isnâd. The same hadith appears in several chapters and entries, either in an identical shape or in a variant shape (same story or same idea transmitted, but with different details in the maat and/or different isnâd). Most probably al-Bukhârî tried to obtain as many deductions as possible out of a single hadith, and thus he classified it in as many entries as possible; when doing so, he usually gave only one or few versions of this hadith in one entry, and put the other versions in other places.

Several chapters have titles explicitly relating to the Qur’ân. The one which provides the most explicit discourse on the Qur’ân is Chapter B66, entitled Faddâl al-qu’ûn, namely, the “excellent qualities of the Qur’ân.” It is located in the middle of the collection, after the chapter on qu’ânic commentary. It deals with miscellaneous aspects of the Qur’ân, from the mode of the revelation of the first verses to Muhammad, to the powers given to the performance of recitation of such and such a surah. Chapter B96, the penultimate chapter, concerns the fact of “relying on the Scripture of God (i.e., the Qur’ân) and the Sunna” (al-tishâm bi-l-kitâb wa-l-sunnâ). It reminds the reader of the precedence of the Qur’ân, but even more so the precedence of Sunna and then describes later elements such as the role of the Islamic jurist...
Nevertheless, the information about the Qur’ān does not appear only in the chapters I just mentioned but are everywhere in the collection. What is more, some tafsirs are not followed by related elements; thus it was necessary to research not only the chapters I mentioned above but the whole corpus — although I excluded from my scope of inquiry the tafsir chapter, as I estimated this would require a specific study unto itself.

To the best of my knowledge, a study of this question has not been done before. The great hadith scholar G. Juyubillah dealt partially with the definition of revelation by the hadith texts; but in so far as the Sāhīh of Bukhārī is concerned, his study seems limited to the chapters Bī’l al-wahy and Fadā’il il-Qur’ān, and he only briefly mentions the tafsir chapter. Rather, his main concern is the analysis of the transmission of each hadith, whereas my work focuses on the contents of the hadiths (mainly) and not on the chains of transmitters.

Summary of the results

Before starting this work, I had supposed that, contrary to what is the case in the Qur’ānic text, hadith texts would deal only (as far as the Qur’ān is concerned) with prescribing “how to behave towards the Qur’ān,” especially towards the Qur’ān as a material object, for instance, describing the rules of purity to respect when handling the book of the Qur’ān. But my work on speech about the Qur’ān in the hadith collection of al-Bukhārī has enabled me to grasp that such was not the case. Indeed, on the one hand, the text presents notions about the status of the Qur’ān, that al-Bukhārī — or the other people involved in the origin and transmission of these hadiths — had about it, or wanted the reader to have about it. On the other hand, the text deals with the performance of reading-recitation-psalmody of the Qur’ān, and all the obligations which go along with this.

The first part of my study showed that a substantial part of the text was used to support and reinforce the status of the Qur’ānic text, and the authority which proceeds from it.

This concerns first, of course, the definition of what the Qur’ānic text is, that is, what are its delimitations, its origin, and its mode of transmission. Nevertheless, in many hadiths these elements are implied and not directly expressed. As in the Qur’ānic text, parts of these elements restate the divine origin of the Qur’ān and its status as sacred scripture — though in a more unostentatious way than in the Qur’ānic text. Other parts of these elements mention the history of the Qur’ān and its modes of transmission, both during the period of Muhammad’s life and after his death.

Second, speech concerning the role of the Qur’ān completes the Qur’ānic speech on the same topic. Compared to what happens in the latter, the role is described in the hadith text as a role of guidance: the Qur’ān guides the believers. But this role is presented here as its role as a source of political and judicial authority — although only very few hadiths deal with this matter. The idea that the role of the Qur’ān includes granting the possibility to Muhammad of being exempt from certain habitual practices is also expressed but very rarely. Another idea is that the Sunna also starts to play a part in the role of guidance, and not just the Qur’ān itself.

The third point concerns a speech on the “excellent qualities” (fadā’il) of the Qur’ān. These “qualities” are not directly expressed in the Qur’ānic text; nevertheless, it develops speech about the superiority of the Qur’ān to the other sacred scriptures and to any human word. In the collection of hadiths of al-Bukhārī, the “excellent qualities” of the Qur’ānic text are directly expressed and are intertwined with the “excellent qualities” which appear through — or proceed from — the performing of the reading-recitation-psalmody of this text. The believer who performs it deserves the credit for it, and, at the same time, his performing of it is described as being able to generate certain powers (healing powers, notably) and, at the very least, as being of special importance.

The second part of my study analyzed the other important component of the speech about the Qur’ān which is displayed in the hadiths collected by al-Bukhārī: a speech about the Qur’ānic reading-recitation-psalmody. Through my research I became aware that it is necessary to describe this performance by these three words (reading, reciting, and psalmody) in order to understand what is exactly meant by what is usually termed “recitation.” First, this speech presents the modes of this “recitation,” and the modes of the process of learning it by heart. Second, it provides details about the circumstances, under which such a “recitation” has to be performed. I noted the specific place for what is called jālīr (“ritual prayer”), and the presence of the
“recitation” at the heart of many everyday rituals. Third, the speech of hadith deals with the bodily movements and postures, as well as the practical conditions necessary for the performance of the “recitation.” This latter dimension is the one which takes up the most space in speech about the Qur’an that one can find in the collection of al-Bukhari.

Thus, the results of my inquiry are as follows. Speech about the Qur’an in the collection of hadiths of al-Bukhari is composed of:

1) a confirmation of the positive status given to the Qur’an — in continuity with speech which is developed in the qur’anic text; and

2) the institution or confirmation of practice accompanying the performance of the reading-reciting-psalmody, and the institution or confirmation of the performance of this reading-reciting-psalmody itself.

1) Confirmation of the positive status given to the Qur’an

The hadiths of the Sahih of al-Bukhari developed a positive discourse on the Qur’an by confirming its authoritative status as proceeding from its divine origin — as does the positive discourse put forth in the qur’anic text. Some hadiths even extend this speech to the period after the death of the prophet. Nevertheless this affirmation of the authority of the Qur’an is not as strong or as developed as it is in the qur’anic text. It does not represent the main part of the speech conveyed by the hadiths. Indeed, the idea that the Qur’an is what God has transmitted to Muhammad, and that Muhammad has transmitted this without alteration, seems to be an idea already known and believed among the community of people producing or receiving this collection of hadiths — even though one can feel the expression of a need for a reaffirmation of this idea.

What is more, beyond the reaffirmation of the dogma of qur’anic authoritative status, the hadiths also provide stories of characters (Muhammad and his companions) with whom the believer is called upon to become acquainted, and towards whom he is pressed to feel confidence and familiarity. The acquaintance with or even intimacy with the character of Muhammad reinforces his status — that of an authentic prophet — and therefore, reinforces the idea that the Qur’an is of divine origin.

2) Institution or confirmation of practice around the performance of the reading-reciting-psalmody

The hadith sets up — or confirms — the practice of reading-reciting-psalmody and all the other practices which accompany its performance, notably, the ritual of salat, and by means of everyday circumstances. My research led me to some observations:

2a) The reading-reciting-psalmody and the practices around it appear as a mode, a dealing with the power of the Qur’an, that is, a mode of human reaction or human response when face-to-face with a sacred power (the power of the Qur’an). After all, the speech on the “recitation,” and the way it has to be performed, makes explicit how the authoritative status of the Qur’an has to be “dealt with” by the believers. In other words, it states what has to be done when faced with the strong affirmation about the authoritative status of the qur’anic text: What does this affirmation entail for those who subscribe to it? In this regard, performing the reading-reciting-psalmody means demonstrating the acknowledgement and faith that one has in this authoritative status. It also demonstrates how conciliatory and submissive the believer is towards the source of power. This source of power is seen as supernatural: It is considered to be God, as the author of the Qur’an. Thus, to deal with this source of power appears to be difficult for the human believer, because he cannot master it. His only possible response is to seek ways to express his submission in order to reduce the arbitrariness of potential punishment by the source of power.

2b) Showing acknowledgment of the authoritative status of the Qur’an has consequences for the believer: This generates an even greater certainty about this authoritative status. By integrating practices linked to the reading-reciting-psalmody in his daily life — as is strongly suggested by the hadith text — in a repetitive way and without neglecting any aspect of his life, the believer tends to believe even more in this status. Furthermore, these practices have a social dimension: When all the believers practice together all these rituals around the “recitation,” then they persuade one another of the veracity of the authoritative status of the Qur’an and of the necessity of performing such rituals. Their belief in this authoritative status is reinforced by practice.

2c) Finally, what should be noted is that the hadith text strongly implies that the relationship between the believer and the Qur’an has to be “external.” By “external” I mean here that what is seen to be of primary importance is not the relationship of the believer with the heart of the text, its contents, and its meanings. Rather, what is important appears here to be the relationship of the believer to, on the one hand, the status of the text (through rituals he reminds himself constantly of the authoritative status of the Qur’an) and with, on the other hand, the oral shape of the text: its pronunciation, its sounds, the physical feeling of the bodily movements that accompany the “recitation,” and the obligations surrounding this. The attention of the believer does not need to focus on the text but rather on its recitation and what accompanies this performance.
This very point is related to the ambivalence I noticed in the use of the word qur’an. Qur’an means “recitation” and designates both the qur’ānic text and the performance of its reading-recitation-psalmody, and I have pointed out that, in the hadith texts, most of the time it designates this performance. The Qur’an is seen first as the performance of its text, rather than the text itself and its meanings. Furthermore, and more precisely, what seems more important in the performance of reciting the Qur’an is not even this recitation but what surrounds it and accompanies it (bodily movements, postures, conditions for performing it). Of course, the contents of the Qur’an have an importance; however, it appears that according to the hadith texts, this is far less important than its status and its oral shape, and these are even far less important than the way the believer has to deal with them every day.

Thus, the hadiths collected and presented by al-Bukhrāḥi go in the same direction as the qur’ānic text. According to both, what prevails is the status of the Qur’an and not its contents⁴⁵. But whereas in the qur’ānic text this status is viewed abstractly, in the hadith texts it is viewed from the standpoint of “what one has to do” when being aware of this status. In the hadith texts, the believer’s submission towards the Qur’an is manifested through an everyday repetition of movements and words – not by an abstractive debate on its status.

There is a slight drawback that I should mention here. The “speech on the Qur’an” in the hadith collection of al-Bukhrāḥi is not restricted to the two aspects I have dealt with. In the collection of al-Bukhrāḥi, information is also gathered about the interpretation of the qur’ānic text and about rules for this interpretation, mainly in the chapter called ṭafsīr (“exegesis, commentary”) (B65). I did not research this chapter, as it deserves a study unto itself but would like to do so soon to determine how the rules of interpretation are understood through specific traditions, that is, according to what has been transmitted from the interpretation of early scholars. Thus, while an important part of the hadiths deals with the affirmation of the authoritative status of the Qur’an, another part seeks paradoxically at providing a framework (i.e., limits) for its interpretation. Even when the authority of the Qur’an is put forth, its interpretation is henceforth bound by the limits, criteria, and guidance canonical hadith texts impose. This argues again in favor of a concern for the claim of the status of the Qur’an, rather than for the study of its text.

The core conclusion of my work is that the relationship of the believer towards the Qur’an is here one of external performance. The believer is called upon to perform recitations within the framework of definite rituals such as salāt, together with definite bodily movements in definite time periods. These rituals and the movements, postures, and time conditions are what have to be done; thus they are considered as the most important thing for the believer. The collection of hadiths of al-Bukhrāḥi – and the earlier hadiths it includes – are designed in order to prompt the believer towards an external concept of the recitation of the Qur’an. The believer has to put all his effort into performing the exact bodily movements that accompany this reading-recitation-psalmody and into respecting its imposed conditions. And putting all one’s effort into a performance leads to the thinking that this performance is of extremely great importance. The ʿṢabil does not teach the believer – in so far as what concerns the Qur’an – to put all his effort into understanding the divine message. On the contrary, it teaches the believer to put all his effort into a technical practice which accompanies the recitation (and to a lesser extent to the technical pronunciation of the text). Thus, the believer is lead to see the importance of these technical performances (postures, bodily movements, conditions, pronunciation), and this what constitutes, taken as a whole, his relationship towards the Qur’an.

In reinforcement of these conclusions, I observed that there are some, rather few, hadiths which concern the “application” of the Qur’an. What is meant here by “application” is rather “to pay attention when the Qur’an is recited” or “to perform the recitation with sincerity.” According to Ibn ʿAbbas, in the verse “When We recite it, then, follow its recitation!”⁷⁷ “follow its recitation” means, act according to it (iʿmal bihi)⁴⁸. But in another hadith about the same qur’ānic passage, again according to Ibn ʿAbbas, this means “listen to it and pay great attention to it” (isāmī lahu wa-naṣīt)⁹⁹. The same appears in a hadith which comprises different types of people to different sorts of fruits according to their different types of beliefs and practice of recitation⁴⁹. In one of its versions, it is said that the best type of people are the believers who recite the Qur’an and act according to it” [or: apply it] (ya ʿmal bihi)⁴⁸, as opposed to the believers who do not recite it, and a fortiori to the ”hypoctics” who recite and to the “hypoctics” who do not recite. The last phrase “the Qur’an does not mean to believe in the dogma and in the contents of the qur’ānic text” – as this is what any believer would do – but rather “to apply the Qur’an” means in this case to perform the recitation sincerely. The performance of a sincere recitation is better than belief alone. In other words, according to this hadith, “to apply the Qur’an” or “acting according to the Qur’an” means to recite with sincere intention and not “to apply the principles of the Qur’an in one’s everyday life”. (Let me specify here that this does not means that to apply the principles of the Qur’an is not considered a good thing!) But what is to be noted here is that once more the relationship of the believer towards the Qur’an is a relationship towards its recitation, before it could possibly be a relationship towards the meaning of its contents.

This research has enabled me to show the conceptualization of the relationship of the believer towards the Qur’an as is put forth by the collection of hadiths of al-Bukhrāḥi the concept of an external relationship. The collection seems to have been designed in order to be influential in three ways: via establishing proximity and familiarity with the life of Muhammad as presented, via positive speech about the status of the Qur’an, and via the institution or description of practices such as recitation and what accompanies its performance.
But is it the Sahih of al-Bukhari which effectively, and historically, influenced Muslim practice (and the Muslim vision of the relationship of the believer towards the Qur'an) – or was this practice an already ongoing practice (and the vision of the relationship towards the Qur'an already spread) when the Sahih was composed? This question remains open to discussion. I suppose, however, that the answer would be doubly positive: these practices could possibly have already been ongoing at that time and would have been then reinforced by their description and “officialization” in the Sahih. The same goes for the vision of the relationship towards the Qur'an.

Indeed, the collection of hadiths of al-Bukhari, together with the one of Muslim, strongly influenced generations and generations of Sunni jurists. The concept of “qur'anic revelation” that it sets forth participates highly in the construction of Islamic belief.

One can note here a connection with traditional ways of dealing with the Qur'an, for instance, in qur'anic schools in West Africa in more recent time periods. The Qur'an is learned by heart through the practice of reading-recitation without concern for the meaning when the student is at an early age; it is only when older that the student reaches the stage of knowledge where qur’anic commentaries are introduced. Furthermore, the relationship towards the Qur'an is implemented in practices related to the body, as, for instance, the act of licking or drinking the ink which has been used to write the qur’anic text on the tablet in order to erase it and symbolically to absorb it². The external relationship to the text – even though here in a highly physical dimension – seems to preponderate here as well.

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1 Semantically, the term can also mean, for instance, a written letter. Cf. Boisliveau, Le Coran par lui-même, p. 137-145.
2 Boisliveau, Le Coran par lui-même, p. 131-137.
3 First date in Hegirian calendar, second in Common/Christian Era calendar.
5 Goldziher, Muhammediische Studien, vol. 2, 1890.
12 For instance, Bookhoff-Van Der Voort, e.a. (ed.), The Transmission and Dynamics of the Textual Sources of Islam, 2011.
14 My way of quoting the Sahih is by the letter “B” for “Bukhārī,” followed by the chapter number and the entry number, followed by the 4-digit general hadith number.
16 What is more, a significant part of the contents of the qur’ānic text is itself the affirmation of its status. Cf. Boisliveau, “Le Coran par lui-même”.
17 Q. 75: 18. In this verse, the word for revelation is qur’ān.
18 B. 65, (surah 75), 2 (القُرآن) (القُرآن) (القُرآن).
20 B. 366, (Surah 92), 1 (لا يَأْتِيَ النَّاسَ عَلَى مَا كَانَ مِنْ ذِي الْقُرْآنِ). مَيْلًا، وَحُرُوبًا (لا يَأْتِيَ النَّاسَ عَلَى مَا كَانَ مِنْ ذِي الْقُرْآنِ).
21 Particularly B. 66, 17 (القُرآن) (القُرآن).
22 B. 56, 36 (القُرآن).
23 Cf. the verse 75: 18 above. 34. And the same is true at least in part of the development of the qur’ānic text itself as the affirmation of its status. The letter “B” comes from the word “Bukhārī,” which is a common way of referring to the Sahih of Muhammad ibn Isma’il al-Bukhārī, a key figure in the early transmission of hadith. The number 65 refers to the chapter number of this particular hadith, and 2 refers to the specific hadith within that chapter. This particular hadith is part of a collection that forms the basis of the Qur’an itself, as it was traditionally considered essential for understanding the teachings of Islam.