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SAHL AL-TUSTARĪ, ABŪ MUḤAMMAD B. 'ABD ALLĀH b. Yūnus b. 'Īsā b. 'Abd Allāh b. Rafī'c, an influential Şūfī of mediaeval Islam, was probably born in 203/818 in Tustar, Khūzistān, and died in 283/896 in Baṣra. The essential course of his life can be reconstructed on the basis of fragmentary hagiographical accounts, included in the Şūfī primary sources, and incidental references of Islamic historical

Until a short time after his pilgrimage to Mecca in 219/834, al-Tustarī received his basic education from his maternal uncle Muhammad b. Sawwar (who transmitted hadīth on the authority of Sufyān al-Thawrī [q.v.]) and Ḥamza al-CAbbādānī, an obscure spiritual instructor residing at the ribāţ of Abbādān [q.v.], where al-Tustarī had a vision of God's supreme name (ism Allah al-a'zam) written in the sky with green light from east to west (al-Tustarī, Tafsīr, 17, 24; Anşārī, Tabaķāt, 116). Al-Tustarī met his Şūfī forebear <u>Dh</u>u 'l-Nūn al-Miṣrī [q, v] at least once in his life, but it is not certain whether he became his direct disciple. After spending some twenty-odd years in his hometown, engaged in austere practices, especially fasting, al-Tustarī emerged with a teaching of his own about the time of Dhu 'l-Nun al-Mişrī's death in 245/860 and gathered a group of disciples around himself. Prominent among his disciples were Abū 'Abd Allāh Muḥammad b. Aḥmad b. Sālim al-Baṣrī (d. 297/909), said to have served al-Tustarī for sixty years, and al-Halladj [q.v.] who stayed with him for about two years. About the time when the $Zan\underline{dj}[q.v.]$ occupied Tustar for a short time in 263/877, al-Tustarī was summoned from Tustar to the camp of the Şaffārids to cure their ailing leader, Yackūb b. al-Layth [q.v.] (cf. Abū Nu^caym, Hilya, x, 210), who had been wounded in his defeat by the caliphal regent al-Muwaffak at Dayr al-'Akūl [q.v.] in 262/876. Expelled from his home town for political or doctrinal reasons (al-Sarrādj, Lumac, 407, cf. Arberry, Pages, 9), al-Tustarī took up residence in Başra early in 263/877, though another strand of source evidence would suggest that he had settled there as early as 258/871 when the Zandj sacked the town (al-Makkī, Kūt al-kulūb, iii, 104). In Başra, al-Tustarī was welcomed by Abū Dāwūd al-Sidjistānī (d. 275/889 [q.v.]) but, because of his claim to be "the proof of (hudidiat Allāh), became involved in religious

controversy with Abū Yahyā Zakariyyā al-Sādjī (d. 307/909) and Abū 'Abd Allāh al-Zubayrī (d. 317/929), two leading Shāfi'ī scholars of the city (al-Sha'rānī, Tabaķāt, i, 67).

Shortly after his death in Başra, al-Tustarī's direct disciples split into two groups (cf. Böwering, Mystical vision, 75-99). One group selected Baghdad as the centre of activity, either joining the Sufi circle of al-Djunayd [q.v.], as did Abū Muḥammad al-Djurayrī (d. 312/924) and Abu 'l-Hasan 'Alī b. Muḥammad al-Muzayyin al-Tirmidhī (d. 328/939), or associating with the Hanbalis in the Muhawwal quarter of Baghdād, as did Abū Muḥammad al-Barbahārī (d. 329/941 [q.v.]) and two crucial transmitters of al-Tustarī's teachings, Abū Bakr Muḥammad b. al-Ash'ath al-Sidjzī and Abu 'l-Ḥasan 'Umar b. Wāṣil al-'Anbarī (d. 312/924). The other group of al-Tustarī's disciples stayed on in Başra and found acceptance among the local Mālikīs. It formed the nucleus of a theological school, known as the Sālimiyya, that was organised by Abu 'l-Ḥasan Aḥmad b. Muḥammad b. Aḥmad b. Sālim al-Başrī (d. 356/967), who is frequently confused in the sources with his father, al-Tustarī's life-long associate. The most famous exponent of the Sālimiyya, however, was Abū Ṭālib al-Makkī (d. 386/996 [q.v.]) who, in his Kūt al-kulūb, frequently cites Abu 'l-Hasan Aḥmad b. Muḥammad b. Sālim as "our shaykh" and al-Tustarī as "our imām". The Sālimiyya, who also adopted ideas propagated by Abū Hulmān al-Fārisī al-Dimashķī (d. ca. 340/951), became the target of a lost refutation (ar-Radd cala Ibn Salim) written by the Shāficī (or Zāhirī) Ibn al-Khafīf (d. 371/981). Possibly on the basis of this refutation, a list of eighteen objectionable propositions was drawn up in Hanbalī circles by Ibn al-Farra (d. 458/1065 [q.v.]) in his Muctamad (217-21), of which 'Abd al-Kādir al-Dilānī [q.v.] copied and rejected twelve propositions in his Ghunya (i, 106-7). The last major exponents of the Ṣālimiyya were Abū 'Alī al-Ḥasan b. 'Alī al-Ahwāzī (d. 446/1055; cf. al-Dhahabī, Siyar, xviii, 13-8), Abū Shakur Muhammad b. 'Abd al-Sayyid al-Sālimī (d. shortly after 470/1077; see GAL, I, 419; S I, 744) and Abū 'Abd Allāh Muḥammad b. Yaḥyā al-Zabīdī (d. 555/1160; cf. al-Dhahabī, Siyar, xx, 316-9).

Beginning with Ibn al-Nadīm's Fihrist, 186, quite a number of treatises have been ascribed to al-Tustarī in Islamic bibliography. All of these appear to be lost under their titles, but two works attributed to al-Tustarī are extant. They are a Kur'ān commentary, Kitāb Fahm al-Kur'ān (published as Tafsīr al-Kur'ān alkarīm, Cairo 1326/1908 and 1329/1911), and a collection of al-Tustari's sayings in three parts with the commentary of Abu 'l-Kasim 'Abd al-Rahman al-Sikillī (d. ca. 386/996), preserved in the collective ms. Köprülü 727 (one part of which, al-Mu^cāraḍa wa 'lradd, was published by M.K. Gaafer, Cairo 1980). Many fragments of al-Tustari's commentary on Ķur anic verses are cited in Sulamī's Ḥaķā iķ al-tafsīr, which is accessible only in manuscript (for a table of references and the parallel citations in Rūzbihān al-Baklī's 'Arā'is al-bayān, see G. Böwering, Mystical vision, 113-24). Al-Tustarī's extant works are not his own writings, but were compiled by his followers who based themselves on the core of his teachings. The other tracts attributed to al-Tustarī (see GAS, i, 647) are marginal or spurious (for an annotated list of Tustarī's works, see Böwering, op. cit., 11-18, and add Tafsīr al-Kur³ān, ms. Azhar, Riwāķ al-atrāk 7, and the excerpts included in ms. Zāhiriyya 9595, fols. 35-43). The two works attributed to al-Tustarī and the considerable body of anecdotes and sayings quoted on

his authority in the Şūfī primary sources give a fragmentary yet substantive picture of al-Tustarī's

mystical theory and practice.

The central idea of al-Tustari's mysticism is the Şūfī recollection of God ($\underline{dh}ikr[q.v.]$), which he put on a firm theoretical basis. All his life he observed the method of recollecting God by repeating a mental prayer, "God is my witness" (Allāhu shāhidī, cf. al-Kushayrī, Risāla, 83) and understanding it as his daily sustenance (kūt). He interpreted it experientially as the break-through to God, who effects His own recollection within the mystic's heart (dhikr Allah bi'llāh: al-dhikr bi 'l madhkūr, cf. al-Tustarī, Tafsīr al-Kur'ān, 25-6, 80). Anchoring dhikr in the selfrevelation of God at the primordial covenant in preexistence (a-lastu bi-rabbikum, Kur³ān, VII, 172), al-Tustarī understood <u>dh</u>ikr as anamnesis. The mystic rediscovers the primaeval moment before God in the inmost recesses of his soul (sirr al-nafs) when he listens to Pharaoh's blasphemous proclamation of his own lordship, "I am your Lord Most High" (anā rabbukum al-a'lā, LXXIX, 24). Listening to God, the true speaker of the Kur an, the mystic ironically perceives the actual essence of belief flowing from the tongue of unbelief and remembers in his experience the moment when God, in pre-existence, affirmed His oneness and lordship before all humanity. There is only one who can truly say, "I am" (anā), God, giving expression to the secret of divine lordship (sirr al-rubūbiyya) captured by the mystic in the experience of dhikr (cf. Böwering, Mystical vision, 187-207). Al-Tustarī's practical Şūfī ideal was incessant repentance (al-tawba farīda 'alā 'l-'abd ma'a kulli nafas, al-Sarrādi, Luma', 407, cf. Arberry, Pages, 9) and complete trust in God (tawakkul) which he understood as handing oneself over to God like the corpse in the hands of the undertaker (al-Kushayrī, Risāla, 368).

Al-Tustari's thought is deeply intertwined with Kur anic exegesis. He proposed a pattern of Kur an interpretation that theoretically distinguished four meanings for each verse, literal (zāhir), allegorical (bāṭin), moral (ḥadd) and anagogical (maṭla^c, muṭṭala^c). In fact, however, he consistently employed only two levels of meaning, a literal and an allegorical sense, combining zāhir and hadd as opposed to bātin and matlac. In his theology, al-Tustari understood God under the symbol of light $(n\bar{u}r)$ on the background of the light verse (ayat al-nur, XXIV, 35) and chose the phrase of "the light of Muhammad" (nur Muhammad) to designate the primal man and prototypical mystic, apparently in vague association with logos speculations and Shīcī terminology. In interpretation of II, 30, and LIII, 13-18, he conceived of Muhammad as the column of light (camud al-nur) standing in primordial adoration of God, the crystal which draws the divine light upon itself, absorbs it in its core (kalb Muhammad) and projects it unto humanity in the

In his psychology, al-Tustarī played on the double-entendre of nafas (breath; life-breath) and nafs (soul, self), and perceived the human soul as the theatre of a struggle between two antagonistic tendencies, that of the God-centred orientation of the human heart (kalb), his spiritual self (nafs al-nāh), and that of the self-centred inclination of the carnal soul (al-nafs al-ammāra bi 'l-sū'), his natural self (nafs al-ṭab's). Interpreting Kur'an, XXXIX, 42, al-Tustarī traced the two selves to the notion of tawaffī (God's taking the souls unto Himself in death, sleep and mystic ascent) and understood each of them as a subtle substance (laṭī), one luminous, the other coarse. Al-Tustarī's notion of faith (īmān) did not only include profession

with the tongue (kawl), conformity of action ('amal) and intention (niyya) but also the light of certitude (nūr al-yakīn), by which the mystic is enabled to anticipate God's final self-revelation (tadjallī) experienced in the beatific vision. Al-Tustarī found the basis for his idea of tadjallī in Kur'ān, XLIII, 70-2, a reference to the people of paradise, rather than in the Kur'ānic reference to Moses, who was unable to bear the sight of God's revelation (VII, 143).

There are only fragmentary source texts illuminating al-Tustarī's resolution of the central problem of Muslim theology concerning the interrelation between divine omnipotence and human responsibility. Al-Tustari's thought attempts to achieve a conjunction of opposites and foreshadows Ash arī themes. However, these themes may have been introduced into his Tafsīr al-Kur'ān by his disciples in the aftermath of al-Ash arī [q.v.]. God creates both good and evil and possesses two kinds of will, volition (mashī³a) and an express will (irāda). Since human action is caused by the divine agency, God has to possess divine foreknowledge ('ilm Allāh al-sābik) of it prior to its occurrence. God's providence (tadbīr), made explicit in His command (amr) and interdiction (nahv). runs parallel to God's guidance (hidaya), made explicit in His help (ma una, also termed wilāya) and protection (cisma). When man performs an action in conformity with the divine Command and Interdiction, he is granted the divine succour of God's ma'una, i.e. divinely given success (tawfik). Should he commit an action in opposition to the divine Command and Interdiction, man places himself outside the divine custody and is deserted by God, who withdraws His cisma and forsakes man (khidhlān [q.v.]). It is man's duty to turn to God with thanksgiving when he performs a good deed (hasana) and to seek God's succour through repentance when he commits an evil deed (sayyi'a). Whether man conforms to or opposes the divine Command and Interdiction, in each case the action comes from God although it is executed through man and by man (minhu bihim wa-lahum, see Böwering, Mystical vision, 175-84).

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AL-SAHM (A.) "arrow". For the use of arrows in archery, see KAWS.

1. In science.

a. Geometrical term. If one erects a perpendicular c b in the middle of a chord of an arc, which reaches to the arc, this is called al-sahm, the versed sine (al-djayb al-ma($k\bar{u}s$) of the arc a b; the sine (al-djayb al-mustawi), which corresponds to our sine, is a c (see—in