MEDIEVAL THEORETICAL PRINCIPLES OF MEDICINE IN IBN SĪNĀ'S AL-QĀNŪN FĪ AL-ŢIBB AND AL-DHAHABĪ'S AL-ŢIBB AL-NABAWĪ

Muhammad Fawwaz Muhammad Yusoff*, Nur Izah Ab Razak**

 *Faculty of Quranic and Sunnah Studies. Islamic Science University of Malaysia. 71800. Bandar Baru Nilai. Negeri Sembilan. Malaysia.
 **Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences. Universiti

Putra Malaysia. 43400. UPM Serdang. Selangor. Malaysia.

Email: *fawwaz@usim.edu.my

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Abstract

The Galenic account of medicine by Ibn Sīnā (d. 427AH/1037CE) was remarkably significant for natural philosophy and religious thought in the medieval Islamic world. Just as one might split philosophy in the Islamic world into eras before and after Avicenna, so one could periodise medical history into the time before and after Ibn Sīnā's glorious al-Qānūn fī al-Tibb (Canon of Medicine). This article compares the medical theory in *al-Qānūn* fī al-Tibb and al-Dhahabī's (d. 748/1348) al-Tibb al-Nabawī to determine if the medieval al-Tibb al-Nabawī genre was influenced by the post-Avicennian tradition. To assess this theoretical impact on the writing in the prophetic medicine genre, the article first analyses the introductory part of both writings, as well as the subsequent developments in *al-Tibb al-*Nabawī writings. This will form a comparative view of the medieval anatomical and philosophical positions. Given that traditional prophetic medicine is the focus of the *al-Tibb al-Nabawī* genre, the article turns to the question of medical theory, did al-Dhahabī really observe this topic? What role does

medical *hadīth* play in determining how Muslims should approach classical theories of medicine? By comparing these two works, one can see that al-Dhahabī's *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī* developed in interaction with and extension of the *al-Qānūn fī al-Ţibb*, as well as an attempt to bring forth a new form of medicine, that would integrate Ibn Sīnā's medical theory with Prophetic *hadīth*.

Keywords: *al-Tibb al-Nabawī*; medical *hadīth*; theories of medicine; al-Dhahabī; Ibn Sīnā; *al-Qānūn fī al-Ţibb*; *Canon of Medicine*.

Khulasah

Keterangan perubatan Galen oleh Ibn Sīnā (m. 427H/1037M) mempunyai sumbangan vang signifikan terhadap falsafah tabii dan pemikiran keagamaan sewaktu Zaman Pertengahan dunia Islam. Jika seseorang boleh memisahkan falsafah dunia Islam kepada era sebelum dan era selepas Ibn Sīnā, zaman sejarah perubatan turut boleh dibahagikan kepada sebelum dan selepas penghasilan buku Ibn Sīnā vang terkenal bertajuk al-Oānūn fī al-Tibb (Kanun Perubatan). Dengan perbandingan terhadap teori perubatan yang terkandung di antara al-Qānūn fī al-Tibb serta al-Tibb al-Nabawī karangan al-Dhahabī (m. 748/1348), penulisan ini meneliti pengaruh pasca-tradisi Avicennian ke atas genre al-Tibb al-Nabawī di Zaman Pertengahan. Terdahulu sekali, makalah ini menganalisis bahagian pengantar keduadua karya bagi menilai impak teori Ibn Sinā terhadap penulisan genre perubatan Nabi serta perkembangan seterusnya dalam tulisan al-Tibb al-Nabawī. Perkara ini akan membentuk perbandingan kedudukan sudut pandang anatomi dan falsafah Zaman Pertengahan. Memandangkan tradisi perubatan Nabi adalah merupakan tumpuan genre *al-Tibb* al-Nabawī, makalah ini akan beralih kepada persoalan teori perubatan iaitu sejauh mana al-Dhahabī benar-benar menuruti topik ini? Apakah peranan yang dimainkan oleh hadis perubatan dalam menentukan pendekatan

Muslim berhubung teori-teori perubatan klasik? Menerusi perbandingan kedua-dua karya ini, seseorang dapat melihat *al-Ţibb Al-Nabawī* oleh al-Dhahabī berkembang melalui interaksi serta lanjutan daripada *al-Qānūn fī al-Ţibb*, dan percubaan untuk menghasilkan suatu bentuk perubatan baharu yang menggabungkan teori perubatan Ibn Sīnā dan hadis Nabawī.

Kata kunci: *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī*; hadis perubatan; teori perubatan; al-Dhahabī; Ibn Sīnā; *al-Qānūn fī al-Ţibb; Kanun Perubatan*.

Introduction

When we ponder the bond between Prophetic medicine and the social practice of medicine, we tend to think first of the transmission from the prophet into $had\bar{t}h$ literatures in the early centuries of Islam and to forget that there was also transmission in the other direction. Partly as a result of this, this field has received little scholarly attention, be it in the form of straightforward narration through the generations or of the social practice used as sources in the writing of the prophetic medicine genre.

Those *hadīth* scholars who continued to use medical *hadīth* as their literary medium did not live in isolation from their increasingly Graeco-Arabic medical surroundings, and those authors writing in the prophetic medicine genre were clearly influenced by the scientific developments taking place under Islam.¹ Indeed, borrowings from Graeco-Arabic medicine may have increased with the advancement of the sciences in Islamic civilisation and such borrowings may have been quite common by the time we reach the fourth/tenth and fifth/eleventh centuries, the so-called 'border' between the early and middle periods for the genre.

¹ Mahmūd Nazīm al-Nasīmī, al-Ţibb al-Nabawī wa 'Ilm al-Hadīth (Beirut: Mu'assasah al-Risālah, 1996), 7.

In the earliest writings in this prophetic medicine genre, the *raison d'être* appears to have been a reaction to the *tark al-tadāwī* (rejection of medication) or antimedical views present in the Muslim community.² Some religious scholars claimed that a person who resorted to medication acted against the Qur'ānic injunction: "In God let the believers put all their trust."³ Other scholars refuted these arguments by referring to abundant *hadīth* material attesting the Prophet's approval of medicine. One of the most explicit sayings is: "Servants of God, use medicaments! God did not give an illness without giving it a cure."⁴

It is possible that the earliest prophetic medicine literature was produced specifically with the intention to oppose such anti-medical views. Abundant recorded sayings demonstrated that the Prophet had not only commanded Muslims to be medicated but also that he himself had received medical treatment. Throughout their history, most of the Muslim community believed medication to be the Sunna of the Prophet and rejected the idea that medical care signified a deficiency in belief.⁵

Some previous studies on Muslim medicine have dealt concisely with Prophetic medicine and the accustomed motivations for its composition. Ullman says that Islamic orthodoxy wanted thereby to challenge the

² Irmeli Perho, "Medicine and the Qur'ān", in *Encyclopaedia of the Qur'ān*, General Ed. Jane Dammen McAuliffe (Washington DC: Georgetown University, 2019).

³ The Quran, 9:51; See also Muhammad Khalid Manşūr, al-Ahkām al-Tibbiyah al-Muta'alliqah bi al-Nisā' fi al-Fiqh al-Islāmi (Amman: Dār al-Nafā'is, 1999), 18.

⁴ Ibn Mājah, Sunan Ibn Mājah, ed. Muhammad Fu'ād 'Abd al-Bāqī (Beirut: Dār Ihyā' al-Kutub al-'Arabiyyah, n.d), no. 3436, 1137.

⁵ Ibn Qayyim, *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī* (Riyadh: Dār al-Salām li-Nashr wa al-Tawzī⁴, 1433H), 16.

medical authority of the 'pagan Galen' on behalf of the Prophet's authority.⁶

However, the regular quotations from Hippocrates (c. 370 BCE), Galen (c. 210 CE), Ibn Sīnā and 'Abd al-Laṭīf al-Baghdādī (d. 629/1231), especially in the middle period of *al-țibb al-nabawī* genre, reveals that the medical theory and practice of these scholars were admired by the authors.⁷ A more thorough arrangement of Prophetic medical writing is given by Rahman in his book *Health and Medicine in the Islamic Tradition: Change and Identity*.⁸ The book contains a chapter on Prophetic medicine, in which Rahman analyses the numerous reasons its inventors had for producing it at some length. According to Rahman, this genre of Prophetic medicine was "an attempt to spiritualize medicine, to set high religious value on it, and to bring it to the centre of Islamic concerns."⁹

Scarcely distinct from Rahman's argument, Perho opines that the *al-tibb al-nabawī* genre was an attempt to bring forth a new form of medicine that would combine Islamic teachings and Graeco-Arabic medical theory.¹⁰ As Ragab explains, prophetic medicine appeared as both a textual genre and a subject heading under which certain

⁶ Manfred Ullman, *Die Medizin im Islam* (Leiden: Köln: E.J. Brill, 1970), 185.

Fazlur Rahman, Health and Medicine in the Islamic Tradition (Kuala Lumpur: Abdul Majeed & Co, 1993); Kamran S. I. Karimullah, "Assessing Avicenna's (d. 428/1037) Medical Influence in Prolegomena to Post-Classical (1100-1900 CE) Medical Commentaries," MIDÉO 32 (2017), 93-134; Asim Abdelmoneim Hussein, et al., "Prophetic Medicine, Islamic Medicine, Traditional Arabic and Islamic Medicine (TAIM): Revisiting Concepts and Definitions," Acta Scientific Medical Sciences 3(8) (2019), 62-69.

 ⁸ Fazlur Rahman, *Health and Medicine in the Islamic Tradition*, 41.
 ⁹ Ibid., 42.

¹⁰ Irmeli Perho, *The Prophet's Medicine: A Creation of the Muslim Traditionalist Scholars* (Finland: University of Helsinki, 1995), 78.

 $had\bar{t}h$ were organised.¹¹ The composition and organisation of medical $had\bar{t}h$ were thus prepared on the diseases suffered by the Prophet or by his companions and diligently followed the events of their lives, but did not present what seemed significant for physicians or scholars interested in medicine. In short, they were chapters of the Prophetic corpus that appeared connected to medicine.¹²

Al-Nasīmī, meanwhile, sought to determine the way in which a series of Muslim scholars, especially hadīth scholars, formulated the guidance of the Prophet in light of current medical theory and practice. Al-Nasīmī's threevolume work *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī wa 'Ilm al-Ḥadīth* differs somewhat from other studies in that it also contains a section dealing with medieval Prophetic medical texts. The author gives a rather detailed description of ten existing manuscripts, listing their contents and giving information on the sources the authors had used.

Interestingly, in his analysis of the development of the Prophetic medicine genre, al-Nasīmī precisely recognises significant discrepancies between the medical chapters in early and canonical *hadīth* collections, such as those of al-Bukhārī (d. 256/870), and Muslim (d. 261/875) and later writings such as those by al-Dhahabī (d. 748/1348), Ibn al-Qayyim (d. 751/1350) and Ibn Mufliḥ (d. 763/1362).¹³ He illustrates that the later writings displayed strong consideration of the details of Greek medicine and were in agreement with the interests of medical theories and practice. Perho points out that these influences are chiefly in reference to the writings of physicians such as 'Abd al-Latīf al-Baghdādī (d. 629/1231) and Ibn Tarkhān (d. 720/1320), who composed books on Prophetic medicine and presumably provided

¹¹ Ahmed Ragab, *Piety and Patienthood in Medieval Islam* (New York: Routledge, 2018), 86.

¹² Ibid.

¹³ Al-Nasīmī, *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī wa 'Ilm al-Ḥadīth*, 8.

religious scholars with a template to address medical theory and practice.¹⁴

According to Lewicka, Ibn al-Jawzī (d. 597/1200) and 'Abd al-Latīf al-Baghdādī used their expertise to combine the medical *hadīth* with the teachings of Greekbased medicine.¹⁵ Ibn al-Jawzī wrote two books on medical subjects, and spiritual crises such as stinginess or envy and their purifications were the subject of his book, *al-Ţibb al-Rūḥāni* (*Spiritual Medicine*). Here Ibn al-Jawzī explored similar issues pertaining to the effects of ethics upon the body and soul as undertaken by the physicians of the Graeco-Arabic school. The second book was *al-Luqat al-Manāfi*' *fī al-Ţibb* (*Selections of the Benefits of Medicine*), which focused on physical diseases and their cures.

However, in Ibn al-Jawzī's work, *hadīth* are fairly sporadic and the structure of the integration of the two kinds of knowledge is not directly visible. Although his writing incorporated a large amount of the Prophetic corpus, it was presented as a concise medical work aimed at the educated public and not naturally a book of *hadīth*. Ragab adds that 'Abd al-Laṭīf al-Baghdādī and Ibn Ṭarkhān copied extensively from Ibn al-Jawzī's *Luqat al-Manāfi*'.¹⁶ In fact, 'Abd al-Laṭīf al-Baghdādī's work was more systematic; he included forty *hadīth* from *Sunan Ibn Mājah* and elucidated each in terms of its consistency with existing Graeco-Arabic principles, thus indicating how truthful the divinely inspired Prophet's *hadīth* were when referring to various health matters. His book is entitled *al-*

¹⁴ Perho, *The Prophet's Medicine*, 40.

¹⁵ Paulina B. Lewicka, "Medicine for Muslims? Islamic Theologians, Non-Muslim Physicians and the Medical Culture of the Mamluk Near East," in ASK Working Paper 03 (History and Society during the Mamluk Era (1250-1517) (Bonn: Annemarie Schimmel Kolleg, 2012), 10.

¹⁶ Ragab, Piety and Patienthood in Medieval Islam, 86-87.

Arba'īn al-Ţibbiyyah al-Mustakhraj min Sunan Ibn Mājah wa Sharḥuha li al-'Allāmah al-Tabīb 'Abd al-Laṭīf al-Baghdādī 'amal Tilmīdhah Muḥammad ibn Yūsuf al-Birzalī (Derivation of Forty Medical Ḥadīth from Sunan Ibn Mājah and their Commentary by Distinguished Doctor 'Abd al-Laṭīf al-Baghdādī, Prepared by His Student Muḥammad ibn Yūsuf al-Birzalī).¹⁷

'Abd al-Latīf Al-Baghdādī was reported to have written a few books on *hadīth*. Perhaps the most important among these was his work on *mukhtalif al-hadīth*, or contradictory traditions.¹⁸ As an intellectual physician, he also wrote a critique of Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī's (d. 606/1209) commentary on the first section of Ibn Sīnā's *al-Qānūn fī al-Tibb* discussing *kulliyyāt* (generalities).¹⁹ 'Abd al-Latīf al-Baghdādī warned his students, however, against relying simply on the generalities in the *Qānūn*.²⁰

He composed a commentary on Hunayn ibn Ishāq's (d. 260/873) *al-Masā'il al-Tibbīyah* (*Medical Questions*), which, like the $Q\bar{a}n\bar{u}n$, had become a standard textbook by his day. Thus, although 'Abd al-Laṭīf claimed to view the medical textbooks of his time – including the abridgments of Greek works and the generalities of Ibn Sīnā's $Q\bar{a}n\bar{u}n$ – with antagonism, he himself engaged with the material.²¹

¹⁷ 'Abd al-Latīf al-Baghdādī, *al-Arba'in al-Ţibbiyyah al-Mustakhraj min Sunan Ibn Mājah wa Sharḥuha*, ed. Kamāl Yūsuf Hūt (Beirut: Mu'assasah al-Kutub al-Thaqāfiyyah, 1985).

¹⁸ Ragab, Piety and Patienthood in Medieval Islam, 174.

¹⁹ N. Peter Joosse and Peter E. Pormann, "'Abd al-Latīf al-Baġdādī's Commentary on Hippocrates' 'Prognostic': A Preliminary Exploration," in *Epidemics in Context Greek Commentaries on Hippocrates in the Arabic Tradition (251-284)*, ed. Peter E. Pormann (Berlin: De Gruyter, 2012), 211.

 ²⁰ Cecilia Martini Bonadeo, 'Abd al-Latīf al-Bagdādī's Philosophical Journey from Aristotle's Metaphysics to the 'Metaphysical Science' (Leiden: Brill, 2013), 180.

²¹ Joosse & Pormann, "Abd al-Lațīf al-Baġdādī's Commentary," 252.

Indeed, 'Abd al-Latīf even presented himself as breaking away from Ibn Sīnā's natural philosophy, but still remained in Ibn Sīnā's shadow in the sense that he largely responded to the medical agenda Ibn Sīnā had set centuries earlier. Accordingly, Ibn Sīnā's impact extended even beyond his indirect influence on those composing and commenting on new medical treatises that were modelled on and borrowed profoundly from Ibn Sīnā's own works, even as they modified elements of his thought and harmonised the apparent incongruities.²²

Scope and Methodology

Ibn Sīnā's Galenic account of medicine was remarkably significant for natural philosophy and religious thought in the medieval Islamic world. Just as one might split philosophy in the Islamic world into an era before and after Avicennian tradition, so one could periodise medical history into the time before and after Ibn Sīnā's al-Qānūn fi al-Tibb, which continued to be a medical authority for centuries.

The book designates guidelines for medicine not only in the Islamic world but also in Medieval Europe and was adopted as a standard medical textbook through the eighteenth century in Europe.²³ In his autobiography, Ibn Sīnā appeared to categorise medicine under the heading of *tabī 'iyyāt* (physics or natural sciences),²⁴ whereas in his *Risālah fī Aqsām al- 'Ulūm (Epistle on the Division of Sciences*), he classified medicine as a derivative natural science (*al-ḥikmah al-tabī 'iyyāh al-far 'iyyah*). In the philosophical encyclopaedia called *al-Mashrīqiyyūn* (the

²² Robert Wisnovsky, "Avicenna's Islamic Reception," *Interpreting Avicenna Critical Essays*, ed. Peter Adamson (Cambridge University Press, 2013), 190.

²³ Jon McGinnis, Avicenna (Great Medieval Thinkers Series) (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2010), 227.

²⁴ Ibn Sīnā, al-Husayn bin 'Alī, *Tis' Rasā'il fī al-Hikmah wa al-Tabī'iyyāt* (Cairo: Dār al-'Arab li al-Bustānī, 1989), 110.

Easterners), which he wrote later in life, he further downgraded medicine, categorising it with astrology and agriculture as a corollary science.²⁵

Given the importance of Ibn Sīnā in medical genre writings during the medieval era, it may also be expected that borrowings in the Prophetic medicine genre will often go back either straight or indirectly to the writings of Ibn Sīnā, which does indeed appear to be the case in the writings of the prominent Mamluk *hadīth* scholar, Shams al-Dīn al-Dhahabī.

To advance this hypothesis, this article explores the $al-Q\bar{a}n\bar{u}n$ $f\bar{t}$ al-Tibb (Canon of Medicine),²⁶ which presents the ontological structure of man, and in particular, the basic and interrelated elements of the body. Presumably, then, religious and scientific scholars during al-Dhahabī's era were not solely occupied with adopting Ibn Sīnā's works on medicine. As mentioned earlier, their works also included epitomes of and commentaries on Ibn Sīnā's Qānūn or Kitāb al-Shifā' (Book of Healing).

Although al-Dhahabī did not regularly mention Ibn Sīnā in his *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī*, we must assume that Ibn Sīnā must have influenced him in one way or another, at least in the early stages of his compositional development.²⁷ This article will be followed by an attempt to isolate and analyse the major theoretical concepts underlying the medical thought of Ibn Sīnā; the same kind of analytic study will then be made of al-Dhahabī.

²⁵ Peter E. Pormann, "Avicenna on Medical Practice, Epistemology, and the Physiology of the Inner Senses," *Interpreting Avicenna Critical Essays*, ed. Peter Adamson (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2013), 93.

²⁶ Ibn Sīnā, al-Qānūn fi al-Ţibb, ed. Muḥammad Amin al-Dannawi (Beirut: Dār al-Kutub al-'Ilmiyyah, 1999); Avicenna, *The Canon of Medicine*, trans. Laleh Bakhtiar (New York, AMS Press Inc., 1973).

²⁷ Muhammad bin Ahmad bin 'Uthmān al-Dhahabī, Abū 'Abd Allāh Shams al-Din, *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī*, ed. Ahmad Rif'āt al-Badrawi (Beirut: Dār Ihyā' 'Ulūm, 1990).

The present work, in any case, consists exclusively of an analysis of introductory part of the $Q\bar{a}n\bar{u}n$ and al-*Tibb* al-Nabaw \bar{v} of al-Dhahab \bar{v} to elucidate the theoretical rule of medicine in the Islamic intellectual tradition. When compared to other earlier or contemporaneous exemplars of the Prophetic medicine genre, al-Dhahab \bar{v} 's writing shows a special attention to juxtaposing Greek medical theory with Prophetic *had\bar{t}h*. The similarity of the overall framework of the *Tibb* and much of its content to that of Ibn S $\bar{n}n\bar{a}$'s $Q\bar{a}n\bar{u}n$ could then be placed in proximity.

Al-Qānūn fī al-Ţibb of Ibn Sīnā

According to Seyyed Hossein Nasr, Ibn Sīnā's writings on medicine are a synthesis of "Greek, Indian, and Iranian schools of medicine as well as fresh material derived from the experience and practice of the Muslim physicians themselves."²⁸ Ibn Sīnā relied heavily on Abū al-Ḥasan 'Alī b. Sahl Rabban al-Ṭabarī's (d. 256/870) *Firdaws al-Hikmah (The Paradise of Wisdom)*,²⁹ Muḥammad Zakariyyā al-Rāzī's (d. 313/925) *Kitāb al-Ḥāwi (The Virtuous Life*), otherwise known as *al-Jāmi*''s, or compendium of medicine, which was translated into Latin in 1279 under the title *Continens*, and *Kitāb al-Mansuri* (Latin: *Liber Almansoris*),³⁰ and 'Alī b. 'Abbās al-Ahwazī's (d. 384/994) *Kitāb Kāmil al-Ṣinā'ah al-Ţibbiyyah (Complete Book of the Medical Art*).³¹

²⁸ Seyyed Hossein Nasr, *Three Muslim Sages Avicenna: Avicenna, Suhrawardi, Ibn Arabi* (New York: Caravan Books, 1997), 33.

²⁹ Sami K. Hamarneh, "Al-Tabari", in *Encyclopaedia of the History of Science, Technology, and Medicine in Non-Western Cultures* ed. Selin, Helaine (Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publisher, 1997), 930.

³⁰ Majid Fakhry, *A History of Islamic Philosophy* (Columbia University Press, 2004), 98.

³¹L. Richter-Bernburg, "Alī b. 'Abbās Majūsī," *Encyclopædia Iranica*, I/8, 837-838, available online at http://www.iranicaonline.org/articles/ali-b-abbas-majusi.

The *al-Qānūn fī al-Tibb* of Ibn Sīnā was based to a great extant on these writings and because of its arrangement, organisation, and perfection happened to replace them as the textbook adopted by medical students and physicians, as described by Qutb al-Dīn al-Shīrāzī.³²

The $Q\bar{a}n\bar{u}n$, Ibn Sīnā's greatest medical writing, is possibly the most productive source for the study of the theoretical and empirical dimension of Ibn Sīnā's contribution to the sciences of nature. This *magnum opus* is divided into five books, each arranged into divisions and chapters, and the five major components conforming with such general principles of medicine as: (1) the characterisation of the human anatomy or physical structure, its constitution or the cosmic elements that make up the cosmos and the human body, the mutual interaction of elements (temperaments), the fluids of the body (humours), human anatomy, and physiology; (2) *materia medica*; (3) special pathology; (4) special diseases involving more than one member; and (5) pharmacology.

This last section is a particular treasure from an empirical way of thinking. Nasr adds that the $Q\bar{a}n\bar{u}n$ is a synthesis of the traditions of Hippocrates, Galen and Dioscorides, as well as encompassing much that is not established in Greek authorship, particularly about the use of herbs in the treatment of numerous diseases.³³

The first book of the $Q\bar{a}n\bar{u}n$, which is the focus of this article, is made up of four treatises. The first treatise gives a general account of medicine, the four elements (earth, air, fire and water) in light of the Greek physician Galen of Pergamum's four humours (blood, phlegm, yellow bile and black bile); the mutual interaction of the elements (temperaments); and human anatomy and physiology. The second treatise explores aetiology

³² Nasr, *Three Muslim Sages*, 34.

³³ Ibid.

(causation) and symptoms, while the third includes hygiene, health, disease and death. The fourth treatise is a therapeutic nosology (classification of disease) and a general overview of regimens and dietary treatments.

The introductory part of the al-Qānūn is worth unveiling, as it reveals Ibn Sīnā's preferences; he argues although medicine consists of both that. nazarī (theoretical) and 'amalī (practical) components, he is more interested in the science of medicine, which is made up of theoretical part.³⁴ Nonetheless, even the practical segment deals with the theory of application, or, as Ibn Sīnā expresses it: "'ilmun 'ilmiyyun, wa 'ilmun 'amaliyyun, wa in lam tu'mal qatt (medicine is a theoretical science and a practical science, even if it is never practised)."35 Undeniably, there is also information about *mubsharah* (the substantial practice of medicine), but this is not a topic with which Ibn Sīnā concerns himself in the Oānūn. In other words, Ibn Sīnā draws from the possibility of merely engaging in practical matters.

Al-Ţibb al-Nabawī of al-Dhahabī

In general, *al-tibb al-nabawī* or the Prophetic medicine genre consists of multidisciplinary theory and practices in which could be discovered not only a text entitled *al-Tibb al-Nabawī* (*Prophetic Medicine*) but also *hadīth* collections, jurisprudence books and many others. Throughout history, this type of sacred medicine has led *hadīth* scholars to create a specific genre with a view to preserving and imitating the traditional sayings and acts of the Prophet.

'Alī al-Bār explored references to some forty different books – some published and some lost – with the

³⁴ Ibn Sīnā, *al-Qānūn fi al-Ţibb*, 9.

³⁵ *Ibid*, 13.

title Prophetic Medicine.³⁶ He considers "the best-selling book" of this genre to be that written by Ibn Qayyim al-Jawzīyyah (d. 751AH/1351CE), which was part of his famous collection $Z\bar{a}d$ al-Ma' $\bar{a}d$ (Provisions for the Hereafter).

In the Prophetic medicine part, Ibn al-Qayyim clarified the theological importance of medical principles in much more detail than al-Dhahabī's *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī*.³⁷ Al-Dhahabī largely acknowledged the current Graeco-Arabic theories, while Ibn al-Qayyim tended to revise such theories to carry out theological concerns. For example, Ibn al-Qayyim thought that the idea of the four elements (earth, water, air, fire) was not compatible with the principles provided in the Quran, as there was no single $\bar{a}y\bar{a}h$ (verse/sign) in the Quran affirming that Allah had created man from fire.³⁸

Certainly, this theory of elements was based on the medical expertise of Hippocrates, Galen, Zakariyyā al-Rāzī, Ibn Sīnā and many others. Al-Dhahabī celebrated Hippocrates as the chief of medicine and Galen as his successor in the rank of expert.³⁹ Ibn al-Qayyim did not, however, give Hippocrates a higher position than others, but admitted that Hippocrates' medical science had been as significant for his community, the Greeks, as al-Hārith b. Kalada's had been for the Arabs.⁴⁰ Here, both the origins and the originality of Islamic medicine continued to attract the attention of *hadīth* scholars, especially those of al-Dhahabī's generation.

³⁶ Muhammad 'Alī al-Bar, Mawsu'ah al-Ţibb al-Nabawī (Jeddah: Dār Kunūz Ma'rifah, 2016).

³⁷ Perho, *The Prophet's Medicine*, 58.

³⁸ Ibn Qayyim, *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī*, 34.

³⁹ Al-Dhahabī, *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī*, 35.

⁴⁰ Perho, *The Prophet's Medicine*, 84.

Some scholars assert the existence of foreign influence, while others ardently argue against it.⁴¹ In the introductory part of the Prophetic medicine writing, some *hadīth* scholars like Ibn al-Qayyim discussed the origin and founders of medical theory and practice. Franz Rosenthal observes that there was an entire genre of literature, familiar in the medieval era, devoted to the study of the $Aw\bar{a}'il$, or the *firsts*, in which authors traced diverse intellectual traditions to their apparent founders, as well as those who commenced this particular practice.⁴² $Aw\bar{a}'il$ is technically used to denote various ideas such as the primary data of philosophical or physical phenomena; the ancients of either pre-Islamic or early Islamic times; and the first inventors of things (or the things invented or done first).

This pedigree of the origin of intellectual activity provides the foundation for a historical investigation in which the concerned routines attained their legitimacy and determined the essence of their identity from their recognised founders. Ragab asserts that "this genealogical root, usually tracing back to a prophet, a saint or a recipient of some form of divine or inspired knowledge, allowed for the vertical arrangement of the society, where professionals and intellectuals traced their belonging to a distant past."⁴³

⁴¹ Muhammad Fawwaz bin Muhammad Yusoff, "On Biographical Dictionaries of Hadīth Transmitters: Rethinking Development in the Islamic Literature," *Al-Bayan: Journal of Qur'an and Hadīth Studies* 17(2) (Dec 2019), 130.

 ⁴² Franz Rosenthal, "Awā'il," in *Encyclopaedia of Islam, Second Edition* (Leiden: Brill, 1986), 758.

⁴³ Ahmed Ragab, "The Prophets of Medicine and the Medicine of The Prophet: Debates on Medical Theory and Practice in the Medieval Middle East," paper presented at Harvard University, Center for Middle Eastern Studies and Harvard Society of Arab Students, Cambridge, Massachusetts, November 2009, 4. See http://nrs.harvard.edu/urn-3:HUL.InstRepos:4726204

On the whole, faithfully producing an authentically Islamic medicine appeared to be the underlying aspiration for the writing of *al-Tibb al-Nabawī*. In trying to equip the Muslims with a medical practice that conformed to their *Weltanschauung* and met their obligations, *hadīth* scholars wanted to build a corpus based on an Islamic revelational foundation. Its central authority should be situated in the Quran and Sunna and not in foreign sciences. *Hadīth* scholars believed that all of the principles of medical knowledge were contained in the Quran and Sunna and there was an exoteric interpretation of both that constituted the revelation of their authority.⁴⁴

The eight/fourteenth century corpus of al-Dhahabī signified the late medieval era of the genre development. Al-Dhahabī combined the Prophet's medical sayings with the medical teachings of Ibn Sīnā in his descriptions of the aetiology, prevention and treatment of illnesses. On the basis of the material we have consulted, he seems to have been the first one to accept Ibn Sīnā's medical thought totally by integrating Prophetic medicine in this manner. In general, al-Dhahabī's *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī* is arranged in a trichotomy.

In the introduction, al-Dhahabī explains the arrangement of his writing into three major parts: "I have divided this book into three parts: first, medical principles: theory and practice; second, drugs and foods; third, treatment of diseases."⁴⁵ First and foremost, al-Dhahabī presents classical theoretical principles describing the elements and humours and giving the general causes for

⁴⁴ Muhammad Fawwaz bin Muhammad Yusoff, "Hadīth Scholar and Historiography: Some Reflections on the Sīra Corpora of Ibn Hibbān al-Bustī's (d. 354/965) Kitāb al-Ţiqāt," Arabica 66(5) (Nov 2019), 505; See also Muhammad Fawwaz bin Muhammad Yusoff, "The Authentication of Hadīth: Ibn Hibbān's Introduction to His Şaḥīḥ", Al-Masāq: Journal of the Medieval Mediterranean (2020). DOI: 10.1080/09503110.2020.1712546.

⁴⁵ Al-Dhahabī, *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī*, 19.

illnesses, followed by descriptions of practical rules or methods for preventing illnesses.

The second part consists of an alphabetical list of the and treatments of diverse foodstuffs and names medicaments. Al-Dhahabī then discusses peculiar illnesses and their medications in the third part. According to Perho, al-Dhahabī's al-Ţibb al-Nabawī follows in the footsteps of the earlier Prophetic medical work, Ibn al-Lugat al-Manāfi', in being Jawzī's a kind of comprehensive medical guidebook. The two works examine the underlying principles of medical theory and provide instructions in functional treatment, although al-Dhahabī applies the *hadīth* far more frequently than Ibn al-Jawzī does.46

Although a comprehensive analysis of the whole *al*-*Tibb al-Nabawī* would be beneficial, we only concentrate on the first part of al-Dhahabī's writing – the theory of medicine in comparison with Ibn Sīnā's medical thought. The first section on medical principles is built around the following four core ideas: (1) natural matters, (2) state of the body of man, (3) cause/aetiology and (4) signs. This article especially concerns al-Dhahabī's arrangement on natural matters.

Undoubtedly, Ibn Sīnā contributed largely to the subject of natural philosophy, or physics, which, in the strict sense is the study of nature. The term *tabī* '*ah* is the standard Arabic translation for the Greek *phusis*, which means nature.⁴⁷ As others have done before him, Ibn Sīnā recognised natural philosophy as the study of the body insofar as it is subject to motion. Nevertheless, we will focus only on the nature of the body as matter, but not on his account of motion. This concept of natural matter,

⁴⁶ Perho, *The Prophet's Medicine*, 58.

⁴⁷ Jon McGinnis, "Avicenna's Natural Philosophy," *Interpreting Avicenna Critical Essays*, ed. Peter Adamson (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2013), 71.

which underlies the notion of al-Dhahabī, will be compared with the medical thought of Ibn Sīnā, allowing a comparative view of the philosophical, anatomical and physiological positions of these two writers.

Subject	Al-Dhahabī	Ibn Sīnā
Stance	"I have divided this book	"But truly every science
of	into three crafts:	has both <i>naẓar</i>
medical	First, the theoretical rule	(speculative /theoretical)
theory	of medicine: its 'ilm	and 'amal (practical)."49
	(theory) and 'amal	
	(practice).	
	Second, drugs and food.	
	Third, treatment of	
	diseases."48	
Medical	"The theory is	"The difference between
theory	subdivided into four sub-	two (theory and practice)
	sections:	need be explained in the
	The theory of the natural	case of medicine. Thus, in
	matters, the theory	regard to medicine, we
	[concerns] the state of	say that practice proceeds
	the body of man, the	from theory, we do not
	theory of <i>al-asbāb</i> (cause	mean that there is one
	or aetiology), and the	division of medicine by
	theory [deals] with al-	which we know, and
	<i>`alāmāt</i> (signs)." ⁵⁰	another, distinct
		therefrom, by which we
		act. We mean that these
		two aspects belong
		together - one deals with
		the basic principles of
		knowledge; the other with
		the mode of operation of
		these principles (within

Below is a table of medical theories of al-Dhahabī and Ibn Sīnā:

⁴⁸ Al-Dhahabī, *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī*, 19.

⁴⁹ Ibn Sīnā, *al-Qānūn fi al-Tibb*, 13.

⁵⁰ Al-Dhahabī, *al-Tibb al-Nabawī*, 21.

Natural Matters	"The natural matters are seven: <i>al-arkān</i> (the elements), <i>al-mizāj</i> (the temperaments), <i>al-akhlāț</i> <i>al-arbaʿah</i> (the four humours/humoral pathology), <i>al-aʿdā al- aşliyyah</i> (fundamental organs), <i>al-arwāḥ</i> (the spirits), <i>al-quwwah</i> (the faculties), <i>al-afʿāl</i> (the functions)." ⁵²	the body). The former is theory; the latter is applied knowledge." ⁵¹ This topic is diminutive to discuss about Ibn Sīnā's thought. The significance of natural matters, Ibn Sīnā's physics in particular, is twofold. First, it signifies Ibn Sīnā's finest effort to elucidate the sensible world in which we live and to provide the principles for many of the other different sciences. Second, Ibn Sīnā's natural philosophy lays the foundations for a complete understanding of his advancements in other fields.
States of the Body	"Three states of the body are possible – health, disease and a condition which is neither health nor disease." ⁵³	"Another thing – there is no need to assert that "there are three states of human body – sickness, health, and a state which
Caugas		is neither health nor disease." The first two cover everything." ⁵⁴
Causes	"The causes are six: $al-haw\bar{a}$ ' (air), food and drink, $al-badaniyan$ (bodily) movement and rest, $al-nafsaniyan$	"There are four kinds of "cause": mādiyāt (material), fa'iliyāt (efficient), suriyāt (formal), tamāmiyāt

⁵¹ Ibn Sīnā, *al-Qānūn fi al-Ţibb*, 13.
 ⁵² Al-Dhahabī, *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī*, 21.

⁵³ *Ibid.*, 25.
⁵⁴ Ibn Sīnā, *al-Qānūn fi al-Ţibb*, 14.

(emotional) movement	(final)." ⁵⁶
and rest, waking and	
sleeping, excretion and	
retention."55	

Table 1: Medical Theories of al-Dhahabī and Ibn Sīnā

Analysis: Seven Natural Matters

Al-Dhahabī systematically followed the seven subdivisions of *al-umūr al-tabī* 'iyyah (natural matters). His explanation is superficial, without any further commentary on the various natural matters. Although lacking profundity, his discussions illustrate that he accepted the integral foundation of Ibn Sīnā's theory or, in more general terms, Graeco-Arabic medical theory. It should be emphasised that he very rarely referred to the Quran or Sunnah to support the anatomical or philosophical structure he presented. This suggests that Graeco-Arabic medical theory was considered conclusively proved even among hadith scholars. Al-Dhahabī apparently regarded medical theory as reasonable and saw nothing objectionable in it. Perhaps for this reason, he saw no need for theological discourse.

Elements

Al-Dhahabī began to elaborate the first component of natural matters, *al-arkān* (the elements). He says, "the elements are four in number – fire which is hot and dry, air which is hot and wet, water which is cold and wet, and earth which is cold and dry."⁵⁷ Ibn Sīnā's thesis on the elements of the cosmos is seemingly "the foundation of the whole *Canon*." The elements, as Ibn Sīnā stated at the beginning of this topic, "are the primary components of the human being throughout all its parts, as well as other

⁵⁵ Al-Dhahabī, *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī*, 28.

⁵⁶ Ibn Sīnā, *al-Qānūn fi al-Ţibb*, 14.

⁵⁷ Al-Dhahabī, *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī*, 21.

bodies in their varied and diverse form."⁵⁸ Ibn Sīnā asserts that the physician must accept these four elements, two of which are light, and two are heavy. These elements are not "matter," but have only a virtual existence. The lighter elements are fire and air and the heavier are earth and water. The elements resulting from this natural philosophy is summarised by Ibn Sīnā as follows⁵⁹:

"Earth is an 'element' normally situated at the centre of all existence... It is cold and dry in nature, and it appears so to our sense as long as it is not interfered with by extraneous agencies and obeys its own peculiar nature. It is by means of the earthy element that the parts of our body are fixed and held together into a compacted form.

Water is a simple substance whose position in nature is exterior to the Earth, and interior to the Air. This position is owing to its relative density. In nature it is cold and moist. Air is a simple substance, whose position in nature is above the sphere of Water, and beneath that of Fire... in nature it is hot and

moist.

Fire is a simple substance which occupies a position in nature higher than that of the other three elements – namely the hollow of the sublunary world, for it reaches to the (world of the) heavens. All things return to it. This is because of its absolute lightness. In nature it is hot and dry."

Temperament

 $Al-Miz\bar{a}j$ (the temperament) is a proto-psychological theory that suggests four fundamental personality types:

⁵⁸ Ibn Sīnā, *al-Qānūn fi al-Ţibb*, 17.

⁵⁹ Ibid.

sanguine, choleric, melancholic, and phlegmatic. Historically, Galen (129 – c. 200 CE) produced the first classification of temperament in his treatise *De Temperamentis* and explored the physiological basis for different behaviours in human beings.⁶⁰ Adapting from the four elements, he classified the temperaments as hot, cold, dry, and wet. Considering the significance of temperament in traditional medicine, Ibn Sīnā divides temperament into that which is harmonious and that which is non-uniform.⁶¹

Ibn Sīnā says: "Temperament is that quality which results from the mutual interaction and inter-passion of the four contrary primary qualities residing within the (imponderable) elements."⁶² Ibn Sīnā asserts that the personality of people is based on their unique temperament, which would later complement the unique genetic formation of each individual and presage the central notion of interindividual divergence.⁶³ Basically, the temperament or mixture of a person represents his or her physical constitution and tendencies and was a part of the theory of the four humours, which is the next concept of the seven natural matters presented by al-Dhahabī.

Al-Dhahabī's presentation of $al-miz\bar{a}j$ is supported with five $had\bar{i}th$ from the $Sah\bar{i}hayn$, the highest authority in Sunni canonical $had\bar{i}th$ collection. The application of $had\bar{i}th$ was not to show support or disprove the medical theory, however, but to admire the Prophet. Furthermore, al-Dhahabī articulated his agreement with the Galenic

⁶⁰ Pierro Tassinari, "Mixtures," in *Galen: Works on Human Nature*, ed.
P. Singer & P. Van der Eijk (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2019), 47.

⁶¹ Ibn Sīnā, *al-Qānūn fi al-Tibb*, 19.

⁶² Ibid.

⁶³ Asadollahi, R., Asadollahi, H, "Avicenna's View on Medical Genetics," *Genet Med* 15 (2013), 410–411.

view that man was, temperamentally, the most at equilibrium among animate things.⁶⁴

He gives further expression on this by asserting that the most balanced among human beings were the *mu'minūn* (believers), and among the believers the *anbiyā'* (prophets), and among the prophets the *rusul* (messengers), and among the messengers the $\bar{u}l\bar{u}$ *al-'azm* (those of the perseverance and strong will), and among these the Prophet Muḥammad, who had the most balanced temperament.

Four Humours

For a comprehensive discussion of humoral pathology, its history and influence, the text must be considered from the perspective of at least two intellectual and medical traditions, the Greek and the Muslim. Following the humoral pathology of Hippocrates, Ibn Sīnā considers *al-akhlāţ al-arba'ah* (the four humours) as the elements within the body.⁶⁵ According to Savage-Smith, the concept of four bodily humours was one of the undisputable medical ideas universally assimilated with little or no challenge throughout the Islamic world.⁶⁶

As Dimitri Gutas has observed in his work *Medical Theory and Scientific Method in the Era of Ibn Sīnā*, "the theory and principles of humoral pathology are to be accepted as given in natural science (physics) and their investigation is declared off-limits to the physician."⁶⁷ The

⁶⁴ Al-Dhahabī, *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī*, 21.

⁶⁵ Emilie Savage-Smith, "Were the Four Humours Fundamental to Medieval Islamic Medical Practice?" in *The Body in Balance: Humoral Medicines in Practice*, ed. Peregrine Horden and Elisabeth Hsu (New York: Berghahn Books Inc., 2013), 90.

⁶⁶ Ibid.

⁶⁷ Dimitri Gutas, "Medical Theory and Scientific Method," in *Before and After Avicenna, Proceedings of the First Conference of the Avicenna Study Group*, ed. David C. Reisman and Ahmed H. al-Rahim (Leiden: Brill, 2003), 151.

four humours are the vital bodily fluids such as blood, phlegm, yellow bile and black bile, and they are to the body what the four elements - fire, air, water and earth to the natural world. One of Ibn Sīnā's are contemporaries, Ibn Hindu (d. 420/1029), presented the following definition of the four humours in his treatise Miftāh al-Ţibb wa Minhāj al-Ţullāb (The Key to Medicine and a Guide to Students)⁶⁸:

Humours are the foundations of the microcosm, which is the human being. Their equivalent in the macrocosm is the elements. This is because the body is composed of these humours just as all else in the world of creation and decay is made up of the elements.

Fundamentally, the four humours could be attached to cosmology – that is, the elements – and al-Dhahabī accepted the existence and relevance of the four humours, as well as their connection to the four elements. If the humours were indeed connected to the elements, this would mean that a human being contains earth, air, water and fire. Al-Dhahabī comments further on the concept of four humours⁶⁹:

"Like the elements, each of the humours possesses two natures, *al-dam* (the blood) being hot and moist; *al-balgham* (the phlegm) cold and moist; *al-safra* (the yellow bile) hot and dry; and *al-sawdā'* (the black bile) cold and dry."

Fundamental Organs

From here, the other four of the seven natural matters were only given as a list without any further commentary

⁶⁸ Ibn Hindu, *The Key to Medicine and A Guide to Students (Miftah al-Tibb wa Minhaj al-Tullab)*, translated by Aida Tibi (Reading: Garnet Publishing, 2011), 60.

⁶⁹ Al-Dhahabī, *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī*, 23.

on their properties. The fourth group of natural matter consisted of the fundamental organs. Al-Dhahabī says: "The fourth is the fundamental organ that originates from semen."⁷⁰ This view suggests a difference from Greek theories, in which the uterine membranes originated from female semen, whereas the blood vessels, nerves, tendons, bones and cartilage originated from the male sperm.

The Quranic account of human creation affirms that 'sperm' and 'firm lodging' refer to sperm within the female reproductive tract and, more specifically, within the uterus.⁷¹ Towards the end of *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī*, al-Dhahabī elaborates further on this issue in a chapter on 'embryology and anatomy'.⁷² In this chapter al-Dhahabī refers to a *hadīth*⁷³:

"The fluid of male is viscous and white, while the fluid of woman is delicate and yellow. Whichever of them precedes [the other] determines [the offspring's] resemblance."

The essence of this type of $had\bar{i}th$ allowed al-Dhahabī to accept the status of female semen, and by quoting them as justification to the word 'alaq in the verse above, he signified that the 'alaq consisted not only of male sperm but also of female semen. Al-Dhahabī also asserted that "from $m\bar{a}$ ' al-rajul (the fluid of the male) are created al-a'da' al-aşliyyah (the fundamental organs) and

⁷⁰ Ibid,. 24.

⁷¹ Ebrahim, Abul Fadl Mohsin, "Biology as the Creation and Stages of Life", in *Encyclopaedia of the Qur'ān*, General Editor: Jane Dammen McAuliffe (Washington DC: Georgetown University, Consulted online on 20 November 2019), http://dx.doi.org.ezproxy.lib.gla.ac.uk/10.1163/1875-3922_q3_EQCOM_00026

⁷² Al-Dhahabī, *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī*, 295.

⁷³ Ibid., 297.

al-'izam (the bones) and that from $m\bar{a}$ ' *al-mar'ah* (the fluid of the female) is created *al-lahm* (the flesh)."⁷⁴

In Ibn Sīnā's view, "the fundamental organs are derived primarily from the amalgamating of the humours, just as the humours are derived primarily from the commingled elements."⁷⁵ Ibn Sīnā further classified the organs according to their origin:⁷⁶

"Some organs take their origin from the semen, namely organs composed of like parts except the flesh and the fat. Other organs come from both male and female sperm. According to the philosophers, the process of generation may be compared with the process which takes place in the production of cheese. Thus, the male sperm is equivalent to the clotting agent of milk, and the female sperm is equivalent to the coagulum of milk. The starting point of clotting is in the rennet; so, the starting point of the clot man is in the male semen (We made the life-germ a clot. The Ouran, 23:14). Just as the beginning of the clotting is in the milk, so the beginning of the clotting of the form of man lies in the female sperm. Then, just as each of the two (the rennet and the milk) enter into the "substance" of the cheese which results, so each of the two (male and female sperm) enters into the substance of the embryo."

⁷⁴ Ibid.

⁷⁵ Bahrami, Mohsen et al. "The Body Organs and Their Reconstruction Power (Regeneration) from the Viewpoint of Iranian-Islamic Physicians," *Iranian Red Crescent Medical Journal* 16(3) (2014), e15193. doi:10.5812/ircmj.15193.

⁷⁶ Ibn Sīnā, *al-Qānūn fi al-Ţibb*, 39.

Souls

Al-Dhahabī does not explain the ontological structure of man, nor the basic and interrelated elements of the soul. His scope thus eliminates the detailed segmentation of properties and workings of the further attributes that characterise the soul. In very simple terms, al-Dhahabī says: "The fifth is the souls."⁷⁷ However, a quick glance at *al-Tibb al-Nabawī*, in the case of the $r\bar{u}h$ (soul), al-Dhahabī mentions the $had\bar{t}th$.⁷⁸

"Allah sent an angel to blow a soul into it. And He gave orders for his fate to be written in four words: for hindrance or for help, for misery or for happiness."

This *hadīth* and its discussion appear in the last part of *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī* and explain al-Dhahabī's account of the spectrum of opinions concerning the soul within the domain of natural matters. This short article cannot, however, do justice to all of the facts and arguments on the soul articulated by al-Dhahabī and Ibn Sīnā. When Ibn Sīnā approached the faculties of the soul in his $Q\bar{a}n\bar{u}n$, he had to figure out some way to integrate the earlier medical tradition with his own philosophical ideas.⁷⁹ From the beginning to the end of the $Q\bar{a}n\bar{u}n$, the reader can see that Ibn Sīnā does so by highlighting the discrepancy between medical and philosophical knowledge.⁸⁰

In general, the explanation of souls elaborates and alters some of Aristotle's ideas, as Ibn $S\bar{n}\bar{a}$ undertakes to explain the faculties of the soul in the mould of Aristotle and his Alexandrian commentators. Although following Aristotle in his categorisation of the faculties of the soul,

⁷⁷ Al-Dhahabī, *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī*, 24.

⁷⁸ Ibid., 296.

⁷⁹ Pormann, "Avicenna on Medical Practice," 105.

 ⁸⁰ For discussion on Ibn Sīnā's thought on soul, see Nasr, *Three* Sages, 38.

Ibn Sīnā disagrees from them in his emphasis on the immortality of the individual soul, as well as its incorruptible and immaterial substance.⁸¹

Faculties

The internal faculties are obviously of particular interest to us here. Al-Dhahabī says: "The sixth is the faculties and they are three in number; *al- tabī*'iyyah (the natural), *alhayawāniyyah* (the vital), and *al-nafsāniyyah* (the psychic)."⁸² These three faculties are the same as presented by Ibn Sīnā in his *Qānūn*. In the opinion of Pormann, Ibn Sīnā makes use of the technique of division to a greater extent here than he does in his philosophical works.⁸³

He accordingly classifies the faculties of the human being into *nafsāniyyah*, *tabī*'iyyah and *hayawāniyyah*, and he further classifies the *nafsāniyyah* faculties into *mudrikah* (cognitive) and *muharrikah* (motive). He then further classifies the cognitive faculties into *al-bāțin* (internal) and *al-zāhir* (external). These internal faculties correspond to the internal senses, whereas the five external faculties are the five senses: sight, hearing, smell, touch and taste. The *tabī'iyyah* is twofold: the *al-taghazzī* (nutritive) and *al-tanāsul* (reproductive) faculties.

Ibn Sīnā considers the centre of the *hayawāniyyah* faculty to be the heart, and its function proceeds from this.⁸⁴ Ibn Sīnā further explains, "faculties are to be distinguished from functions. The difference is that the former originates the latter. But as each function depends on its own special faculty they can be treated together."⁸⁵

⁸¹ Nasr, *Three Sages*, 40.

⁸² Al-Dhahabī, *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī*, 24.

⁸³ Pormann, "Avicenna on Medical Practice," 105.

⁸⁴ Ibn Sīnā, *Canon of Medicine*, 110.

⁸⁵ Ibid., 107.

Functions

Ibn Sīnā says: "there are three kinds of faculty, and therefore of functions proceeding therefrom. Namely, *al-hayawāniyyah* (the vital), *al-tabī'iyyah* (the natural), *al-nafsāniyyah* (the psychic)."⁸⁶ Towards the end of discussion on natural matters, al-Dhahabī says: "And the seventh is the functions: (the function of) attraction and (the function of) repulsion."⁸⁷

Conclusion

In this short article, we have not been able to do more than outline what we know about al-Dhahabī's use of Ibn Sīnā's works as a source. The manner in which al-Dhahabī used the materials he borrowed from Ibn Sīnā and other physicians – adapting and altering them in certain cases to suit his own purposes – still needs to be examined more closely. The proliferation of Prophetic medical writing into an extensive medical system has been demonstrated in the work of al-Dhahabī, which was no longer mere specialised *hadīth* literature, but introduced an analysis of the primary subjects of medical theory and practice.

In the *Tibb*, al-Dhahabī summarised the section on the theoretical rules of medicine and added commentaries connecting these theories to the Prophet being the most perfect and balanced human being. The presentation by al-Dhahabī, in fact, brings the *Tibb* in line with the contents of the Greek medical corpus. The factor that al-Dhahabī found attractive in Ibn Sīnā's writings was, without doubt, Ibn Sīnā's authority as well as the clear, systematic presentation of material. This would have been the case especially when he turned to the $Q\bar{a}n\bar{u}n$ of Ibn Sīnā as a source for his theoretical principles of medicine.

Similarly, it was no doubt the comprehensive and rational treatment of material in the *al-Tibb al-*

⁸⁶ Ibid.

⁸⁷ Al-Dhahabī, *al-Ţibb al-Nabawī*, 24.

Nabawī that inspired and prompted al-Dhahabī to use this work as a source in composing a new type of work, which had no precedent in the Prophetic medicine genre. Al-Dhahabī not only used Ibn Sīnā's work to provide a structure around which to build his writings, but also borrowed the contents of large portions.

For al-Dhahabī to borrow as much as he did, he must have agreed with much of Ibn Sīnā had said and found what he saw in Ibn Sīnā's writings congenial and convenient for his purposes. It is significant that al-Dhahabī, as a master of the *hadīth* tradition, could borrow so much from a leading scholar of Islamic philosophy, not only in matters pertaining to the medical sciences, but also in matters that lay at the core of his philosophical activities.

This convergence tells us much about what the two schools of thought represented by these two men shared. More than any other $had\bar{i}th$ scholar, al-Dhahabī dedicated his teachings to clarifying the authenticity of the Prophetic tradition in all things and the necessity of Muslims conforming to this practice. The arguments he offers are at once scriptural and practical, scientific and ethical. He tries to address every dimension of human existence and speaks constantly of the inherent goodness of the social practice respecting the rights of all medical practitioners.

If there is a single scriptural theme to his *al-Tibb al-Nabawī* writings, after tawhīd, it is certainly the hadīth: "The best of you are those who are finest in character." He reads this in conjunction with the 'Ā'ishah insistence that the character of the Prophet is the Quran. He understands this to mean that the Prophet is the most perfect of human beings, and that this perfection originated from equilibrium of nature to the rightness and appropriateness of all things – to the extent of human beings formed the

Prophet in the image of "the most evenly balanced of creation."

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