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The Ismaili Dacwa outside the Fatimid Dawla

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The Ismailis separated from the rest of the Imāmī Shīcīs on the death of the Imām Jacfar al-Şādiq in 148/765. By the middle of the 3rd/9th century, the Ismailis had organized a secret, religio-political movement designated as al-da wa (the mission) or, more precisely, al-da wa al-hādiya (the rightly guiding mission). The overall aim of this dynamic and centrally-directed movement of social protest was to uproot the cAbbasids and install the Alid imam acknowledged by the Ismailis to the actual rule of the Islamic community (umma). The revolutionary message of the Ismaili da^cwa was systematically propagated by a network of $d\bar{a}^c\bar{s}$ or religio-political missionaries in different parts of the Muslim world, from Transoxania to Yaman and North Africa.

The Ismaili $d\bar{a}^c\bar{t}$ s summoned the Muslims everywhere to accord their allegiance to the Ismaili imām-Mahdī, who was expected to deliver the believers from the oppressive rule of the 'Abbāsids and establish justice and a more equitable social order in the world. Thus, the Ismaili da^cwa also promised to restore the leadership of the Muslims to 'Alids, members of the ahl al-bayt or the Prophet Muhammad's family, whose legitimate rights to leadership had been successively usurped by the Umayyads and the 'Abbāsids'. The Ismaili $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s won an increasing number of converts among a multitude of discontented groups of diverse social backgrounds. Among such groups mention may be made of the landless peasantry and Bedouin tribesmen whose interests were set apart from those of the prospering urban classes. The $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s also capitalized on regional grievances. On the basis of a well-designed da^cwa strategy, the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}s$ were initially more successful in nonurban milieus, removed from the administrative centres of the 'Abbāsid caliphate. This explains the early spread of Ismailism among rural inhabitants and Bedouin tribesmen of the Arab lands, notably in southern Iraq, eastern Arabia (Bahrayn) and Yaman. In contrast, in the Iranian lands, especially in the Jibāl, Khurāsān and Transoxania, the daewa was primarily addressed to the ruling classes and the educated elite.

The early Ismaili da wa achieved particular success among those Imāmī Shīcīs of Iraq, Persia and elsewhere, later designated as Ithnācashariyya (Twelvers), who had been left in a state of disarray and confusion following the death of their eleventh imam and the simultaneous disappearance of his infant son Muhammad in 260/874. These Imamis shared the same early theological heritage with the Ismailis, especially the Imami doctrine of the imamate. This doctrine, which provided the central teaching of the Twelver and Ismaili Shīcīs, was based on the belief in the permanent need of mankind for a divinely guided, sinless and infallible (ma'sūm) imām who, after the Prophet Muhammad, would act as the authoritative teacher and guide of men in all their spiritual affairs. This imam was entitled to temporal leadership as much as to religious authority; his mandate,

¹ See F. Daftary, "The Earliest Ismā°īlīs", Arabica, 38 (1991), p. 214-245.

however, did not depend on his actual rule. The doctrine further taught that the Prophet himself had designated his cousin and son-in-law c Alī b. Abī Tālib (d. 40/661), who was married to the Prophet's daughter Fāṭima, as his successor under divine command; and that the imāmate was to be transmitted from father to son among the descendants of c Alī and Fāṭima, through their son al-Husayn (d. 61/680) until the end of time. This c Alid imām was in possession of a special knowledge or c ilm, and had perfect understanding of the exoteric ($z\bar{a}hir$) and esoteric ($b\bar{a}tin$) meanings of the Qur'ān and the commandments and prohibitions of the $shar\bar{i}^{c}a$ or the sacred law of Islam. Recognition of this imām, the sole legitimate imām at any time, and obedience to him were made the absolute duties of every believer.

By 286/899, when the Ismailis themselves split into the loyal Fatimid Ismaili and the dissident Qarmațī factions, significant Ismaili communities had appeared in numerous regions of the Arab world and throughout the Iranian lands, as well as in North Africa where the Kutāma and other Berber tribal confederations had responded to the summons of the Ismaili dacwa. The dissident Qarmațīs did not acknowledge the imāmate of cAbd Allāh al-Mahdī (the future founder of the Fatimid caliphate) and his predecessors, the central leaders of early Ismailism, as well as his successors in the Fatimid dynasty. In the same eventful year 286/899, the Qarmațīs founded a powerful state of their own in Bahrayn, which survived in rivalry with the Fatimid state until 470/1077.

The success of the early Ismaili da^cwa was crowned in 297/909 by the establishment of the Fatimid state or dawla in North Africa, in Ifrīqiya (today's Tunisia and eastern Algeria). The foundation of this Fatimid Ismaili Shīcī caliphate represented not only a great success for the Ismācīliyya, who now possessed for the first time a state under the leadership of their imām, but for the entire Shīca. Not since the time of 'Alī, had the Shīca witnessed the succession of an 'Alīd to the actual leadership of an important Islamic state. By acquiring political power, and then transforming the nascent Fatimid dawla into a flourishing empire, the Ismaili imām presented his Shīcī challenge to 'Abbāsid hegemony and Sunnī interpretations of Islam. Ismailism, too, had now found its own place among the state-sponsored communities of interpretation in Islam. Henceforth, the Fatimid caliph-imām could claim to act as the spiritual spokesman of Shīcī Islam in general, much like the 'Abbāsid caliph was the mouthpiece of Sunnī Islam.

On 20 Rabī^c II 297/4 January 910, the Ismaili Imām ^cAbd Allāh al-Mahdī made his triumphant entry into Raqqāda, the Aghlabid capital in Ifrīqiya, where he was acclaimed as caliph by the Kutāma Berbers and the notables of the uprooted Aghlabid state. On the following day, the *khutba* was pronounced for the first time in all the mosques of Qayrawān in the name of ^cAbd Allāh al-Mahdī. At the same time, a manifesto was read from the pulpits announcing that leadership had finally come to be vested in the *ahl al-bayt*. As one of the first acts of the new regime, the jurists of Ifrīqiya were instructed to give their legal opinions in accordance with the Shī^cī principles of jurisprudence. The new caliphate and dynasty came to be known as Fatimid (Fāṭimiyya), derived from the name of the Prophet's daughter Fāṭima, to whom al-Mahdī and his successors traced their ancestry.

The ground for the establishment of the Fatimid caliphate in Ifrīqiya had been carefully prepared since 280/893 by the $d\bar{a}^{c}\bar{\imath}$ Abū can Allāh al-Shīci, who had been active among the Kutāma Berbers of the Lesser Kabylia. It was from his base in the Maghrib that the $d\bar{a}^{c}\bar{\imath}$ al-Shīci converted the bulk of the Kutāma Berbers; and with the help of his Kutāma armies he eventually seized all of Ifrīqiya. It is to be noted, however, that Shīcism had never taken deep roots in North Africa,

² See, for example, Abū Ja°far Muḥammad b. Ya°qūb al-Kulaynī, al-Uṣūl min al-kāfī, ed. A.A. al-Ghaffārī (Tehran, 1388/1963), vol. 1, p. 168-548.

³ On the schism of 286/899 in Ismailism, and the subsequent hostile relations between the Fatimids and the Qarmatis, see W. Madelung, "The Fatimids and the Qarmatis of Baḥrayn", in F. Daftary, ed., Mediaeval Isma ili History and Thought (Cambridge, 1996), p. 21-73; F. Daftary, "A Major Schism in the Early Ismā ili Movement", Studia Islamica, 77 (1993), p. 123-139, and his "Carmatians", Encyclopaedia Iranica, vol. 4, p. 823-832.

where the native Berbers generally adhered to diverse schools of Khārijism while Qayrawān, founded as a garrison town and inhabited by Arab warriors, remained the stronghold of Mālikī Sunnism. Under such circumstances, the newly converted Berbers' understanding of Ismailism, which at the time still lacked a distinctive school of law (madhhab), was rather superficial – a phenomenon that remained essentially unchanged in subsequent decades. The $d\bar{a}^c\bar{i}$ al-Shī $^c\bar{i}$ personally taught the Kutāma initiates Ismaili tenets in regular lectures. These lectures were known as the "sessions of wisdom" (majālis al-hikma), as esoteric Ismaili doctrine was referred to as "wisdom" or hikma. Abū "Abd Allāh al-Shī $^c\bar{i}$ instructed his subordinate $d\bar{a}^c\bar{i}$ to hold similar sessions in the areas under their jurisdiction. Later, the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{i}$ al-Shī $^c\bar{i}$'s brother Abu'l-'Abbās, another learned $d\bar{a}^c\bar{i}$ of high intellectual calibre, held public disputations with the leading Mālikī jurists of Qayrawān, expounding the Shī $^c\bar{i}$ foundations of the new regime and the legitimate rights of the ahl al-bayt to the leadership of the Islamic community. The ground was thus rapidly laid also doctrinally for the establishment of the new Shī $^c\bar{i}$ caliphate.

The Fatimid caliph-imām al-Mahdī (d. 322/934) and his next three successors, ruling from Ifrīqiya, encountered numerous difficulties while consolidating the pillars of their state. In addition to the continued animosity of the 'Abbāsids, and the Umayyads of Spain, who as rival claimants to the caliphate entertained their own designs for North Africa, the early Fatimids had numerous military entanglements with the Byzantines. They also devoted much of their energy to subduing the rebellions of the Khārijī Berbers, especially those belonging to the Zanāta confederation, and the hostilities of the Sunnī inhabitants of the cities of Ifrīqiya led by their influential Mālikī jurists. All this made it extremely difficult for the early Fatimids to secure control over any region of the Maghrib, beyond the heartland of Ifrīqiya, for any extended period. It also made the propagation of the Ismaili da'wa rather impractical in the Maghrib. In fact, 'Abd Allāh al-Mahdī and his immediate successors did not actively engage in the extension of their da'wa in order to avoid hostile reactions of the majoritarian Khārijī and Sunnī inhabitants of North Africa. Nevertheless, the Ismailis were now for the first time permitted to practise their faith openly and without fearing persecution within Fatimid dominions, while outside the boundaries of their state they were obliged, as before, to observe taqiyya or precautionary dissimulation of their true beliefs.

In line with their universal claims the Fatimid caliph-imams had, however, not abandoned their dacwa aspirations on assuming power. Claiming to possess sole legitimate religious authority, the Fatimids aimed to extend their authority and rule over the entire Muslim umma and even the regions of the world inhabited by non-Muslims. As a result, they retained the network of $d\tilde{a}^c$ is operating on their behalf both within and outside Fatimid dominions, although initially they effectively refrained from dacwa activities within the Fatimid state. It took the Fatimids several decades to formally establish their rule in North Africa. Only the fourth Fatimid caliph-imām, al-Mucizz (341-365/953-975), was able to pursue successfully policies of war and diplomacy, also concerning himself specifically with the affairs of the Ismaili da'wa. His overall aim was to extend the universal authority of the Fatimids at the expense of their major rivals, namely, the Umayyads of Spain, the Byzantines and above all, the 'Abbāsids. The process of codifying Ismaili law, too, attained its climax under al-Mucizz mainly through the efforts of al-Qāḍī al-Nucmān (d. 363/974), the foremost Fatimid jurist. Al-Mucizz officially commissioned al-Nucman, who headed the Fatimid judiciary from 337/948 in the reign of the third Fatimid caliph-imām al-Manṣūr, to promulgate an Ismaili madhhab. His efforts culminated in the compilation of the Daca'im al-Islam (The Pillars of Islam), which was endorsed by al-Mucizz as the official code of the Fatimid dawla. The Ismailis,

⁴ The propagation of the Ismaili da^cwa in North Africa, culminating in the establishment of the Fatimid state, is treated in al-Qādī Abū Hanīfa al-Nu^cmān b. Muḥammad's *Iftitāḥ al-da^cwa*, ed. W. al-Qādī (Beirut, 1970), p. 71-222; ed. F. Dachraoui (Tunis, 1975), p. 47-257. See also F. Dachraoui, *Le Califat Fatimide au Maghreb*, 296-365 H./909-975 JC. (Tunis, 1981), p. 57-122; F. Daftary, *The Ismā^cīlīs: Their History and Doctrines* (Cambridge, 1990), p. 134 ff., 144-173, and H. Halm, *The Empire of the Mahdi: The Rise of the Fatimids*, tr. M. Bonner (Leiden, 1996), p. 9-128.

too, now possessed a system of law and jurisprudence as well as an Ismaili paradigm of governance.

As developed by al-Nucman, Ismaili law accorded special importance to the central Shīcī doctrine of the imamate. In fact, the opening chapter in the $Da^c\bar{a}$ im al-Islām, which relates to walāya, explains the necessity of acknowledging the rightful imām of the time, viz., the Fatimid caliph-imām, also providing Islamic legitimation for the °Alid state ruled by the Fatimids belonging to the Prophet's family. In fact, the authority of the infallible Fatimid Alid imām and his teachings were listed as the third principal source of Ismaili law, after the Qur'an and the sunna of the Prophet which are accepted as the first two sources by all Muslims. In sum, it was al-Qādī al-Nu^cmān who elaborated in his legal compendia a doctrinal basis for the Fatimids' legitimacy as ruling caliph-imāms, also lending support to their universal claims.5

Al-Mucizz, as noted, was the first member of his dynasty to have concerned himself with the Ismaili da'wa outside Fatimid dominions. In addition to preparing the ideological ground for Fatimid rule, his dacwa strategy was based on a number of more specific religio-political considerations. The propaganda of the Qarmațīs of Bahrayn, Iraq, Persia and elsewhere, who had continuously refused to recognize the im \bar{a} mate of the Fatimids, generally undermined the Ismaili da^cwa and the activities of the Fatimid $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}s$ in the same regions. It was, indeed, mainly due to the doctrines and practices of the Qarmatīs that the entire Ismaili movement was accused by the Sunnī polemicists and heresiographers of ilhād or deviation in religion, as these hostile sources did not distinguish between the dissident Qarmatīs and those Ismailis who acknowledged the Fatimid caliphs as their imams. The anti-Ismaili literary campaign of the Sunni establishment, dating mainly to the foundation of Fatimid rule, was particularly intensified in the aftermath of the Qarmațīs' sack of Mecca in 317/930. At any rate, al-Mucizz must have also recognized the military advantages of winning the support of the formidable Qarmatī armies, which would have significantly enhanced the chances of the Fatimids' victory over the cAbbasids in the central Islamic lands. It was in line with these objectives that al-Mucizz made certain doctrinal adjustments, rooted in the teachings of the early Ismailis and designed to prove appealing to the Qarmatīs. Perhaps as a concession to the Qarmatī camp, al-Mucizz and the Fatimid dacwa also endorsed the Neoplatonized cosmology first propounded by the Qarmatī $d\bar{a}^{c}$ ī Muḥammad al-Nasafī (d. 332/943) in his Kitāb al-maḥṣūl (Book of the Yield) around 300/912. Henceforth, this new cosmology was generally advocated by the Fatimid da'wa in preference to the mythological Kūnī-Qadar cosmology of the early Ismailis.7

The dacwa strategy of al-Mucizz won some success in the dissident camp outside the confines of the Fatimid state. The $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ AbūYacqūb al-Sijistānī, who had hitherto belonged to the Qarmaṭī faction, switched his allegiance to the Fatimid da wa. As a result, large numbers of the Qarmatīs of Khurāsān, Sīstān (Arabicized, Sijistān), Makrān and Central Asia, where al-Sijistānī acted as chief $d\bar{a}^{r}$ in succession to al-Nasafī and his sons, also acknowledged the Fatimid Ismaili imām. Al-Sijistānī was executed as a heretic (mulhid) not long after 361/971 on the order of Khalaf b. Ahmad, the Saffarid amīr of Sīstān, but Ismailism survived in the eastern regions of the Iranian

⁵ See al-Qāḍī al-Nu°mān, Da°ā'im al-Islām, ed. A. A. A. Fyzee (Cairo, 1951-61), vol. 1, p. 1-98; partial English trans. The Book of Faith, tr. A. A. A. Fyzee (Bombay, 1974), p. 4-111; A. Nanji, "An Ismā'īlī Theory of Walāyah in the Da'ā' im al-Islām of Qādī al-Nu^emān", in D. P. Little, ed., Essays on Islamic Civilization Presented to Niyazi Berkes (Leiden, 1976), p. 260-273, and I. K. Poonawala, "al-Qāḍī al-Nu^cmān and Isma^cili Jurisprudence", in Daftary, ed., Mediaeval

⁶ S. M. Stern, "Heterodox Ismācīlism at the Time of al-Mucizz", Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies, 17 (1955), p. 10-33, reprinted in his Studies in Early Ismā'ilism (Jerusalem-Leiden, 1983), p. 257-288; W. Madelung, "Das Imamat in der frühen ismailitischen Lehre", Der Islam, 37 (1961), p. 86-101, and Daftary, The Ismā'ilīs, p. 176-180, where additional sources are cited.

⁷ On these developments, see S. M. Stern, "The Earliest Cosmological Doctrines of Ismā'īlism", in his Studies, p. 3-29; H. Halm, "The Cosmology of the Pre-Fatimid Ismā'iliyya", in Daftary, ed., Mediaeval Isma'ili History, p. 75-83, and Paul E. Walker, Abū Yacqūb al-Sijistānī: Intellectual Missionary (London, 1996), p. 26-103.

world. Fatimid Ismā^cīlism also succeeded in acquiring a permanent stronghold in Sind, in northern India, where Ismaili communities have survived to modern times. Around 347/958, through the efforts of a Fatimid $d\bar{a}^c\bar{i}$ who converted a local Hindu ruler, an Ismaili principality was established in Sind, with its seat in Multan (in present-day Pakistan). Large numbers of Hindus converted to Ismailism in that region of the Indian subcontinent, where the *khutba* was read in the name of al-Mu^cizz and the Fatimids. This Ismaili principality survived until 396/1005 when Sultan Maḥmūd of Ghazna invaded Multan and persecuted the Ismailis. Despite the hostilities of the Ghaznawids and their successors, however, Ismailism survived in Sind and later received the protection of the Sūmras, who ruled independently from Thatta for almost three centuries starting in 443/1051. On the other hand, Qarmatism persisted in Daylam, Ādharbāyjān and other parts of Persia, as well as in Iraq and Central Asia for almost a century after al-Mu^cizz. Above all, al-Mu^cizz failed to win the support of the Qarmatīs of Bahrayn, who effectively frustrated the Fatimids' strategy of eastern expansion into Syria and other central Islamic lands.

Meanwhile, al-Mu^cizz had made detailed plans for the conquest of Egypt, a vital Fatimid goal which the first two members of the dynasty had failed to achieve. To that end, the Fatimid da^cwa was intensified in Egypt, then beset by numerous economic and political difficulties under disintegrating Ikhshīdid rule. Jawhar, the capable Fatimid commander who had pacified North Africa for al-Mu^cizz, was selected to lead the Egyptian expedition. Having encountered only token resistance, Jawhar entered Fusṭāt, the capital of Ikhshīdid Egypt, in Sha^cbān 358/July 969. Jawhar behaved leniently towards Egyptians, declaring a general amnesty. Subsequently, the Fatimids introduced the Ismaili madhhab only gradually in Egypt, where Shī^cism had never acquired a stronghold. Fatimid Egypt remained primarily Sunnī, of the Shāfi^cī madhhab, with an important community of Christian Copts. The Fatimids never attempted forced conversion of their subjects and the minoritarian status of the Shī^ca remained unchanged in Egypt despite two centuries of Ismaili Shī^cī rule.

Jawhar camped his army to the north of Fustāt and immediately proceeded to build a new royal city there, the future Fatimid capital al-Qāhira (Cairo). Al-Mu°izz had personally supervised the plan of Cairo with its al-Azhar mosque and Fatimid palace complex. Jawhar ruled over Egypt for four years until the arrival of al-Mu°izz. In line with the eastern strategy of the Fatimids, in 359/969 Jawhar dispatched the main body of the Fatimid armies for the conquest of Palestine and Syria. In the following year, the Fatimids were defeated near Damascus by a coalition of the Qarmatīs of Bahrayn, Būyids and other powers. Later in 361/971, the Qarmatīs of Bahrayn advanced to the gates of Fustāt before being driven back. Henceforth, there occurred numerous military encounters between the Fatimids and the Qarmatīs of Bahrayn, postponing the establishment of Fatimid rule over Syria for several decades.

In the meantime, al-Mu^cizz had made meticulous preparations for the transference of the seat of the Fatimid state to Egypt. He appointed Buluggīn b. Zīrī, the *amīr* of the loyal Ṣanhāja Berbers, as governor of Ifrīqiya. Buluggīn, like his father, had faithfully defended the Fatimids against the Zanāta Berbers and other enemies in North Africa; and he was to found the Zīrid dynasty of the Maghrib (361-543/972-1148). Accompanied by the entire Fatimid family, Ismaili notables, Kutāma chieftains, as well as the Fatimid treasuries and the coffins of his predecessors, al-Mu^cizz crossed the Nile and took possession of his new capital in Ramaḍān 362/June 973. In Egypt, al-Mu^cizz was mainly preoccupied with the elaboration of Fatimid governance in addition to repelling further

⁸ S. M. Stern, "Ismācīlī Propaganda and Fatimid Rule in Sind", Islamic Culture, 23 (1949), p. 298-307, reprinted in his Studies, p. 177-188; A. Hamdani, The Beginnings of the Ismācīlī Dacwa in Northern India (Cairo, 1956), p. 3-16, and Halm, Empire of the Mahdi, p. 385-392.

⁹ The gradual establishment and decline of Fatimid rule in Syria is treated at length in Thierry Bianquis, Damas et la Syrie sous la domination fatimide, 359-468/969-1076 (Damascus, 1986-89), 2 vols.

Qarmatī incursions. Having transformed the Fatimid dawla from a regional power into an expanding and stable empire with a newly activated da^cwa apparatus, al-Mu^cizz died in 365/975.

Cairo served from early on as the central headquarters of the Fatimid Ismaili $da^c wa$ organization that developed over time and reached its peak under the eighth Fatimid caliph-imām al-Mustanṣir (427-487/1036-1094). The religio-political message of the $da^c wa$ continued to be disseminated both within and outside the Fatimid state through an expanding network of $d\bar{a}^c \bar{\imath}s$. The term $da^c wa$, it may be noted, referred to both the organization of the Ismaili mission, with its elaborate hierarchical ranks or $hud\bar{u}d$, and the functioning of that organization, including especially the missionary activities of the $d\bar{a}^c \bar{\imath}s$ who were the representatives of the $da^c wa$ in different regions.

The organization and functioning of the Ismaili da^cwa are among the most secretly guarded aspects of Fatimid Ismailism. It is not surprising, therefore, that the Ismaili literature of the Fatimid period recovered in modern times has shed only limited light on this subject. Information is particularly meagre regarding the da^cwa and the activities of the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}s$ in hostile regions outside the Fatimid dawla, such as Iraq, Persia, Central Asia and India, where the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}s$, fearful of persecution, were continuously obliged to observe taqiyya and secrecy in their operations. All this once again explains why Ismaili literature is generally so poor in historiographical details on the activities of the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}s$ -information that in Fatimid times may have been available only to the central headquarters of the Ismaili da^cwa , headed by the person of the imām. However, modern scholarship in Ismaili studies, drawing on a variety of Ismaili and non-Ismaili sources, including histories of Egypt, has now finally succeeded to piece together a relatively reliable sketch of the Fatimid Ismaili da^cwa , with some of its major practices and institutions.

The Fatimids, as noted, aspired to be recognized as rightful imams by the entire Muslim umma; they also aimed to extend their actual rule over all Muslim lands and beyond. These were, indeed, the central objectives of their da wa, which continued to be designated as al-da wa al-hādiya, the rightly guiding summons to mankind to follow the Fatimid Ismaili imâm. The word $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$, literally meaning "summoner", was used by several Muslim groups and movements, including the early Shī°ī ghulāt, the 'Abbāsids, the Mu'tazila, and the Zaydiyya, in reference to their religio-political missionaries. But the term acquired its widest application in connection with the Ismā°īliyya, while the early Ismailis and Qarmatīs in Persia and elsewhere sometimes used other designations such as $jan\bar{a}h$ (plural, ajniha) instead of $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$. It should also be noted that at least from Fatimid times several categories of $d\bar{a}^c\bar{i}$ s existed in any region. Be that as it may, the term $d\bar{a}^c\bar{i}$ (plural, $du^c\bar{a}t$) was applied generically to any authorized representative of the Fatimid dacwa, a missionary responsible for propagating Ismailism through winning new converts, and followers for the Ismaili imam of the time. As the provision of instruction in Ismaili doctrine for the initiates was from early on an important responsibility of the da^cwa , the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ was also entrusted with the religious education of the new converts or mustajībs. Furthermore, the Ismaili $d\bar{a}^{c}\bar{\imath}$ served as the unofficial agent of the Fatimid dawla, and promoted secretly the Fatimid cause wherever he operated. The earliest record of this aspect of the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$'s activity is best exemplified in the achievements of the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ Abū 'Abd Allāh al-Shī'ī (d. 298/911) in North Africa. Within Fatimid dominions, the Ismaili da'wa was protected by the Fatimid dawla and doubtless some collaborative relationship must have existed between them as both were headed by the person of the caliph-imām.10

Despite his all-important role, however, very little seems to have been written on the $da^c\bar{\imath}$ by the Ismaili authors of Fatimid times. The prolific al-Qādī al-Nu^cmān, head of the da^cwa for some time, devoted only a few pages to the virtues of an ideal $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$. He merely emphasizes that the

¹⁰ See, for instance, Abū Ya°qūb al-Sijistānī, Ithbāt al-nubuwwāt, ed. "Ārif Tāmir (Beirut, 1966), p. 91, 100, 128; W. Madelung and P. E. Walker, An Ismaili Heresiography: The "Bāb al-Shayṭān" from AbūTammām's Kitāb al-Shajara (Leiden, 1998), text p. 7, 132, translation p. 26, 120, and A. Hamdani, "Evolution of the Organisational Structure of the Fāṭimī Da°wah", Arabian Studies, 3 (1976), p. 85-114.

¹¹ Al-Qādī al-Nu°mān, Kitāb al-himma fī ādāb atbā° al-a'imma, ed. M. Kāmil Ḥusayn (Cairo, 1948), p. 136-140.

 da^cwa was above all a teaching activity and that the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s were teachers who promoted their message also through their own exemplary knowledge and behaviour. A more detailed discussion of the attributes of an ideal $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ is contained in the only known Ismaili work on the subject written by the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ -author Ahmad b. Ibrāhīm al-Nīsābūrī, al-Nucmān's younger contemporary. According to al-Nīsābūrī, a $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ could be appointed only by the imām's permission (idhn). The $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s, especially those operating in remote lands outside Fatimid dominions, seem to have enjoyed a high degree of autonomy, and they evidently received only their general directives from the central da^cwa headquarters. In these generally hostile regions, the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s operated very secretly, finding it rather difficult to establish frequent contacts with the da^cwa headquarters in Cairo.

Under these circumstances, only Ismailis of high educational qualifications combined with proper moral and intellectual attributes could become $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s leading Ismaili communities in particular localities. The $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s were expected to have sufficient knowledge of both the $z\bar{a}hir$ and the $b\bar{a}tin$ dimensions of religion, or the apparent meanings of the Qur'ān and the $shar\bar{\imath}^c a$ and their Ismaili interpretation $(ta'w\bar{\imath}l)$. In non-Fatimid lands, the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ also acted as a judge in communal disputes and his decisions were binding for the members of the local Ismaili community. Thus, the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ was often trained in legal sciences as well. The $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ was expected to be adequately familiar with the teachings of non-Muslim religions, in addition to knowing the languages and customs of the region in which he functioned. All these qualifications were required for the orderly performance of the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$'s duties. As a result, a great number of $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ were highly learned and cultured scholars and made important contributions to Islamic thought. They also produced the bulk of the Ismaili literature of the Fatimid period in Arabic, dealing with a diversity of exoteric and esoteric subjects ranging from jurisprudence and theology to philosophy and esoteric exegesis. Nāṣir-ī Khusraw was the only major Fatimid $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ to have written his books in Persian.

Like other aspects of the da^cwa , few details are available on the actual methods used by the Fatimid $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ for winning and educating new converts. Always avoiding mass proselytization, the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ had to be personally acquainted with the prospective initiates, who were selected with special regard to their intellectual abilities and talents. Many Sunnī sources, influenced by anti-Ismaili polemical writings, mention a seven-stage process of initiation ($bal\bar{a}gh$) into Ismailism, and even provide different names for each stage in a process that allegedly led the novice to the ultimate stage of irreligiosity and unbelief. There is no evidence for any fixed graded system in the extant Ismaili literature, although a certain degree of gradualism in the initiation and education of converts must have been unavoidable. Indeed, al-Nīsābūrī relates that the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ was expected to instruct the mustajīb in a gradual fashion, not divulging too much at any given time; the act of initiation itself was perceived by the Ismailis as the spiritual rebirth of the adept.

It was the duty of the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ to administer to the initiate an oath of allegiance (°ahd or $m\bar{\imath}th\bar{a}q$) to the Ismaili imām of the time. As part of this oath, the initiate also pledged to maintain secrecy in Ismaili doctrines taught to him by the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$. Only after this oath the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ began instructing the mustaj $\bar{\imath}b$, usually in regular "teaching sessions" held at his house for a number of such adepts. The funds required by the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ for the performance of his various duties were raised locally from the

¹² Al-Nīsābūrī's treatise, al-Risālā al-mūjaza al-kāfīya fi ādāb al-du'āt, has not been recovered so far, but it has been preserved in later Ismaili sources. A facsimile edition of the version preserved by Ḥasan b. Nūḥ Bharūchī (d. 939/1533), an Indian Ismaili scholar, is contained in Verena Klemm, Die Mission des fāṭimidischen Agenten al-Mu'ayyad fī d-dīn in Šhīrāz (Frankfurt, 1989), p. 206-277. The same text provided the basis for W. Ivanow's "The Organization of the Fatimid Propaganda", Journal of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, NS, 15 (1939), p. 18-35.

¹³ For a comprehensive survey of this literature, see I. K. Poonawala, *Biobibliography of Ismāʿīlī Literature* (Malibu, Calif., 1977), p. 35-132.

¹⁴ Shihāb al-Dīn Aḥmad al-Nuwayrī, Nihāyat al-arab, vol. 25, ed. M. J. °A. al-Ḥīnī et al. (Cairo, 1984), p. 195-225; Ibn al-Dawādārī, Kanz al-durar, vol. 6, ed. Ş. al-Munajjid (Cairo, 1961), p. 97 ff.; 'Abd al-Qāhir b. Ṭāhir al-Baghdādī, al-Farq bayn al-firaq, ed. N. Badr (Cairo, 1328/1910), p. 282 ff., and Abū Ḥāmid Muḥammad al-Ghazālī, Faḍā'iḥ al-Bāṭiniyya, ed. 'Abd al-Raḥmān Badawī (Cairo, 1964), p. 21-36.

members of his community. The $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ kept a portion of the funds collected on behalf of the imām, including the $zak\bar{a}t$, the *khums* and certain Ismaili-specific dues like the $najw\bar{a}$, to finance his local operations and sent the remainder to the imām through reliable couriers. The latter, especially those going to Cairo from remote da^cwa regions, also brought back Ismaili books for the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}s$. The Fatimid $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}s$ were, thus, kept well informed on the intellectual developments within Ismailism, especially those endorsed by the da^cwa headquarters.

The scholarly qualifications required of the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s and the Fatimids' high esteem for learning resulted in a number of distinctive traditions and institutions under the Fatimids. The da^cwa was, as noted, concerned with the religious education of converts, who had to be duly instructed in Ismaili esoteric doctrine or hikma. For that purpose, a variety of "teaching sessions", generally designated as majālis (singular, majlis), were organized. These sessions, addressed to different audiences, were formalized by the time of the Fatimid caliph-imām al-Hākim (386-411/996-1021).15 The lectures on Ismaili doctrine, the majālis al-hikma, as noted, were initiated by the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ Abū^cAbd Allāh al-Shī°ī, and then systematized by al-Qādī al-Nucmān. In the Fatimid state, from early on, the private majālis al-hikma, organized for the exclusive benefit of the Ismaili initiates, were held separately for men and women. These lectures, delivered by the chief $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ $(d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}\ al-du^c\bar{a}t)$ who was often also the chief $q\bar{a}d\bar{t}$ ($q\bar{a}d\bar{t}$ al-qud $\bar{a}t$) of the Fatimid state, required the prior approval of the Fatimid caliph-imām. There were also public lectures on Ismaili law. The legal doctrines of the Ismaili madhhab, adopted as the official system of religious law in the Fatimid state, were applied by the Fatimid judiciary, headed by the chief $q\bar{a}d\bar{t}$. But the Ismaili legal code, governing the juridical basis of the daily life of the Muslim subjects of the Fatimid state, was new and its precepts had to be explained to Ismaili as well as non-Ismaili Muslims. As a result, public sessions on the $shar\bar{\imath}^c a$ as interpreted by Ismaili jurisprudence, were held by al-Qāḍī al-Nu^cmān and his successors as chief qādīs, after the Friday midday prayers, in the Fatimid capital. In Cairo, the public sessions on Ismaili law were held at al-Azhar and other great mosques there. On these occasions, excerpts from al-Nu^cmān's Da^cā'im al-Islām and other legal works were read to large audiences.

On the other hand, the private $maj\bar{a}lis$ al-hikma continued to be held in the Fatimid palace in Cairo for the Ismaili initiates who had already taken the oath of allegiance and secrecy. Many of these $maj\bar{a}lis$, normally prepared by or for the chief $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$, were in time collected in writing. This distinctive Fatimid tradition of learning found its culmination in the $Maj\bar{a}lis$ of al-Mu'ayyad fi'l-Dīn al-Shīrāzī (d. 470/1078), chief $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ for almost twenty years under al-Mustanṣir. Fatimid $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s working outside Fatimid dominions seem to have held similar "teaching sessions" for the education of the Ismaili initiates. In non-Fatimid territories, the Ismailis observed the law of the land wherever they lived, while taking their personal disputes to local Ismaili $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s. The Fatimids paid particular attention to the training of their $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s, including those operating outside the confines of the Fatimid state. Among the Fatimid institutions of learning mention should be made of the Dār al-cIlm (House of Knowledge), founded in 395/1005 by al-Ḥākim in Cairo. A wide variety of religious and non-religious sciences were taught at this institution which was also equipped with a major library. Many Fatimid $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s received at least part of their education at the Dār al-cIlm. By later Fatimid times, the Dār al-cIlm more closely served the needs of the da^cwa .

The Fatimid da^cwa was organized hierarchically under the overall guidance of the Ismaili imām, who authorized its general policies. It should be noted that the da^cwa hierarchy or $hud\bar{u}d$ mentioned in various Fatimid texts seems to have had reference to a utopian situation, when the Ismaili imām

¹⁵ Taqî al-Dīn Ahmad al-Maqrīzī, Kitāb al-mawā'iz wa' l-i' tibār bi-dhikr al-khiṭat wa' l-āthār (Būlāq, 1270/1853-54), vol. 1, p. 390-391, vol. 2, p. 341-342; H. Halm, "The Isma'ili Oath of Allegiance ('ahd) and the 'Sessions of Wisdom' (majālis al-hikma) in Fatimid Times", in Daftary, ed., Mediaeval Isma'ili History, p. 91-115; his The Fatimids and their Traditions of Learning (London, 1997), especially p. 23-29, 41-55, and P. E. Walker, "Fatimid Institutions of Learning", Journal of the American Research Center in Egypt, 34 (1997), p. 179-200.

would rule the entire world. Consequently, the da^cwa ranks mentioned in these sources were not actually filled at all times; some of them were probably never filled at all. The chief $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ ($d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ aldu $^c\bar{a}t$) acted as the administrative head of the da^cwa organization. He appointed the provincial $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ of the Fatimid state, who were stationed in the main cities of the Fatimid provinces, including Damascus, Tyre, Acre, Ascalon, and Ramla, as well as in some rural areas. These $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ represented the da^cwa and the chief $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$, operating alongside the provincial $q\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}$ s who represented the Fatimid $q\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}$ al-qud $\bar{a}t$. The chief $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ also played a part in selecting the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s of non-Fatimid territories. Not much else is known about the functions of the chief $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$, who was closely supervised by the im $\bar{a}m$. As noted, he was also responsible for organizing the majālis al-hikma; and in Fatimid ceremonial, he ranked second after the chief $q\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}$, if both positions were not held by the same person. The title of $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ al- $du^c\bar{a}t$ itself, used in non-Ismaili sources, rarely appears in the Ismaili texts of the Fatimid period which, instead, usually use the term $b\bar{a}b$ (or $b\bar{a}b$ al- $abw\bar{a}b$), implying gateway to the im $\bar{a}m$'s "wisdom", in reference to the administrative head of the da^cwa organization. The $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ Hamīd al-Dīn al-Kirmānī makes particular allusions to the position of $b\bar{a}b$ and his closeness to the im $\bar{a}m$.

The organization of the Fatimid da^cwa, with its hierarchy of ranks, developed over time and reached its full elaboration under the caliph-imām al-Mustansir.19 There are different references to the da^cwa ranks ($hud\bar{u}d$) after the imam and his $b\bar{a}b$. According to the idealized scheme, the world, specifically the regions outside Fatimid dominions, was divided into twelve jazīras or "islands" for da wa purposes; each jazīra representing a separate da wa region. Delineated on the basis of a combination of geographic and ethnographic considerations, the "islands", collectively designated as the "islands of the earth" (jazā'ir al-ard), included Rūm (Byzantine), Daylam, standing for Persia, Sind, Hind (India), Sīn (China), and the regions inhabited by Arabs, Nubians, Khazars, Slavs (Ṣāqāliba), Berbers, Africans (Zanj), and Abyssinians (Habash).20 Other classifications of the "islands", too, seem to have been observed in practice. For instance, Nāṣir Khusraw refers to Khurāsān as a jazīra under his own jurisdiction; and this claim is corroborated by the well-informed Ibn Hawqal, who further adds that Balūchistān, in eastern Persia, belonged to that jazīra.21 In this sense, Khurāsān seems to have included neighbouring regions in today's Afghanistan and Central Asia. Among other regions functioning as jazīras of the Fatimid da wa, mention may be made of Yaman as well as Iraq and western Persia, for a time headed by the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ al-Kirmānī.

Each $jaz\bar{\imath}ra$ was placed under the overall charge of a high ranking $d\bar{a}^{c}\bar{\imath}$ known specifically as hujja (proof, guarantor), also called $naq\bar{\imath}b$, $l\bar{a}hiq$ or yad (hand) in early Fatimid times. The hujja was the highest representative of the $da^{c}wa$ in any "island", and he was assisted by a number of subordinate $d\bar{a}^{c}\bar{\imath}s$ of different ranks operating in the localities under his jurisdiction. These included $d\bar{a}^{c}\bar{\imath}$ al-bal $\bar{a}gh$, $al-d\bar{a}^{c}\bar{\imath}$ al-muțlaq, and $al-d\bar{a}^{c}\bar{\imath}$ al-ma $hd\bar{\imath}dd$ (or $al-mahs\bar{\imath}ur$). There may have been as many as thirty such $d\bar{a}^{c}\bar{\imath}s$ in some $jaz\bar{\imath}ras$. The particular responsibilities of different $d\bar{a}^{c}\bar{\imath}s$ are not

¹⁷ Aḥmad b. 'Alī al-Qalqashandī, Ṣubḥ al-a'shā (Cairo, 1331-38/1913-20), vol. 3, p. 483, vol. 8, p. 239-241, vol. 11, p. 61-66, and al-Maqrīzī, al-Khitat, vol. 1, p. 391, 403.

¹⁸ Ḥamīd al-Dīn al-Kirmānī, *Rāḥat al-ʿaql*, ed. M. Kāmil Ḥusayn and M. Muṣṭafā Ḥilmī (Cairo, 1953), p. 135, 138, 143, 152, 205-208, 212-214, 224, 260-262 and elsewhere.

¹⁹ See S. M. Stern, "Cairo as the Centre of the Ismā^cīlī Movement", in Colloque international sur l'histoire du Caire (Cairo, 1972), p. 437-450, reprinted in his Studies, p. 234-256; P. E. Walker, "The Ismaili Da^cwa in the Reign of the Fatimid Caliph al-Ḥākim", Journal of the American Research Center in Egypt, 30 (1993), p. 161-182; Daftary, The Ismā^cīlīs, p. 224-232, and his "Dā^cī", Encyclopaedia Iranica, vol. 6, p. 590-593.

²⁰ Al-Sijistānī, $Ithb\bar{a}t$, p. 172, al-Qāḍī al-Nu^cmān, $Ta'w\bar{\imath}l$ $al-da^c\bar{a}'im$, ed. M. Ḥ. al-A^czamī (Cairo, 1967-72), vol. 2, p. 74, and vol. 3, p. 48-49.

²¹ Nāṣir Khusraw, Zād al-musāfirīn, ed. M. Badhl al-Raḥmān (Berlin, 1341/1923), p. 397, and Ibn Ḥawqal, Kitāb ṣūrat al-ard, ed. J. H. Kramers (2nd ed., Leiden, 1938-39), p. 310.

²² Nāṣir Khusraw, Wajh-i dīn, ed. G. R. Acvānī (Tehran, 1977), p. 178.

clarified in the meagre sources. It seems, however, that $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ al-balāgh acted as liaison between the central da^cwa headquarters in the Fatimid capital and the hujja's headquarters in his $jaz\bar{\imath}ra$, and al- $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ al-mutlaq evidently became the chief functionary of the da^cwa , operating with absolute authority in the absence of the hujja and his $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ al-balāgh. The regional $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}s$, in turn, had their assistants, entitled al-ma'dhūn, the licentiate. The sources mention at least two categories of this rank, namely, al-ma'dhūn al-mutlaq, and al-ma'dhūn al-mahdūd (or al-mahsūr), eventually called al-mukāsir. The ma'dhūn al-mutlaq often became a $d\bar{a}^{c}\bar{\imath}$ himself; he was authorized as the chief licentiate to administer the oath of initiation and explain the rules and policies of the da^cwa to the initiates, while the mukāsir (literally, breaker) was mainly responsible for attracting prospective converts and breaking their attachments to other religions. The ordinary Ismaili initiates, the mustajībs or respondents who referred to themselves as the awliyā' Allāh or "friends of God", did not occupy a rank (hadd) at the bottom of the da'wa hierarchy. Belonging to the ahl al-da'wa (people of the mission), they represented the elite, the khawāṣṣ, as compared to the common Muslims, designated as the 'ammat al-Muslimin or the 'awamm. The ranks of the Fatimid da'wa, numbering to seven from $b\bar{a}b$ (or $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ al- $du^c\bar{a}t$) to mukāsir, together with their idealized functions and their corresponding celestial hierarchy, are elaborated by the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ al-Kirmāni.²³

The Fatimid da^cwa was propagated openly throughout the Fatimid state enjoying the protection of the government apparatus. But the success of the da^cwa within Fatimid dominions was both limited and transitory, with the major exception of Syria where different $Sh\bar{1}^c\bar{1}$ traditions had deep roots. During the North African phase of the Fatimid caliphate, Ismailism retained its minoritarian status in Ifr $\bar{1}$ qiya and other Fatimid territories in the Maghrib, where the spread of the da^cwa was effectively checked by M $\bar{1}$ lik $\bar{1}$ Sunnism and Kh $\bar{1}$ qiism. By 440/1048, Ismailism had virtually disappeared from the former Fatimid dominions in North Africa, where the Ismailis were severely persecuted after the departure of the Fatimids. In Fatimid Egypt, too, the Ismailis always remained a minority community. It was outside the Fatimid state, in the $jaz\bar{1}ras$, that the Fatimid Ismaili da^cwa achieved its greatest and most lasting success. Many of these "islands" in the Islamic world, scattered from Yaman to Transoxania, were well acquainted with a diversity of $Sh\bar{1}^c\bar{1}$ traditions, including Ismailism, and large numbers in these regions responded to the summons of the Ismaili $d\bar{a}^c\bar{1}$ s. By the time of the Fatimid caliph-im $\bar{1}$ m al-Mustansir, significant Ismaili communities representing a united movement had appeared in many of the $jaz\bar{1}ras$. By then, the dissident Qarma $\bar{1}$ s had either disintegrated or joined the dynamic Fatimid da^cwa .

In Iraq and Persia, the Fatimid $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s had systematically intensified their activities from the time of the sixth Fatimid caliph-imām al-Ḥākim. Aiming to undermine the °Abbāsids, they concentrated their efforts on a number of influential tribal $am\bar{\imath}rs$ in Iraq, at the very centre of °Abbāsid power. Foremost among the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}s$ of al-Ḥākim's reign was Ḥamīd al-Dīn al-Kirmānī (d. after 411/1020), perhaps the most learned Ismaili scholar of the entire Fatimid period. Designated as the hujjat al- °Irāqayn, as he spent a good part of his life as a chief $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ in both the Arab Iraq and the west-central parts of Persia, al-Kirmānī succeeded in converting several local chieftains in Iraq, including the °Uqaylid $am\bar{\imath}r$ of Kūfa and several other towns who acknowledged Fatimid suzerainty. It was in reaction to the success of the da^cwa in Iraq that the °Abbāsid caliph al-Qādir (381-422/991-1031) launched a series of military campaigns against the refractories as well as an anti-Fatimid literary campaign, culminating in the Baghdad manifesto of 402/1011 denouncing the Fatimids and refuting their °Alid genealogy. This manifesto was read from the pulpits throughout the

²³ Al-Kirmānī, Rāḥat al-'aql, p. 134-139, 224-225, also explained in H. Corbin, Cyclical Time and Ismaili Gnosis, tr. R. Manheim and J. W. Morris (London, 1983), p. 90-95. See also Nāṣir Khusraw, Shish faṣl, ed. and tr. W. Ivanow (Leiden, 1949), text p. 34-36, translation p. 74-77; his Wajh-i dīn, p. 255, and R. Strothmann, ed., Gnosis Texte der Ismailiten (Göttingen, 1943), p. 57, 82, 174-177.

²⁴ Al-Maqrīzī, Itti'āz al-ḥunafā', ed. J. al-Shayyāl and M. Hilmī M. Aḥmad (Cairo, 1967-73), vol. 1, p. 43-44, and Ibn Khaldūn, The Muqaddimah, tr. F. Rosenthal (2nd ed., Princeton, 1967), vol. 1, p. 45-46.

^cAbbāsid caliphate. It was also the learned $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ al-Kirmānī who was invited to Cairo to refute, on behalf of the da^cwa headquarters, the extremist doctrines then being expounded by the founders of the Druze movement.

The dacwa continued to be propounded successfully in Iraq, Persia, and other eastern lands even after the ardently Sunnī Saljūqs had replaced the Shīcī Būyids as the real masters of the Abbāsid caliphate in 447/1055. Important Ismaili communities were now in existence in Fārs, Kirmān, Işfahān and many other parts of Persia. In Fārs, the dacwa had achieved particular success through the efforts of the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ al-Mu'ayyad fi'l-Dīn al-Shīrāzī, who had penetrated the ruling Būyid circles. After converting AbūKālījār Marzubān (415-440/1024-1048), the Būyid amīr of Fārs and Khüzistān, and many of his courtiers, however, al-Mu'ayyad was advised to flee in order to escape ^cAbbasid persecution. Subsequently, he settled in Cairo, where he played an active part in the affairs of the Fatimid dawla as well as the Ismaili da'wa which he headed for twenty years from 450/1058 until shortly before his death in 470/1078. As revealed in his autobiography, al-Mu'ayyad played a crucial role as an intermediary between the Fatimid regime and the Turkish commander al-Basāsīrī who championed the Fatimid cause in Iraq against the Saljūqs and the 'Abbāsids.25 In fact, al-Basāsīrī, with Fatimid help and al-Mu'ayyad's strategic guidance, seized several towns in Iraq and entered Baghdad itself at the end of 450/1058. In the 'Abbasid capital the khutba was now pronounced for al-Mustansir until al-Basāsīrī was defeated a year later. That Fatimid suzerainty was recognized in ^cAbbāsid Iraq-albeit for only one year-attests to the success of the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ al-Mu'ayyad and the da^cwa activities there. Al-Mu'ayyad established close relations between the dacwa headquarters in Cairo and the local headquarters in several jazīras, especially those located in Yaman and the Iranian lands.

In Persia proper, the Ismaili da^cwa had continued to spread in the midst of Saljūq dominions. By the 460's/1070's, the Persian Ismailis were under the overall leadership of a chief $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$, 'Abd al-Malik b. 'Aṭṭāsh, who established his secret headquarters in Iṣfahān, the main Saljūq capital. A religious scholar of renown and a capable organizer in his own right, 'Abd al-Malik was also responsible for launching the career of Ḥasan Ṣabbāḥ, his future successor and the founder of the independent Nizārī Ismaili da^cwa and state. Further east, in certain parts of Khurāsān, Badakhshān and adjacent areas in Transoxania, the da^cwa continued to be active with various degrees of success after the downfall of the Sāmānids in 395/1005. Despite incessant persecutions of the Ghaznawids and other Turkish dynasties ruling over those regions of the Iranian world, Nāṣir Khusraw and other $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s managed to win the allegiance of an increasing number to the Fatimid Ismaili imām.

A learned theologian and philosopher, and one of the foremost poets of the Persian language, Nāṣir Khusraw spread the da^cwa throughout Khurāsān from around 444/1052, after returning from his well-documented voyage to Fatimid Egypt. As the hujja of Khurāsān, he originally established his secret base of operations in his native Balkh (near today's Mazār-i Sharīf in northern Afghanistan). A few years later, Sunnī hostilities obliged him to take permanent refuge in the valley of Yumgān in Badakhshān. There, enjoying the protection of a local Ismaili $am\bar{i}r$, Nāṣir spent the rest of his life in the service of the da^cwa . It is interesting to note that even from his exile in the midst of the remote Pamirs, Nāṣir maintained his contacts with the da^cwa headquarters in Cairo, then still headed by the chief $d\bar{a}^c\bar{i}$ al-Mu'ayyad. In fact, the lifelong friendship between al-Mu'ayyad and Nāṣir Khusraw dates to 439/1047 when both of these distinguished Persian Ismailis arrived in the Fatimid capital. On that occasion, Nāṣir stayed in Cairo for three years furthering

²⁵ Al-Mu'ayyad fi'l-Dīn al-Shīrāzī, Sīrat al-Mu'ayyad fi'l-Dīn dā'ī al-du'āt, ed. M. Kāmil Ḥusayn (Cairo, 1949), especially p. 94-184, and Klemm, Die Mission, p. 2-63, 136-192.

²⁶ For details, see al-Maqrīzī, Itti'āz, vol. 2, p. 191-192; Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil fi' l-ta'rīkh, ed. C. J. Tornberg (Leiden, 1851-76), vol. 9, p. 211, 358, vol. 10, p. 122 ff., 165-166, and W. Barthold, Turkestan down to the Mongol Invasion, ed. C. E. Bosworth (4th ed., London, 1977), p. 251, 304-305, 316-318.

his Ismaili education.²⁷ It was evidently Nāṣir Khusraw who extended the da^cwa in Badakhshān, now divided by the Oxus between Afghanistan and Tajikistan. At any rate, the modern-day Ismailis of Badakhshān, and their offshoot communities in Hunza and other northern areas of Pakistan, all regard Nāṣir Khusraw as the founder of their Ismaili communities. Nāṣir Khusraw died not long after 462/1070, and his mausoleum is still preserved near Fayḍābād, the capital of Afghan Badakhshān.

Nāṣir Khusraw was also the last major proponent of "philosophical Ismailism", a distinctive intellectual tradition elaborated by the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s of the Iranian lands during the Fatimid period. Influenced by the pseudo-Aristotelian texts circulating in the Muslim world, these $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s elaborated complex metaphysical systems harmonizing Ismaili Shī°ī theology with a diversity of philosophical traditions, notably Neoplatonism. The $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s of the Iranian lands, perhaps in reflection of their da^cwa policy, wrote for the educated strata of society, aiming to appeal intellectually to the ruling elite. This may explain why these $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s, starting with al-Nasafī, expressed their theology in terms of the then most fashionable philosophical themes. This tradition has only recently been studied by modern scholars mainly on the basis of the numerous extant works of al-Sijistānī, while Nāṣir Khusraw's contributions still remain largely unexplored. Be that as it may, these $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s of the Iranian lands elaborated the earliest tradition of philosophical theology in Shī°ī Islam without actually compromising the essence of their message which revolved around the Shī°ī doctrine of the imāmate.

The Ismaili da^cwa achieved one of its major successes of the Fatimid times in Yaman, where Ismailism had survived in a subdued form after the initial efforts of the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ Ibn Ḥawshab Manṣūr al-Yaman (d. 302/914) and Ibn al-Faḍl (d. 303/915). By the time of al-Mustanṣir, the leadership of the da^cwa in Yaman had come to be vested in the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ 'Alī b. Muḥammad al-Ṣulayḥī, a chieftain of the influential BanūHamdān. In 429/1038, 'Alī rose in the mountainous region of Ḥarāz marking the foundation of the Ṣulayḥid state. The Ṣulayḥids recognized the suzerainty of the Fatimids and ruled over various parts of Yaman for more than a century. 'Alī al-Ṣulayḥī headed the Ismaili da^cwa as well as the Ṣulayḥid state in Yaman, an arrangement that underwent several changes in subsequent times. By 455/1063, he had subjugated almost all of Yaman, enabling the da^cwa to be propagated openly in his dominions. The Ṣulayḥids established close relations with the Fatimid da^cwa headquarters in Cairo, when al-Mu'ayyad was the chief $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ there. After 'Alī, who was murdered in a tribal vendetta in 459/1067, his son Aḥmad al-Mukarram succeeded as sultan to the leadership of the Ṣulayḥid state, while the $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ Lamak b. Mālik al-Ḥammādī (d. 491/1098) acted as the executive head of the Yamanī da^cwa .

²⁷ Nāṣir Khusraw describes the splendour and prosperity of the Fatimid capital most vividly in his famous Safar-nāma, ed. M. Dabīr Siyāqī (Tehran, 1356/1977), p. 74-99; English trans. Nāṣer-e Khosraw's Book of Travels (Safarnāma), tr. W. M. Thackston, Jr. (Albany, NY, 1986), p. 44-57.

²⁸ For details of the metaphysical systems of the Iranian $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s, as elaborated especially in the works of al-Sijistānī, see P. E. Walker, Early Philosophical Shiism (Cambridge, 1993), p. 67-142, and his The Wellsprings of Wisdom: A Study of AbūYacqūb al-Sijistānī's Kitāb al-Yanābī'c (Salt Lake City, 1994), especially p. 37-111. The critical edition of al-Sijistānī's Kitāb al-yanābī'c, together with a summary French translation, may be found in H. Corbin, Trilogie Ismaélienne (Paris-Tehran, 1961), text p. 1-97, translation p. 5-127. Al-Kirmānī's system, as propounded in his Rāḥat al-capl, and its philosophical provenance, are thoroughly studied in Daniel de Smet's La Quiétude de l'intellect: Néoplatonisme et gnose Ismaélienne dans l'oeuvre de Ḥamīd ad-Dīn al-Kirmānī (X/XIs.) (Louvain, 1995). Of Nāṣir Khusraw's major theological-philosophical texts, only two have been published so far in critical editions with translations into European languages; see his Jāmīc' al-hikmatayn, ed. H. Corbin and M. Muc'īn (Paris-Tehran, 1953); French trans. Le Livre réunissant les deux sagesses, tr. I. de Gastines (Paris, 1990), and Gushāyish va rahāyish, ed. S. Nafīsī (Tehran, 1961); ed. and tr. F. M. Hunzai as Knowledge and Liberation (London, 1998).

²⁹ The earliest Ismaili accounts of the Şulayhids, and the contemporary da^*wa in Yaman, are contained in the $d\bar{a}^{c}$ Idrīs "Imād al-Dīn b. al-Ḥasan's "Uyūn al-akhbār, vol. 7, and his Nuzhat al-afkār, which are still in manuscript forms. The best modern study here is Ḥusayn F. al-Hamdānī's al-Ṣulayhiyyūn wa' l-ḥaraka al-Fāṭimiyya fi' l-Yaman (Cairo, 1955), especially p. 62-231.

From the latter part of Ahmad al-Mukarram's reign (459-477/1067-1084), when the Sulayhids lost much of northern Yaman to Zaydīs, effective authority in the Sulayhid state was exercised by his consort, al-Malika al-Sayyida Hurra, a most remarkable queen and Ismaili leader. She played an increasingly important role in the affairs of the Yamanī da^cwa culminating in her appointment as the hujja of Yaman by al-Mustanṣir. This represented the first application of a high rank in the da^cwa hierarchy to a woman. Al-Mustanṣir also charged her with the affairs of the da^cwa in western India. The Sulayhids played a major part in the renewed efforts of the Fatimids to spread Ismailism on the Indian subcontinent, an objective related to the Fatimid trade interests. At any rate, from around 460/1067, Yamanī $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s were dispatched to Gujarāt under the close supervision of the Sulayhids. These $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s founded a new Ismaili community in Gujarāt which in time grew into the present Tayyibī Bohra community.

By the early decades of al-Mustansir's long reign (427-487/1036-1094), the Fatimid caliphate had already embarked on its political decline. In rapid succession, the Fatimids now lost almost all of their possessions outside Egypt proper, with the exception of a few coastal towns in the Levant. Al-Mustansir's death in 487/1094 and the ensuing dispute over his succession led to a major schism in the Ismaili da wa as well, aggravating the deteriorating situation of the Fatimid regime. Al-Mustansir's eldest surviving son and heir designate, Nizār, was deprived of his succession rights by the scheming and ambitious al-Afdal, who a few months earlier had succeeded his own father Badr al-Jamālī (d. 487/1094) as the all-powerful Fatimid vizier and "commander of the armies" (amīr al-juyūsh). Al-Afḍal installed Nizār's much younger half-brother Aḥmad to the Fatimid caliphate with the title of al-Musta lī bi'llāh, and he immediately obtained for him the allegiance of the da^cwa leaders in Cairo. In protest, Nizār rose in revolt in Alexandria, but was defeated and executed soon afterwards in 488/1095. These events permanently split the Ismaili da^cwa and community into two rival factions, designated as Musta'cliyya and Nizāriyya after al-Mustanṣir's sons who had claimed his heritage. The imamate of al-Mustacli, who had actually succeeded his father on the Fatimid throne, was recognized by the da'wa organization in Cairo, henceforth serving as central headquarters of the Musta li Ismaili da wa, and by the Ismailis of Egypt, Yaman and western India, who depended on the Fatimid establishment. In Syria, too, the bulk of the Ismailis seem to have initially joined the Musta li camp. The situation was drastically different in the eastern Islamic lands where the Fatimids no longer exercised any political influence after the Basāsīrī episode.

By 487/1094, Ḥasan Ṣabbāḥ, a most capable strategist and organizer, had emerged as chief $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ of the Ismailis of Persia and, probably, of all Saljūq territories. Earlier, Ḥasan had spent three years in Egypt, furthering his Ismaili education and closely observing the difficulties of the Fatimid state. On his return to Persia in 473/1081, Ḥasan operated as a Fatimid $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ in different Persian provinces while developing his own ideas for organizing an open revolt against the Saljūqs. The revolt was launched in 483/1090 by Ḥasan's seizure of the mountain fortress of Alamūt in northern Persia, which henceforth served as his headquarters. At the time of al-Mustanṣir's succession dispute Ḥasan was already following an independent revolutionary policy; and he did not hesitate to uphold Nizār's rights and break off his relations with the Fatimid establishment and the da^cwa headquarters in Cairo. This decision, fully supported by the entire Ismaili communities of Persia and Iraq, in fact marked the foundation of the independent Nizārī Ismaili da^cwa on behalf of the Nizārī imām who was then inaccessible. Ḥasan Ṣabbāḥ also succeeded in creating a state, centred at Alamūt, with vast territories and an intricate network of fortresses scattered in different parts of Persia as well as in Syria. Ḥasan Ṣabbāḥ (d. 518/1124) and his next two successors at Alamūt, Kiyā Buzurg-Umīd and his son Muḥammad, ruled as $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s and hujjas representing the absent Nizārī imām. By

³⁰ See F. Daftary, "Sayyida Hurra: The Ismā [1] Şulayhid Queen of Yemen", in Gavin R. G. Hambly, ed., Women in the Medieval Islamic World (New York, 1998), p. 117-130, where additional references are cited.

559/1164, the Nizārī imāms themselves emerged openly at Alamūt and took charge of the affairs of their da^cwa and state. The Nizārī state lasted for some 166 years until it too was uprooted by the Mongol hordes in 654/1256. However, the Nizārī Ismaili da^cwa and community survived the Mongol catastrophe. The Nizārī Ismailis, who currently recognize the Aga Khan as their imām, are today found in more than twenty-five countries of Asia, Africa, Europe and North America.

In the meantime, Musta°lī Ismailism had witnessed an internal schism of its own with seminal consequences. On al-Musta°lī's premature death in 495/1101, all Musta°lī Ismailis recognized al-Āmir, his son and successor to the Fatimid caliphate, as their imām. Due to the close relations then still existing between Ṣulayḥid Yaman and Fatimid Egypt, the queen al-Sayyida, too, acknowledged al-Āmir's imāmate. The assassination of al-Āmir in 524/1130 confronted the Musta°lī da°wa and communities with a major crisis. By then, the Fatimid caliphate was disintegrating rapidly, while the Ṣulayḥid state was beset by its own mounting difficulties. It was under such circumstances that on al-Āmir's death power was assumed as regent in the Fatimid state by his cousin °Abd al-Majīd, while al-Āmir's infant son and designated successor al-Ṭayyib had disappeared under mysterious circumstances. Shortly afterwards in 526/1132, °Abd al-Majīd successfully claimed the Fatimid caliphate as well as the imāmate of the Musta°lī Ismailis with the title of al-Ḥāfiz li-Dīn Allāh. The irregular accession of al-Ḥāfīz was endorsed, as in the case of al-Musta°lī, by the da°wa head-quarters in Cairo; and, therefore, it also received the support of the Musta°lī communities of Egypt and Syria, who were dependent on the Fatimids. These Musta°lī Ismailis, recognizing al-Ḥāfīz (d. 544/1149) and the later Fatimid caliphs as their imāms, became known as Ḥāfiziyya.

In Yaman, too, some Mustaclīs, led by the Zuraycids of Adan who had won their independence from the Sulayhids, supported the Hāfizī da wa. On the other hand, the aged Sulayhid queen al-Sayyida who had already drifted apart from the Fatimid regime, upheld the rights of al-Tayyib and recognized him as al-Āmir's successor to the imamate. Consequently, she severed her ties with Fatimid Cairo, much in the same way as her contemporary Ḥasan Ṣabbāḥ had done a few decades earlier on al-Mustansir's death. Her decision was fully endorsed by the Musta'li community of Gujarāt. The Sulayhid queen herself continued to take care of the Yamanī da wa supporting al-Ţayyib's imāmate, later designated as Ţayyibiyya. Until her death in 532/1138, al-Sayyida worked systematically for the consolidation of the Tayyibī da^cwa . In fact, soon after 526/1132 she appointed al-Dhu'ayb b. Mūsā al-Wādi'ī (d. 546/1151) as al-dā'ī al-muṭlaq, or the dā'ī with absolute authority over the affairs of the Yamanī da wa. This marked the foundation of the independent Ṭayyibī Musta^clī da^cwa on behalf of al-Ṭayyib and his successors to the Ṭayyibī imāmate, all of whom have remained inaccessible.32 The Tayyibī da'wa was, thus, made independent of the Fatimids as well as the Sulayhids; and as such, it survived the downfall of both dynasties. The Țayyibī da wa was initially led for several centuries from Yaman by al-Dhu'ayb's successors as $d\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ s. In subsequent times, the stronghold of Tayyibī Ismailism was transferred to the Indian subcontinent and the community subdivided into several groups; the two major (Dā'ūdī-Sulaymānī) groups still possess the authorities of their separate lines of dā i muṭlaqs while awaiting the emer-

³¹ For the early history of the Nizārī da'wa and state, coinciding with the final eight decades of the Fatimid dawla, see 'Aṭā-Malik Juwaynī, Ta'rīkh-i jahān-gushā, ed. M. Qazwīnī (Leiden-London, 1912-37), vol. 3, p. 186-239; English trans. The History of the World-Conqueror, tr. J. A. Boyle (Manchester, 1958), vol. 2, p. 666-697; Marshall G. S. Hodgson, The Order of Assassins (The Hague, 1955), p. 41-109, 145-159; B. Lewis, The Assassins (London, 1967), p. 38-75; F. Daftary, "Ḥasan-i Ṣabbāḥ and the Origins of the Nizārī Isma'ili Movement", in Daftary, ed., Mediaeval Isma'ili History, p. 181-204, and his The Ismā'īlīs, p. 324-391, 669-687, where full references to the sources and studies are given.

³² On the early histories of Musta^clī Ismailism as well as the Ḥāfizī and Ṭayyibī da'was, see S. M. Stern, "The Succession to the Fatimid Imam al-Āmir, the Claims of the Later Fatimids to the Imamate, and the Rise of Ṭayyibī Ismailism", Oriens, 4 (1951), p. 193-255, reprinted in his History and Culture in the Medieval Muslim World (London, 1984), article XI; A. Hamdani, "The Ṭayyibī-Fāṭimid Community of the Yaman at the Time of the Ayyūbīd Conquest of Southern Arabia", Arabian Studies, 7 (1985), p. 151-160, and Daftary, The Ismā^cīlīs, p. 256-286, 654-663.

THE ISMAILI DA CWA OUTSIDE THE FATIMID DAWLA

gence of their imām. The Ṭayyibī Ismailis have also preserved a good share of the Ismaili literature of the Fatimid period.

On 7 Muharram 567/10 September 1171, Saladin, ironically the last Fatimid vizier, formally ended Fatimid rule by instituting the *khutba* in Cairo in the name of the reigning ^cAbbāsid caliph. At the time, al-^cĀdid, destined to be the seal of the Fatimid dynasty, lay dying in his palace. The Fatimid *dawla* collapsed uneventfully after 262 years amidst the complete apathy of the Egyptian populace. Saladin, the champion of Sunnī "orthodoxy" and the future founder of the Ayyūbid dynasty, then adopted swift measures to persecute the Ismailis of Egypt and suppress their *da^cwa* and rituals, all representing the Ḥāfizī form of Ismailism. Indeed, Ismailism soon disappeared completely and irrevocably from Egypt, where it had enjoyed the protection of the Fatimid *dawla*. In Yaman, too, the Ḥāfizī *da^cwa* did not survive the Fatimid caliphate on which it was dependent. On the other hand, by 567/1171 Nizārī and Tayyibī *da^cwas* and communities had acquired permanent strongholds in Persia, Syria, Yaman and Gujarāt. Later, all Central Asian Ismailis as well as an important Khoja community in India also acknowleged the Nizārī *da^cwa*. That Ismailism survived at all the downfall of the Fatimid dynasty was, thus, mainly due to the astonishing record of success achieved by the Ismaili *da^cwa* of Fatimid times outside the confines of the Fatimid *dawla*.