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THE BEGINNINGS OF

THE ISM°ĪLĪ DA°WA IN NORTHERN INDIA

by

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Beginnings

About the end of the 3rd/9th Century, even before the Fāṭimid Caliphate was established on the North African soil, the Fāṭimid mission was at work in many countries, and India was no exception. On this point we have the evidence of the learned Qāḍi an-Nu^cmān (d. 363/974) chief Qāḍī of the Fāṭimid Caliph Mu'izz (d. 365/976), who states that in 270/883 the Yamanite Dā'ī Abul-Qāsim b. Ḥawshab Manṣūr al-Yaman sent his nephew al-Haytham as dā'ī (missionary) to Sind and that the Da'wa (mission) spread to Hind. We also have Rashīd ad-dīn's account of Fāṭimid missionaries in India during the period of satr. A marginal note² in Juwaynī corroborates the same account. 3

Having made a beginning in Sind, the Da'wa continued to grow and gradually permeated other areas, such as Multān, Gujrāt and the Punjāb and by the time of the Fāṭimid Caliph Mu'izz, it had quite a large following. This is recorded by the same Qāḍi an-Nu'mān⁴ and corroborated by his contemporary Ibn Ḥawqal,⁵ who informs us that the authority of the Fāṭimid Caliph was recognised in Baluchistān. Elliot and Dawson say: "One of the Balūch clans, indeed still preserves the memory of its heresy, or that of its progenitor, in retaining its present title of Qarmaṭī."

⁽¹⁾ Ifiitah, ff. 18-19. This account is copied verbatim in Daci Idris's Uyun, VI, f. 38.

⁽²⁾ Excerpts from Rashid ad-din in R. Levy: Ismā^cili Doctrines in the Jāmi^c at-Tauārīkh etc., J.R.A.S. (1930), pp. 516, 518, 522.

⁽³⁾ Ta'rikh Jahān Gushāi, G.M.S. (1937), vol. III, pp. 248-249 (being marginal note to p. 154, l. 8).

⁽⁴⁾ Istitah, f. 18.

⁽⁵⁾ Masālik, ed. Kramers, vol, II, p. 410, ll. 7-12 (also see foot-notes). Cf. De Goeje: Mémoires sur les Carmathes, note on p. 196.

⁽⁶⁾ History of India, I App. p. 492.

The well-known historian al-Birūnī (first half of the 5th/11th century) states that one Jalam b. Shaybān, the leader of the Qarmaṭians, attacked Multān, then a small independent principality, destroyed its famous idol Aditya (Sun God), venerated by both the Hindu inhabitants and its Arab Prince, and razed a mosque erected in the Umayyad times and built a new one on the same site. This story is repeated in detail by the Yamanite Ismā'ilī historian Dā'i Idrīs (d. 872 H.), who writes that in the time of Imām Mu'izz, a dā'i was sent to Sind who converted many Magians (Majūs) but allowed them to continue with some of their non-Islāmic beliefs and customs. He was replaced by another dā'i, Jalam (Ḥilm) b. Shaybān. The

- (8) The word "Qarmațian" is here applied to the Ismā'ilis of the official Fățimid Da'wa and not to the dissident Da'wa of Syria or Baḥrayn, as is evident from the corroborating story of Dā'i Idris given below, as well as Muqaddasi's statement mentioned later in this article.
- (9) Belonging to the Arab dynasty of Banū Sāma. Read below.
- (10) This famous idol is mentioned by many writers like Abū Zayd Ḥasan Sirānī (264 H.), Ibn Rusta (290 H.), Mascūdī (303 H.), Ibn Muhalhil (331 H.), Istakhrī (340 H.), Ibn Ḥawqal (367 H.), Muqaddasī (375 H.), Birūnī (432 H.) and Qazwīnī, who gives the detailed story of its destruction.
- (11) Lyūn al-Akhbār VI, ff. 100-117. Dācī Idrīs writes or the authority of a book by Qādi'n-Nucmān (d. 363 H.) of which the name is not mentioned. The account does not occur in the Ifītāh and I have not been able to see the relevant volume of Sharh al-Akhbār. Probably the reference is to the Qādī's Majālis.
- (12) In a recent article: Heterodox Ismācilism at the time of al-Mufizz (B.S.O.A.S. XVII/I), S.M. Stern has edited extracts from Qādi'n Nucmān's al-Majālis wa'l-Musāyarāt and has deduced the following conclusions therefrom: about 347 H. a Fāṭimid dāci whose name is not known had converted in Multān many from the majūs and had written to Caliph Mucizz about it. The Caliph did not like the majūs retaining their old views and thought the dāci heretical and disloyal for holding the view that the Fāṭimids were of Qaddāḥid origin or that they were 'Alids, but followed an interregnum of Qaddāḥids who led the Ismācilis during the period of satr. The Caliph in his reply diplomatically showed approval of the dāci, but secretly plotted for his removal, and Ḥilm b. Shaybān was instructed to carry out the plot. But probably in 348 H. a riding accident in which the dāci was killed made further action unnecessary.
- (13) Jalam b. Shaybān's conflict with his predecessor is given in detail in 'Uyūn VI, f. 100 seq. Idris calls him Ḥilm.

⁽⁷⁾ India (ed. Sachau) text p. 56; trans. pp. 116-117. Also see Defremery: Histoire. des Ismailie. de la Perse, J.A. VIII (1856), p. 381; Reinaud: Fragmunts Arabe et Persan relatif. a l'Inde, II, J.A. 1844, pp. 283-84, note 2.

Caliph sent a letter of instruction to him in Ramadan 354 H.14 This da'i put to death the ruler of Sind, destroyed a temple, and in its plac built a mosque.15

The Arab kingdoms of Multan and Mansurah in Sind

Since the Arab conquest of Sind by their young and intrepid leader Muḥammad b. Qāsim during the time of the Umayyad Caliph Walīd the Arab Muslim power was firmly established in this Indian province. In 258/871 the 'Abbāsid Caliph Mu'tamid practically handed over the province to the famous Şaffārid leader Ya'qūb b. Layth, who was considerably responsible for the spread of Shī'ism in Sind. On the latter's death in 265/878 the Muslim territories in Sind were divided between two independant chiefs, those of Multān and Manṣūrah (Bahmanābād). 16

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In Multān, one Asad Qarashī of the Arab tribe of Banū Sāma established an independent principality. He ruled from 279 to 290 H. Mas'ūdī mentions his son Abu'l-Lubāb Manba's rule in 303 H. Isṭakhrī and Ibn Hawqal also mention Banū Sāma as rulers of Multān, but do not give the names of individual rulers. We also learn from them that the Ismā'īlī Da'wa had become very active in Multān. Dā'ī Idrīs gives the date 354 H. as about the time when the dā'ī Jalam (Ḥilm) b. Shaybān descated the last Arab Prince of Banū Sāma, then ruling Multān.

When Muqaddasī came to Multān in 375 H., he found an Ismā'īlī ruler governing the town. His name is not given, but the above discussion proves that he was Jalam b. Shaybān. During Muqaddasī's visit the idol Aditya was still there. Dā'ī Jalam, therefore, must have destroyed it about 376 H., presumably the last year of his life and rule. Muqaddasī writes: "The people of Multān are Shī'a... In Multān, the Khuṭba is read in the name of the Fāṭimid Caliph of Egypt and the place is

⁽¹⁴⁾ Full text of the letter is reproduced in op. cit. ff. 114-117. Also see S.M. Stern: Ismā^cili Propaganda and the Fāṭimid Rule in Sind, art. I.C. Oct. 1949, pp. 298-307 and for a full translation, S.M. Stern: Heterodox Ismā^cilism at the time of al-Mu^cizz, B.S.O.A.S., XVII/I.

^{(15) &#}x27;Uyun VI, f. 117.

⁽¹⁶⁾ Advanced History of India by Majumdar, Raychaudhari and Datta (London 1953), p. 275.

Israeli erele en Multan 354H 10 401 H.

1) Jalam & Shayban

2) Shayful Hamed

3) Abril Futul David & Nia.

Persocution of thousand, of Ismailis in Hultan

by Mahmed Shayonaur in 401 H?

administered by his orders. Gifts are regularly sent from here to Egypt."17

Farishta¹⁸ says that the next ruler of Multān was Shaykh Ḥamid, another Ismā'ili dā'ī, and probably the son¹⁹ of Jalam b. Shaybān, who ruled up to 387 H.²⁰ The Ghaznawid Amir Sabuktagīn invaded Multān in 381 H., but later made a truce with Shaykh Ḥamīd, as Ismā'ilī Multān served as a buffer state between the rising Turkish power of Ghazna and the old Hindu rulers — the Imperial Pratiharas of Kanauj.

Sabuktagīn's successor, the famous Maḥmūd of Ghazna, was temperamentally averse to compromise and a sworn enemy of Ismā'īlism. He broke the truce by invading Multān in 396 H. At this time, the Ismā'īlī dā'ī Abu'l-Futūḥ Dā'ūd b. Naṣr, the grandson of Shaykh Ḥamīd, was ruling Multān. Tiring of the seven days siege of the town laid by Maḥmūd, Abu'l-Futūḥ agreed to pay tribute to the Sulṭān and Maḥmūd returned to Ghazna. Returning in 401 H., the Ghaznawid finally annexed Multān, took Abu'l-Futūḥ prisoner and massacred many Ismā'īlīs. Abu'l-Futūḥ died in a prison in Ghazna.²¹

So came to an end the Ismā'ili rule in Multān. It had lasted from 354 H.²² to 401 H. — about half a century. The Dā'is of Multān constituted a dynasty of three rulers and were of Arab race.²³ They

⁽¹⁷⁾ Ahsan at-Tagaim (Leiden ed.), p. 481.

⁽¹⁸⁾ Ta'rikh Farishta (Nawal Kishor ed.), I, pp. 17-18.

⁽¹⁹⁾ In the learned opinion of Mawlānā Sulaymān Nadvī: "Arab-o-Hind ke Tacalluqāt (Allahabad, 1930) p. 326.

⁽²⁰⁾ The year of the Ghaznawid Sabuktagin's death. Farithta (ibid) considers Shaykh Hamid contemporary to Sabuktagin.

⁽²¹⁾ Gardizi (d. 441 H.): Zayn (1928 - Berlin ed.), pp. 67-69. Farish'a gives another version. While Gardizi is silent about the race of Ismā'sili ruler, Farishta considers him to be of Pathan origin. They differ also on the route of Maḥmūd's invasion. Again Farishta makes Abul-Futūḥ run away with his treasures to Ceylon.

As Mawlana Sulayman Nadvi points out (op. cit., pp. 321-322) Gardizl's account is to be preferred, because he was contemporary to the events described, and lived and wrote in the Ghaznawid capital itself. Farishta not only wrote much later, but had a tendency to melodramatic inaccuracy.

⁽²²⁾ Although the conversion of Multān's majūs to Ismā'ilism took place in 347 H., Ismā'ilis did not become rulers of the city until 354 H., when dā'i Jalam b. Shaybān overthrew the Banū Sāma prince.

⁽²³⁾ S. NadvI (op. cit. pp. 327-329) considers the Ismā'ili rulers as pure Arabs on the evidence of early Arab geographers and the very nature of their names, and rejects the fantastic theory of Firishta that they belonged to the Pathan Lodhi family.

were under the direct control of the Fāṭimids as is evidenced by the correspondence between Caliph Mu'izz and Jalam b. Shaybān reproduced by Idrīs in 'Uyūn al-Akhbār and in Muqaddasī's statement given above. Sunnī historians inaccurately refer to the community as "Qarmaṭians" of Multān, since they belonged to the official Fāṭimid Ismā'ilī Da'wa.

Muqaddasī who came to Multān during its Ismā'ilī regime has given the following picture of its social life: "Multan is smaller than Manşūrah in size, but has a larger population. Fruits are not found in plenty; yet they are sold cheaper ... Like Sīrāf, Multān has wooden homes. There is no bad conduct and drunkeness here, and people convicted of these crimes are punished by death or by some heavy sentence. Business is fair and honest. Travellers are looked after well. Most of the inhabitants are Arabs. They live by a river. The place abounds in vegetation and wealth. Trade flourishes here. manners and good living are noticed everywhere. The Government is just. Women of the town are modestly dressed with no make-up and hardly found talking to anyone in the streets. The water is healthy and the standard of living high. There is happiness, well-being and culture here. Persian is understood. Profits of business are high. People are healthy, but the town is not clean. Houses are small. The climate is warm and arid. The people are of darkish complexion... In Multan, the coin is minted on the style of the Fāṭimid Egyptian coin, but Qanhari coins are commonly used."24

Maḥmūd's Wazīr, Hasnak, was put to death by Mas'ūd upon the charge of being an Ismā'ilī. The 'Abbāsid Caliph had previously asked Maḥmūd to punish Hasnak for having received a robe of honour (khil'a) from the Fāṭimid Caliph, but Maḥmūd replied that he had no grounds for suspicion. When Maḥmūd died and Hasnak's enemy came to throne, the 'Abbāsid Caliph's animosity was soon appeased.²⁵

The persecution of the Ismā'ilis by Maḥmūd is attested to by the theologian al-Baghdādī (d. 429/1037), who says that the Ismā'ilis of Multān were massacred in thousands by Maḥmūd.²⁶

Ismā'ilism survived in Multān despite Maḥmūd's vigorous assaults,

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⁽²⁴⁾ Muqaddasi: op. cit., pp. 481-482.

⁽²⁵⁾ Bayhaqi (cl. 370/1077): Ta'rikh as-Subaktagin(Tehran ed. 1327 H.), pp. 183-187; translated by Elliot and Dawson, History of India, vol II, pp. 93-100.

⁽²⁶⁾ Farq (Cairo ed.), pp. 277; cf. B. Lewis: Ismā^cili Note, art. B.S.O.A.S., XII, 1948, p. 600.

for in 571/1175, according to al-Juzjānī (d. 650 H.), Sulṭān Mu'izz ad-dīn Ghorī once again "delivered Multān from the hands of the Qarmaṭians". The same author informs us that later, in 634/1236, during the reign of Radīyya Sulṭāna, the Ismā'ilis from all parts of the Indian sub-continent, particularly Gujarāt, Sind, Dihli (Dehli) and the banks of the Jamna and Ganges, assembled in large numbers and, with arms, under the leadership of one Nūr Turk, attacked the Jāmi' Masjid of the Capital. They were, however, defeated by the "Mussalmans". 28

b) MANSURAH

Having collected above the references that are available about the Ismā'ilī connections with Multān, we return to an earlier period to review the Ismā'ilī influence in Manṣūrah.

Manṣūrah was built by 'Amr, the son of Muḥammad b. Qāsim, during Umayyad times between the years 110 and 120 H. as a safe refuge for the Arab community in Sind. According to Balādhurī, 'Amr b. Muḥammad b. Qāsim wrested Bahmanābād (also known as Brahmanābād) from its governor, al-Ḥakam, and at a distance of two farasangs from it founded the Arab town of Manṣūrah. Later Manṣūrah also came to be known as Bahmanābād, 'D' This is corroborated by Isṭakhrī³¹ and Ibn Ḥawqal³². It was situated on the banks of the Indus River, according to the excavations made by the Department of Antiquities during the years 1920-22, on the present site of Dhalor, 8 miles South-east of Shahdādpūr, eastwards along the canal of Jamdas. The author of Mujmal at-Tawārīkh³³ places Bahmanābād in the District of Budhia in Sind and states that the Persian King Bahman Ardeshir built it when he conquered this territory. Due to its good geographical position, Manṣūrah attained the

⁽²⁷⁾ Tabaqāt-i-Nāṣirī, (Calcutta ed. 1864), pp. 116 and 189; trans. Elliot & Dawson, op. cit., p. 293.

⁽²⁸⁾ Ibid (trans.), pp. 335, 336; cf. Defremery, op. cit., pp. 383-384.

⁽²⁹⁾ Futūh al-Buldān, p. 444.

⁽³⁰⁾ Op. cit., p. 439.

⁽³¹⁾ p. 172.

⁽³²⁾ p. 226.

⁽³³⁾ ed. Tchran, pp. 117-118.

Here one 'Amr b. 'Abd al-'Azīz founded the Arab dynasty of Habbārī Qurayshids in 240 H. during the reign of the 'Abbāsid Caliph al-Mutawakkil. When the 'Abbāsid Caliph Mu'tamid gave over Sind to the Ṣaffārid Ya'qūb b. Layth, the Habbārī dynasty became independent. It was a Sunnī dynasty and as such had maintained an 'Abbāsid Khuṭba and owed a nominal allegiance to the 'Abbāsid Caliphs. Under this dynasty large numbers of 'Alids settled in the country and attained for themselves considerable importance.35 By the time of Ibn Ḥawqal and Muqaddasī, Manṣūrah had grown to be a large state comprising most of the Sind territory and included in it a number of important towns such as Daybul. Muqaddasī calls Manṣūrah the Capital of Sind.36

In 375 H. when Muqaddasī came to Manşūrah, the town was under Sunni rule. Ibn Khaldun says that the town was taken by Mahmud of Ghazna in 416 H. from the Habbarids.37 But Ibn al-Athir points out that when Mahmud of Ghazna was returning from his conquest of Somnath, he came to Mansurah and took it from a prince who had renounced Islam.38 The name of the Habbarid prince, as given by the contemporary poet Farrukhi in one of his poems39 is Khasif, who is not to be confused with a later Sumra ruler of that name. We can therefore deduce that the last rulers of the Sunni Habbari dynasty had given up orthodox Islam, and espoused Ismā'ilism' sometime between 375 H. and 416 H. We have already noted above that a large 'Alid community was settled in Manşūrah; that Ismā'ilī Da'wa was widespread throughout Sind. It is likely that Mansurah became the centre of Ismā'ili activity. And about the time when they were ousted by Mahmud of Ghazna from Multan in 401 H. they may have concentrated in Manşūrah due to its geographical position well suited for defence. They may have brought all their influence to bear on the

⁽³⁴⁾ The above facts are ably established on the critical analysis of Arab geographies by N.A. Baloch: Chach-Nāma (Sindhi trans. 1954), note on pp. 397-400. For the coins and clay medallions of the Arab governors of Manşūrah see Thomas Princep's Essays and Cousen's Antiquities of Sind.

⁽³⁵⁾ Mascudi: Muruj, vol. I, p. 377.

⁽³⁶⁾ Muqaddasi, op. cit., p. 479.

⁽³⁷⁾ Ta'rikh (Egyptian ed.), vol. II, p. 327.

⁽³⁸⁾ Kamil (Leiden ed. Tornberg), vol. IX, p. 243.

⁽³⁹⁾ Nazim: Mahmud of Ghazna, p. 120.

⁽⁴⁰⁾ Accepting Ismā^cilism would, in the opinion of Ibn al-Athir, be "renouncing Islam".

last Habbārid rulers and converted them to Ismā'ilism. Habbārids were after all as much in danger of Maḥmūd's invasion as the Ismā'ilis.

Thus like Multān, Manṣūrah became an Ismā'ili kingdom soon to be wiped out by the sworn enemy of Ismā'ilism, Maḥmūd of Ghazna. According to the above argument, the Ismā'ili rule in Manṣūrah lasted from 401 H. to 416 H. — that is, for 15 years. Ismā'ilism, however, did not die. It remained a force and grew stronger, for it was accepted and patronised by yet another dynasty — that of the Sūmras.

The Sumras

Sind was entirely conquered by Maḥmūd (d. 421 H.) and included in his Ghaznawid Empire. It remained so during the time of his son Mas'ūd and his son 'Abd ar-Rashīd (d. 444 H.). But now the Ghaznawids had become weak. Delhi and its environs were taken from them by the Ghorīs, and Sind became independent of them under the Sūmras.

In 425/1033, the famous Druze leader al-Muqtana wrote a letter to one Shaykh Sūmar Rājibal asking him to espouse the Druze cause. I Mīr Ma'sūm tells us that in the time of 'Abd ar-Rashīd b. Sultān Mas'ūd, about the year 443/1051, the men of the Sūmra tribe revolted from the rule of the Ghazni, and placed on the throne of Sind a man named Sūmra. It seems that this Sūmra is the same person as our Shaykh Sūmar Rājibal, for it is obvious from Muqtana's letter that the Shaykh had a large following, which fact may have induced him to revolt and set up a separate kingdom.

The Sūmras were a local Sindhi Hindu tribe who had been converted to Islām right from the time of the first Arab conquest⁴³ and had considerably intermarried with the Arab settlers; with the result that their names are mixed Arab-Hindu. Even after conversion they had retained many of their old Hindu customs, like having their meals exclusively among themselves and not with any outsider.⁴⁴ They had marriage-relations with big local Arab landowners and had thus aquired great influence and power.⁴⁵ They lived on the banks of the

⁽⁴¹⁾ Muqtana: Risālat al-Hind (British Museum, Arabic Ms. Add. 11561), f. 36; cf. B. Lewis, op. cit., p. 600.

⁽⁴²⁾ Ta'rikh-i-Sind (Bombay ed. 1938), p. 60.

⁽⁴³⁾ Ibn Baţūţa: Travels (Egyptian ed.), vol. II, pp. 4-6.

⁽⁴⁴⁾ Ibid.

⁽⁴⁵⁾ Ta'rikh-Sind by Mir Macsum (extract Elliot's Hist., vol. I, p. 215).