Purgstall, GOR, iii, 7). His misdeeds brought about his execution at the beginning of the reign of Sultan Sulaymān Ķānūnī (926-74/1520-66).

Bibliography: Sa'd al-Dīn, Tādi al-tawārikh, Istanbul A.H. 1280, ii, 373, 389; Hādidjī Khalīfa, Tuhļat al-kibār fī asfār al-bihār, Istanbul A.H. 1329, 23; Paolo Giovio, Historiarum sui temporis tomus primus, Paris 1558, lib. xvii, fol. 1971 (= La prima parte dell'istorie del suo tempo di Mons. Paolo Giovio . . . tradotta per M. Lodovico Domenichi, Venice 1560, 469); M. Sanuto, I Diarii, edd. Barozzi, Berchet, Fulin, Stefani, Venice 1879-1903, xxiv, col. 848, xxv, cols. 832-833, xxvi, col. 628, xxviii, col. 821 and xxix, col. 549; Hammer-Purgstall, GOR, ii, 533; iii, 7; Sāmī, Kāmūs al-a'lām, iii, Istanbul A. H. 1308, 1818; Sidjil-i Olīmāni, ii, 69; Arsiv kilavuzu, tasc. I, Istanbul 1938, 88. (V. J. Parry)

**DJ**A FAR ČELEBI (864/1459-921/1515), Ottoman statesman and man of letters, was born at Amasya (for the date see E. Blochet, Cat. des mss. turcs, ii, 1-2), where his father Tādil Beg was adviser to Prince (later Sultan) Bayezid. After rising in the theological career to milderris, he was appointed nishāndji by Bāyezīd II (in 903/1497-8, see Tâci-zâde Sa'dî Çelebi Münşeâtı, ed. N. Lugal & A. Erzi, Istanbul 1956, 85). Suspected of favouring Prince Ahmad in the struggle for the succession, Diafar, with other of Ahmad's partisans, was dismissed at the insistence of the Janissaries (Djumādā II 917/ September 1511), but Bāyezīd's successor Selīm, appreciating his talents, restored him to office. After the battle of Caldiran he was given Shah Ismā'il's wife Tādili Khanum in marriage (see I. H. Uzunçarşılı in Belleten, xxiii, 1959, 611 ff.) and appointed ķādicasker of Anadolu (Ferīdūn², i, 406, 464); back in Istanbul, however, he was accused of having encouraged the discontent of the Janissaries on the campaign and put to death (8 Redjeb 921/18 August 1515).

His poetical works consist of (1) a Dīwān (selections published by Gibb and S. Nüzhet, see Bibl.) and (2) Hevesname, composed in 899/1493-4, a Turkish mathnawi completely original in theme, containing a description of Istanbul and the account of an amatory adventure. He was reckoned especially skilful as a munshi. His ornate description of Mehemmed II's capture of Constantinople, Mahrūse-i Istanbul Fethnamesi, was published from a MS owned by Khālis Ef. as the supplement to TOEM, parts 20-1, 1331/1913 (simplified text in Latin transcription by Şeref Kayaboğazı, İstanbul 1953; further MSS: Ist. Un. TY 2634, Vienna 993/1 [see A. S. Levend, Gazavātnāmeler, 16]). He translated into Turkish a Persian Anis al-carifin (Ḥādjdjī Khalifa, ed. Flügel, no. 1448; MSS: Istanbul, Esad Ef. 1825, Un. TY 834). A collection of his official compositions (Munsha'āt) was owned by Khālis Ef., but seems now to be lost (for one specimen see Ferīdūn², i, 379 ff.). Djacfar was also a famous calligrapher and a patron of poets.

Bibliography: Sehl, 28; Latifi, 117; Tash-köprüzāde, Shakā'ik, tr. Rescher 212 = tr. Medidi 335 ff.; Gibb, Ottoman poetry, ii, 263-85; B. Mehmed Tāhir, 'Osmānlı mü'ellifleri, i, 263-85; Babinger, 49 f.; S. Nüzhet Ergün, Türk şairleri, ii, 882-90; IA, s.v. Câfer Çelebi (M. Tayyib Gökbilgin). (V. L. Ménage)

**DJA'FAR** AL-ŞĀDIĶ ("the trustworthy"), Abū 'Abd Allāh, son of Muḥammad al-Bāķir, was a transmitter of hadīths and the last imām recognized by both Twelver and Ismā'īli Shī'ās. He was born

in 80/699-700 or 83/702-3 in Medina, his mother, Umm Farwa, being a great-granddaughter of Abū Bakr. He inherited al-Bāķir's following in 119/737 (or 114/733); hence during the crucial years of the transition from Umayyad to 'Abbāsid power he was at the head of those <u>Sh</u>1°Is who accepted a non-militant Fāṭimī imāmate. He lived quietly in Madīna as an authority in hadīth and probably in fiķh; he is cited with respect in Sunnī isnāds.

He made no sharp break with the non-Shī'ī majority-even a Shī'i follower of his could appear in Sunnī isnāds (and his heir, 'Abd Allāh, was accused by later Shicis of Sunni tendencies); but he seems to have been a serious Shī'i leader nonetheless. He appears to have permitted his own shica, his personal following, to regard him, like his father, as sole authoritative exponent of the sharica, divinely favoured in his 'ilm, religious knowledge (and in principle as the only man legitimately entitled to rule). But he taught also a wider circle who consulted him along with other masters; Abū Ḥanīfa, Mālik b. Anas, and Wāṣil b. 'Aṭā', among other prominent figures, are alleged to have heard hadith from him. It is in his time, at the earliest, that distinctive Shīcī positions in fikh begin to appear; but it is uncertain how far the subsequent Twelver or Ismā'īlī (or Zaydī) systems may be ascribed to his teaching, though he is given a leading role in the two former.

At the time of Zayd's revolt (122/740), Dia far served as symbol for those Shīcis who refused to rise; and during the revolutions after the death of al-Walid (126/744), when most Shīcis were expecting that at last the 'Alid family would come to power, he remained neutral. His support and possibly his candidacy may have been solicited by the Kūfa Shīca at the time of Abbasid victory, but he seems to have declined to recognize any other Shi candidacy than his own, while, if he did think of himself, he held to the principle of ku'ud, that the true imam need not attempt to seize power unless the time be ripe, and can be content to teach. At the time of the Shī'i revolt of Muḥammad al-Nafs al-Zakiyya in the Hijāz (145/762), he was again neutral, leading the Ḥusaynids in their passivity in that largely Ḥasanid affair, and was left in peace by al-Manşūr.

Dja far attracted a circle of active thinkers, most of whom, like the majority of his shīca, lived normally in Kūfa (or some in Baṣra). The most fecund leader among the early Ghulat, Abu 'l-Khattab [q.v.], seems to have had close relations with him, and some radical ideas were attributed to Diafar himself (but were later rejected by Twelvers as interpolations by Abu 'l-Khattab'). Before the latter was killed in 138/755, however, Diacfar repudiated him as going too far; this repudiation greatly disturbed some of his associates. It seems likely that though certain radical Shīci ideas helped to make his imāmate attractive in 'Irāķ, Dja'far made a point of keeping them within bounds. More technical philosophers also were associated with him and with his son, Mūsā, notably Hishām b. al-Ḥakam and Muḥammad b. al-Nu<sup>c</sup>mān, nicknamed Shayṭān al-Tāķ, who were inclined to an anthropomorphist system in contrast to that of the early Muctazilites with whom they disputed. Dia far himself is assigned (with uncertain authenticity) a position on the problem of kadar which claims to be between determinism and free-will.

Dia far died in 148/765 (poisoned, according to the unlikely Twelver tradition, on the orders of al-Manşūr) and was buried in the Baķī cemetery in Medina, where his tomb was visited, especially by Shī'īs, till it was destroyed by the Wahhābīs. He left a cohesive following with an active intellectual life, well on the way to becoming a sect. But some of the differing tendencies which he had usually managed to reconcile now seem to have caused historic splits in it, occasioned by a disputed succession to his imāmate. He had designated Ismā'īl, his eldest son (by an 'Alid wife, Fātima, granddaughter of al-Ḥasan), but Ismā'il had died before his father—a fact which had troubled the faith of some of Djacfar's followers. A considerable body held by Isma'll, some maintaining that he was himself not dead but only concealed; others passing on to his son Muhammad b. Ismācīl. These formed the nucleus of the later Ismā'īliyya, for whom Dja'far was the fifth imām. Most of Dia'far's following, however, accepted 'Abd Allah. Isma'il's uterine brother and the eldest surviving son, on the ground that Diafar had generalized that an imam's successor must be his eldest son; but 'Abd Allah died without sons a few weeks later. The majority thereupon accepted Mūsā, whose mother was Ḥamīda, a slave (and whom some, including prominent philosophers, had hailed as imām from the start); these developed into the Twelver Shīca, for whom Djacfar was the sixth imam. A few asserted that Dia far was not really dead, but absent, and would return as mahdi (these were called the Nāwūsiyya). Some of Dja far's following looked to Musa's young brother Muhammad, who later became the Imām of the Shumaytiyya [q.v.].

Among most Shīcis, Djacfar has been regarded as one of the greatest of the imams and as the teacher of fikh par excellence. The Twelvers, when referring to themselves as a madhhab, have called it the Dja fariyya. To Dja far have been ascribed numerous utterances defining Shī'i doctrine, as well as prayers and homilies; he has been ascribed, by both Sunnis and Shicis, numerous books, probably none of them authentic, dealing especially with divination, with magic, and with alchemy, of which the most famous is the mysterious  $\underline{Diafr}$  [q.v.], foretelling the future. He is regarded as the chief teacher of the alchemist Djābir b. Ḥayyān (who did in fact revere him as a religious teacher). He is also regarded as a master Ṣūfī. Especially among the Shīca, so many sayings on all sides of all controverted questions have been ascribed to him that such reports are almost useless for determining his actual opinions in a given case.

Bibliography: Țabarī, ed. de Goeje, iii, 2509 f.; Ibn Khallikan, Wafayat al-acyan, ed. M. Muhyi 'l-din 'Abd al-Hamid, Cairo 1367/1948, i, 291 f. (no. 128); al-Ḥasan b. Mūsā al-Nawbakhtī, Firak al-Shîca, ed. M. Şādik Āl Bahr al-culum, Nadjaf 1355/1936, 62-79. Other references in Julius F. Ruska, Arabische Alchemisten, ii, Gacfar al-Şādiq, der Sechste Imām, Heidelberg 1924 (see also Ruska, Ğābir ibn Hayyan und seine Beziehungen zum Imām Ğacfar aş-Şādiq, in Isl., xvi, 264-66), and in the less critical Dwight M. Donaldson, The Shi'ite religion, London 1933, Chapter XII. See also, for his alleged works, Brockelmann, SI, 104; and Marshall G. S. Hodgson, How did the early Shi a become sectarian? in JAOS, lxxv, 1955, 1-13; 'Abd al-'Azīz Sayyid al-Ahl, Dja far b. Muhammad, Beirut 1954.

(M. G. S. Hodgson)

DJA'FAR SHARIF B. 'ALI SHARIF AL-KURAYSHI AL-NĀGŌRĪ, whose dates of birth and death are unknown, wrote his Kānūn-i Islām at the instigation of Dr. Herklots some time before 1832. He is said to have been "a man of low origin and of no account in

his own country", born at Uppuēlūru (Ellore) in Kistna District, Madras, and was employed as a munshi in the service of the Madras government. He was an orthodox Sunni, yet tolerant towards the Shīcas, who had considerable influence in south India in his time, learned yet objective in his approach to his faith, knowledgeable in magic and sorcery yet writing of it in a deprecatory and apologetic tone, and a skilful physician of the Yūnānī school. In the course of his duties he met with Gerhard Andreas Herklots (b. 1790 in the Dutch colony of Chinsura in Bengal of Dutch parents, d. Wālādjābād 1834), who had studied medicine in England and had been appointed Surgeon on the Madras establishment in 1818. Herklots, struck by the lack of any information on the Indian Muslims comparable with the Manners and customs of the Hindoos of the Abbé Dubois, had started a collection of material when he met Dja far accidentally, whom he encouraged to produce the work himself acting "merely as a reviser", occasionally suggesting "subjects which had escaped his

The original was written in Dakkhinī Urdū, which Herklots had intended to publish also, but his death prevented this and the original has now been lost. To the translation Herklots added notes and addenda incorporating additional material from Mrs. Meer Hassan Ali's Observations on the Mussulmauns of India, 1832, and Garcin de Tassy's Mémoires sur les particularités de la religion mussulmane dans l'Inde, Paris 1831, that the work might embrace "an account of all the peculiarities of the Mussulmans ... in every part of India". His Qanoon-e-Islam was published (London, late 1832) with a subvention from the East India Company.

Dja'far's account traces the religious and social life of the south Indian Muslims from the seventh month of pregnancy to the rites after death, with full descriptions of all domestic rites and ceremonies and festivals of the year, including necromancy, exorcism, and other matters of magic and sorcery; Herklots's appendix adds information on relationships, weights and measures, dress, jewellery, games, etc., and a glossary. The work was rearranged and partially rewritten by W. Crooke for the new Oxford edition of 1921, enhancing its value as an authoritative account of Indian popular Islam with particular reference to the Deccan. (J. Burton-Page)

DJA'FARIYYA [see fikh, ithnä 'ashariyya]. DJAFR. The particular veneration which, among the Shīcas, the members of the Prophet's family enjoy, is at the base of the belief that the descendants of Fātima have inherited certain privileges inherent in Prophethood; prediction of the future and of the destinies of nations and dynasties is one of these privileges. The Shīcī conception of prophecy, closely connected with that of the ancient gnosis (cf. Tor Andrae, Die Person Muhammeds in Lehre und Glauben seiner Gemeinde, Stockholm 1918, ch. vi) made the prophetic afflatus pass from Adam to Muhammad and from Muhammad to the 'Alids (cf. H. H. Schaeder, in ZDMG, lxxix, 1925, 214 ff.). The Banu Hashim, to whom 'Alī b. Abī Ţālib belonged, had long since claimed superiority over the Banu Umayya, as having prophecy as their appanage. Immediately after his conversion, seeing the armies of Muhammad filing off ready for the conquest of Mecca, the Umayyad Abū Sufyān said to al-'Abbās, the Prophet's uncle, who was standing beside him, "Your nephew's authority has become very great!"; and al-'Abbas replied, "Yes, wretched one, that is Prophethood!" (Tabarī, iii, 1633).