(tatawwa<sup>c</sup>ū) in <u>ghazw</u> and undertake this last in the lands of unbelief when it is not incumbent upon them nor is an obvious institution in their land".

As well as the regular troops forming the Umayvad and Abbasid army or diund, those in receipt of regular stipends (rizk,  ${}^{c}a_{l}\bar{a}^{\bar{b}}$  [q.v.]) from the  $diw\bar{a}n$  aldiaysh, sc. the murtazika "those entitled to living allowances" [see DJAYSH. i. Classical, and DJUND], there were from earliest times volunteers who served without cata but were entitled to a share in any captured plunder [see GHANIMA]. However, it seems that they might sometimes be asked to make a contribution (tanāhud) to the expenses of a campaign out of their subsequent share of the booty. In early times, these volunteers must have included poor Bedouins, mawālī [see MAWLA], and, as time went on, an increasing proportion of those motivated by religious zeal and the desire for a martyr's death [see SHAHID]. Thus in the campaign of 'Abd al-Malik's commander 'Ubayd Allah b. Abī Bakra against a local ruler of eastern Afghānistān, the Zunbīl of Zābulistān, in 79/698, volunteers from the Yemeni tribes of Madhhidi and Hamdan [q.vv.] are mentioned (al-Baladhuri, Ansāb al-ashrāf, cited in C.E. Bosworth, 'Ubaidallāh b. Abī Bakra and the "Army of Destruction" in Zābulistān (79/698), in Isl., 1 [1973], 277). Likewise, Yazīd b. al-Muhallab's army assembled in 98/716-17 for an expedition against Tabaristan and Djurdjan included 100,000 Syrian, 'Irākī and Khurāsānī troops plus mawālī, slaves (mamālīk) and volunteers (al-Ṭabarī, ii, 1318; Ibn al-Athīr, ed. Beirut, v, 29).

There was, of course, a disadvantage to commanders having contingents of volunteers attached to their armies in that these volunteers were less amenable to military discipline and could come and go of their own free will, hence could not be relied upon for sustained campaigning or arduous fighting in remote or inhospitable terrains. During the campaign of al-Afshīn [q,v] in northern  $\bar{A}dh$ arbāydjān against the Khurrami rebel Babak [q.v.] in 222/836-7, many members of the contingent of volunteers from Basra under the command of Abū Dulaf al-Kāsim al-'Idilī  $\{a, v_n\}$  melted away from the army when the final assault on the Khurrami fortress of al-Badhdh [q.v. in Suppl.] seemed to be unduly delayed (al-Tabarī, iii, 1209-11, 1214, tr. Bosworth, Storm and stress along the northern frontiers of the Abbasid caliphate, Albany 1991, 62-5, 67).

Volunteers were especially to be found on the frontiers of the Islamic world, where the opportunities for dithad [q.v.] against the pagans were greatest, e.g., along the Anatolian marches against the Byzantines, in the Caucasus against the Khazars, in Central Asia against the steppe peoples and in eastern Afghanistan and the fringes of north-western India against the local idolaters. In the caliphate of al-Mahdi, both regular troops and muttawwica were garrisoned at al-Mașșīșa [q.v.] in Cilicia (al-Balādhurī, Futūh, 166). The frontier towns of Transoxania and Khwārazm and their ribāțs had strong concentrations of volunteers within them, and these seem to have been often regarded as a volatile and unruly element, similar in social constitution and function to the 'ayyārs [q.v.]. They were ready to rush off and fight wherever the possibilities of holy war and plunder presented themselves, but were not always welcome (Barthold, Turkestan2, 214-16). In 355/966 the Būyid amīr Rukn al-Dawla repelled by military force a group of 10,000 ghāzīs from Khurāsān who were ostensibly marching westwards against the Byzantines but who were, he feared, being utilised by the rival Sāmānid dynasty to destabilise his amirate (Ibn al-Athīr, ed. Beirut, viii, 569-71).

Where a ruler or commander acquired a particular reputation as a successful war-leader and hammer of the infidels, volunteers would be attracted to his standard in large numbers. This was especially the case with the early Ghaznawids Sebüktigin, Mahmūd and Mas'ūd [q.vv.], whose campaigns down to the plains of northern India, with rich prospects of Indian slaves and temple treasures, always included a large proportion of volunteers from all over the eastern Islamic world (see Bosworth, The Ghaznavids, their empire in Afghanistan and eastern Iran 994-1040, Edinburgh 1963, 114).

The bands of volunteers or 'ayyārūn in certain parts of the eastern Islamic world might also turn their energies against internal dissent or heterodoxy. This is clear in the province of Sīstān, where bodies of orthodox Sunnī volunteers or vigilantes were active against local Khāridjite elements; out of these bands, the Ṣaffārid brothers Ya'kūb and 'Amr b. al-Layth [q.vv.] were to rise to power during the second half of the 3rd/9th century (see Bosworth, Sīstān under the Arabs from the Islamic conquest to the rise of the Ṣaffārids (30-2401651-864), Rome 1968, 85, 112 ff.).

From around the 5th/11th century onwards, the term  $mutatawwi^ca/muttawwi^ca$  tends to drop out of use, and such terms as  $gh\bar{a}z\bar{\imath}$  and  $mudj\bar{a}hid$  [q.vv.] are used more and more for the concept of volunteer warriors for the faith.

A modern formation from this Arabic root is muṭawwi<sup>c</sup>, lit. "one who compels obedience", used in contemporary Saudi Arabia to designate the religious police who enforce the closure of shops during the times of public prayer, oversee morals, etc.

Bibliography: Given in the article. See also RIBĀT. (C.E. BOSWORTH)

AL-MUTAWAKKIL 'ALĀ 'LLĀH. ABU 'L-FADL Dia FAR B. MUHAMMAD, Abbasid caliph. He was born in Shawwal 206/Feb.-March 822, son of the caliph al-Mu<sup>c</sup>taşim [q.v.] and a Kh<sup>w</sup>ārazmī slave-girl called Shudjac. There is no sign that he had early political ambitions, and he seems to have lived in obscurity until the death of his brother, the caliph al- $W\bar{a}thik$  [q.v.] in Dhu 'l-Hididia 232/Aug. 847. Al-Wāthiķ left a young son but no designated adult successor. The succession was decided by a council consisting of the wazīr ibn al-Zayyāt and the chief kādī Aḥmad b. Abī Duwād [q.vv.], two other bureaucrats and two leading Turkish military men, Aytakh and Wasif They rejected Ibn al-Zayyāt's advice to appoint al-Wāthik's son and instead chose his brother Djacfar, who was duly installed as caliph. They probably hoped that he would prove a pliable instrument like his brother had been, but they soon found out how mistaken they were, and al-Mutawakkil soon showed that he had an independent mind and a clear and decided policy. He was determined from the beginning to assert the independence of the caliph and to break the dominance of the Turkish military and the bureaucracy.

He rapidly removed the leading figures and the old régime, Ibn al-Zayyāt (executed 233/847), Aytākh (assassinated 235/849) and Ibn Abī Duwād (dismissed 237/851-2). In their places he appointed new ministers, notably the wazīr 'Ubayd Allāh b. Yaḥyā b. Khākān and his personal favourite al-Fatḥ b. Khākān [q.v.]. In 235/849 he also appointed his sons to take over the vast supervisory governorates held by the Turkish generals, al-Muntaṣir to Egypt and al-Djazīra, al-Muʿtazz to Khurāsān and al-Muʾayyad to Syria and Palestine, intending that the great men of the next generation should be members of the 'Abbāsid family as they had been under al-Manṣūr. Only the Tāhirids [q.v.] in Baghdād and Khurāsān

were left unchallenged and continued to work in partnership with the caliph.

Al-Mutawakkil also set about recruiting a new army in order to break the Turkish monopoly of military power, and Ubayd Allah b. Khakan sought to recruit troops from the Kaysī Arabs of Syria, the abnā' of Baghdād and from Armenia. The favour shown to these new elements provoked growing anger among the Turks, who felt their position threatened. Just as al-Mu<sup>c</sup>taşim had founded a new capital at Sāmarrā<sup>7</sup> [q.v.] to house his Turkish army, so al-Mutawakkil sought a new seat where he could establish himself. He tried Damascus briefly in 244/858, but is said to have been deterred by the plague, but probably also because it was too far from the centres of wealth and power in Trak and Persia. He chose instead a site a few miles north of Sāmarrā<sup>3</sup> in 245/859-60 which he called al-Dia fariyya. Despite its proximity to Sāmarrā<sup>3</sup>, this was conceived as an independent town with its own great mosque, palaces and urban centre, the outline of which can still be traced on the ground today.

Perhaps the most controversial aspect of his policy was to break with the Muctazili position which had been the official doctrine of the Abbasid government since al-Ma<sup>3</sup>mūn had introduced the mihna [a, v]. In its place, the caliph stressed his adherence to the doctrines of the Hanbalis and other Traditionists. In part, this was a symbolic rejection of his predecessors' policies, but he probably hoped also to attract to himself the undoubted popular support which the Traditionists enjoyed, especially in Baghdad. He appointed a new kādī, Yaḥyā b. Aktham, who was symthe Traditionists. introduced to discriminatory dress regulations for Christians and Jews [see GHIYAR], and destroyed the tomb of al-Husayn at Karbala, which had become an important centre of devotion.

Despite these political upheavals, his reign was in the main a time of peace. There were continuing disturbances in Ādharbaydjān, where Ibn al-Ba'īth rebelled in 234/848-9 and in Armenia in 237/851-2, where a rebellion against increasing 'Abbāsid pressure was put down by the Turkish general Bughā the Elder [see BUGHĀ AL-KABĪR]. Bughā also led successful campaigns against the Byzantines in 245/859 and 246/860, but without producing any decisive results.

The caliph's decisive policies made him a number of enemies, notably among the Turkish military. To these he added his eldest son al-Muntaşir [q,v.], who feared that he was to be deprived of his position as heir apparent, and they came together to assassinate him in Shawwāl 247/Dec. 861. His death deprived the 'Abbāsid caliphate of a forceful and effective ruler who might well have re-established the caliph's authority on a firm footing. In the event, his death plunged the caliphate into anarchy.

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(H. KENNEDY)
AL-MUTAWAKKIL 'ALĀ 'LLĀH, IBN AL-

Afțas, 'Umar B. Muḥammad b. 'Abd Allāh, fourth and last ruler of the Afţasid [q.v.] dynasty in the petty state [see mulūk al-ṭawā²ıf. 2.] of Badajoz (Baṭalyaws [q.v.]), in south-western al-Andalus [q.v.], in the 5th/11th century.

'Umar al-Mutawakkil came to power as a result of intrigues against his brother Yahvā in 461/1068-9 (the date emerges from two passages in the Dhakhīra of Ibn Bassam, iv, 650 and v, 252); Yahya himself appears to have reigned for some four or five years (the chronology of the dynasty still presents problems). From this time on, al-Mutawakkil played an important political role in peninsular affairs, one consonant both with the (relatively) great size of his kingdom and with its isolation from the main cultural and economic centres further to the east in the Iberian peninsula. A number of well-known littérateurs served him as viziers (e.g., Ibn 'Abdūn, one of the Banū Kuzmān and one of the Banu Kabturnu [q.vv.]). In 472-3/1079-80, he occupied Toledo (Tulaytula [q.v.]), but although he had come at the invitation of the city's inhabitants, who were anxious to be rid of the incompetent and dangerous Dhu 'l-Nūnids [q.v.], he was unable to establish a durable régime there, and left after only ten months. In the succeeding years, as the general position of Islam in the peninsula worsened, he adopted a policy, much like those of his peers, vacillating between temporising with regard to Christian demands for tribute (parias) and appealing for help to the rising power of the Almoravids (al-Murābitūn [q.v.]) in North Africa. His attempts to play each side off against the other came to nothing, however; despite his presence in 479/1086 at the battle of Zallāķa [q, v], which took place in his own territory, and his participation in the struggle against the Christian advance, he was in the end, like virtually all the other taifa monarchs, deposed, in 487/1094 or 488/1095, and put to death, together with two of his sons, on the road to captivity. A third son is said to have spent some time in Christian Spain and may even finally have been converted to Christianity. His dynasty was the subject of a famous marthiya [q.v.] or lament by Ibn 'Abdun, on which Ibn Badrun later wrote a well-known commentary (ed. Dozy).

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(D.J. WASSERSTEIN)
AL-MUTAWAKKIL 'ALĀ 'LLĀH, ISMĀ'ĪL B.
AL-MANŞŪR BI'LLĀH AL-ĶĀSIM (b. ca. 1019/1610), the first Ķāsimī Zaydī imām to rule Yemen completely independent of the Ottoman Turks.

Ismācīl's claim to the imāmate, following the death

of his brother, Imām al-Mu'ayyad bi'llāh Muḥammad [q.v.], at Shahāra in Radjab 1054/September 1644, was challenged by three other aspirants, most seriously by his older brother, Abu Tālib Aḥmad b. al-Kāsim (1007-66/1598-1656). Despite some initial regional support for the latter, Ismā'īl's claim ultimately won acceptance among the 'ulamā', owing to broad recognition of his predilection for scholarship and his knowledge of the principles of Zaydī governance. Once the succession had been resolved after at least one test of arms (1055/1645), the imām's family closed ranks behind him; his brother Aḥmad accepted to become his governor of the important northern city of Ṣa'da, while several nephews served him well as commanders

Although Imām Ismā'īl lacked the martial qualities often associated with Zaydī imāms, it is nevertheless the case that in his time the imām's authority was carried to perhaps its widest extent ever in modern history. Most of this expansion occurred in the south and east, where successful campaigns were conducted against Aden and Lahdi (1055/1645), al-Baydā' and Yāĥ' (1065/1655), Hadramawt (1069-70/1659-60) and even Zufār in 'Umān (1073/1662-3). In these and other military operations the imām's principal commander was his nephew and successor, Aḥmad b. al-Ķāsim [see AL-MAHDĪ LI-DĪN ALLĀH AHMADĪ].

Imām Ismā'īl died on 5 Djumādā II 1087/15 August 1676 at Djabal Dawrān, south of Ṣan'ā', to where he had transferred the *imām*'s residence from Shahāra in the north. Essentially a scholarly and religious personality who preferred the company of the 'ulamā', he composed numerous works on Zaydī jurisprudence and dogma, of which at least 23 have been identified as extant (al-Ḥibshī, Mu'allafāt, 140-3). Reflecting this personal preoccupation with religious concerns were his dispatch of an unsuccessful mission to convert the emperor of Abyssinia to Islam (1057/1647) and his revival of the office of amīr al-hadīdī for Yemen, a position which had not been filled since before the expulsion of the Ottoman Turks in 1045/1635.

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AL-MUTAWAKKIL 'ALĀ 'LLĀH, SHARAF

AL-MUTAWAKKIL 'ALĀ 'LLĀH, SHARAF AL-DĪN YAḤYA B. SHAMS AL-DĪN B. AL-ĪMĀM AL-MAHDĪ AḤMĀD, 10th/16th century Zaydī imām in whose time the Ottoman Turks first became established in Yemen.

Born in northwestern Yemen on 27 Ramadan 877/25 February 1473, Sharaf al-Dīn announced his claim (da wa) to the imamate during Djumada I 912/September 1506, after years of study to achieve the necessary recognition as a Zavdī muditahid. It was another three decades (ca. 941/1535), however, before he was able to impose his religious and political authority upon the majority of Zaydī communities, particularly upon the rival northern tribal confederations of the Al al-Mahmud (Al Hamza) and Al al-Mu'avyad. Aided by his sons, principally the eldest, al-Mutahhar [q, v], a proven commander, Imām Sharaf al-Din succeeded in reuniting the Zaydis and in restoring the ascendancy of the imamate after a protracted period of weakness. He further regained for the Zaydis control over much of the southern highlands and of the northern Tihāma from a succession of pretenders to the Sunnī Ṭāhirid sultanate (ca. 858-923/1454-1517 [see TAHIRIDS]) and from the Egyptian Mamlüks based in the southern Tihāma since 922/1516. Subsequently, he contained for eight years the tiny Ottoman sandjakbeyilik established by Khādîm Süleymān Pasha at Zabīd in 945/1539 (and shortly elevated in status to a beylerbeyilik).

At the close of 953 or the beginning of 954/February or March 1547, Imām Sharaf al-Dīn, who forever favoured religious and scholarly pursuits to attending to administrative demands, lost de facto control of the imamate to al-Mutahhar. Following his deposition at a time when the Zaydīs, threatened by an Ottoman thrust into the interior, needed a general more than a jurisprudent as their leader. Sharaf al-Din went into forced retirement. Stripped of power, but not of influence, he remained opposed to al-Mutahhar's leadership and ambivalent towards the Ottoman Turks. His death from plague occurred on 7 Djumādā II 965/27 March 1555 at Zafīr, where he had proclaimed his imamate half a century before. Despite his lifelong devotion to scholarship, none of his compositions concerned with the Zaydī rite achieved any lasting repute.

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