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yi'u'l-Islám (No. 89), born 638/1240-1, died Muḥarram 726/Dec. 1325. As a youth he showed some poetic talent, which was, however, sternly repressed by his father, who told him that poets were accursed and poetry incompatible with a devout life.

9. Ḥasan ibn Yúsuf ibn 'Ali ibnu'l-Mutahhar al-Ḥilli, commonly called 'Alláma-i-Ḥilli ("the Sage of Ḥilla") (No. 83), died in the same month and year as the above-mentioned Muhaqqiq-i-Awwal, who was ten years his senior. Of his works 75 are enumerated in the Qisas. 'Alláma-i-Ḥilli came of a great family of theologians, which produced in a comparatively short period ten mujtahids. His father was one, and his son, entitled Fakhru'l-Muḥaqqiqin (No. 86), another.

10. Shaykh Shamsu'd-Dín Muḥammad ibn Makki .. al-'Amili, called Shahid-i-Awwal ("the First Martyr") (No. 82), was put to death at Damascus about midsummer 786/1384¹ by judgement of the two Qádis Burhánu'd-Dín the Málikí and Ibn Jamá'a the Sháfi'í.

II. Şafawi and post-Şafawi divines.

- II. Núru'd-Dín 'Alt ibn 'Abdu'l-'Ált, known as Muḥaq-qiq-i-Thání ("the Second Investigator") (No. 84), came to Persia from Karak, his native place, and was highly honoured and esteemed by Sháh Tahmásp I. He died in 940/1533-4.
- 12. Ahmad ibn Muhammad, called Muqaddas-i-Arda-bili "the Saint of Ardabil" (No. 83), was highly honoured by Sháh 'Abbás the Great. He died in 993/1585.
- 13. Mír Muḥammad Báqir-i-Dámád (No. 77), the grandson of Muḥaqqiq-i-Thání (No. 11 supra), also stood high in the favour of Sháh 'Abbás, and died in 1041/1631-2.
- ¹ This is the date given in the Qiṣaṣ, but the Lú'lú'atu'l-Baḥrayn gives 780/1378-9.

Concerning his book the *Siraţu'l-Mustaqtm* ("the Straight Path") a Persian poet composed the following epigram:

صراط المستقيم مير داماد مسلمان نشنود كافر مبيناد ا

He himself wrote poetry under the takhallus, or pen-name, of Ishraq.

14. Shaykh Muhammad Bahá'u'd-Dínal-'Amili, commonly called Shaykh-i-Bahá'í (No. 37), was equal in fame, influence and honour with the above-mentioned Mír Dámád, these two being amongst the men of learning who gave most lustre to the court of Sháh 'Abbás the Great. The literary activities of Shaykh-i-Bahá'í, who was born near Ba'labakk in 953/1546, and died in 1031/1622, were not confined to theology. In that subject his best-known work is the Jámi'-i-'Abbásí, a popular Persian manual of Shí'a Law, which he did not live to complete. He also compiled a great collection of anecdotes in Arabic named the Kashkul ("Alms-bowl"), a sequel to his earlier and less-known Mikhlát. He also wrote several treatises on Arithmetic and Astronomy, and composed the Persian mathnawí poem entitled Nán u Halwá ("Bread and Sweetmeats").

I5. Muhammad ibn Murtada of Káshán, commonly known as Mullá Muḥsin-i-Fayd (No. 76), though reckoned "a pure Akhbárí" (انخباری صرف), and detested by Shaykh Aḥmad al-Aḥsá'í the founder of the Shaykhí sect, who used to call him Musi' ("the Evil-doer") instead of Muḥsin ("the Well-doer"), was in fact more of a mystic and a philosopher than a theologian. His best-known theological work is probably the Abwábu'l-Janán ("Gates of Paradise"), composed in 1055/1645. Ten years later he went from Káshán to Shíráz to study philosophy with Mullá Sadrá, whose daughter he married. He was also a poet, and in the

^{1 &}quot;May the Musulmán not hear nor the unbeliever see Mír Dámád's Sirátu'l-Mustaqím."

Majma'u'l-Fuṣaḥā¹ the number of his verses is said to amount to six or seven thousand.

16. Mír Abu'l-Qásim-i-Findariskí, though omitted from the Qiṣaṣu'l-'Ulamá, was accounted "the most eminent philosopher and Súfí of his time, and stood high in the estimation of Sháh 'Abbás I, whom he is said, however, to have scandalized by his habit of mixing with the lowest orders and attending cock-fights?" He spent some time in India in the reign of Sháh-Jahán and died in Iṣſahán about 1050/1640-1.

17. Mullá Sadrú'd-Dín Muhammad ibn Ibráhím ot Shíráz, commonly called Mullá Sadrá, is unanimously accounted the greatest philosopher of modern times in Persia. That in the Qisasu'l-'Ulamá no separate article should be devoted to one whose life was a constant conflict with the "clergy," and whose clerical disguise was even more transparent than that of his teachers Mír Dámád and Shaykh-i-Bahá'í, is not surprising, but much incidental mention is made of him in this and other similar works, like the Lú'lú'atu'l-Baḥrayn, and his teaching affected theology, notably that of the Shaykhí school³, in no small degree. His death is placed by the Rawdátu'l-Jannát about 1070/1660⁴, but by the Lú'lú'atu'l-Baḥrayn twenty years earlier.

18. 'Abdu'r-Razzáq-i-Láhijí, like Mullá Muḥsin-i-Fayḍ, was a pupil of Mullá Ṣadrá. His two best-known works, both in Persian, are the Sar-máya-i-Imán ("Substance of Belief") and the Gawhar-i-Murád ("Pearl of Desire"). He

- ¹ Tihrán lith. ed. of 1295/1878, vol. ii, pp. 25-6.
- ² Rieu's Persian Catalogue, p. 815. See also p. 258 supra
- ³ Shaykh Aḥmad al-Aḥsá'í commentated his *Mashá'ir* and other works (*Rawdátu'l-Jannát*, p. 331), but, according to the *Qiṣaṣu'l-'Ulamá* (Lucknow ed., p. 48), regarded him as an infidel.
- ⁴ This is given by the *Qiṣaṣu'l-'Ulamá* as the date of his son Mírzá Ibráhím's death. The earlier date 1050/1640-1 is therefore more probable for the father.

Autograph of Mullá Ṣadrá of Shíráz, the Philosopher

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shared with Shaykh Tabarsí, the author of the Majma'u'l-Bayán, the curious belief in the "essential meaning" of words, by which he meant that there existed a real relation between the sound and meaning of every word, so that having heard the sound of a strange word it was possible by reflection to conjecture the sense.

The last six persons mentioned were all philosophers as well as, or even more than, theologians. The following, except the last, Ḥájji Mullá Hádí, are all Shí'a divines of the strictest type.

19. Mullá Muhammad Taqí-i-Majlisí (No. 36) is said to have been the first to compile and publish Shí'a traditions, which he received from the Muhaqqiq-i-thání, in the Ṣafawí period. Allusion has already been made to his alleged Ṣúſí proclivities. He died in 1070/1659-60, a date expressed by the ingenious chronogram²:

"The crown of the Holy Law fell: scholarship become headless and footless."

By removing the "crown," i.e. the initial letter, of شرع, and the "head" and "foot," i.e. the initial and final letters of i.e. we get the three letters a condition of Light (No. 33), son of the above, who has been already mentioned repeatedly in this chapter, was even more famous than his father. His great work is the Biháru'l-Anwár ("Oceans of Light"), an immense compilation of Shí'a traditions; but he composed many other works, of which the following are in Persian: 'Aynu'l-Ḥayát ("the Fountain of Life"); Mishkátu'l-Anwár ("the Lamp of Lights"); Ḥilyatu'l-Muttaqín ("the Ornament of the Pious"); Ḥayátu'l-Qulúb ("Life of Hearts"),

¹ Qişaşu'l-'Ulamá, Lucknow ed., second part, p. 123.

² These data are from the Rawdátu'l-Jannát, pp. 129-31. The notice in the Qisas is very incomplete.

not completed; *Tuhfatu'z-Zá'irín* ("the Pilgrims' Present"); *Jalá'u'l-'Uyún* ("the Clearing of the Eyes")¹, etc. He died, as already stated, in IIII/1699-1700.

- 21. Sayyid Muḥammad Mahdi of Burújird, entitled Baḥru'l-'Ulúm ("the Ocean of Learning") (No. 27), was born in 1155/1742-3, and appears to have died about 1240/1824-5.
- 22. Sayyid Muhammad Báqir ibn Sayyid Muhammad Tagi of Rasht, entitled Hujjatu'l-Islám (No. 26), has been already mentioned for his severity in inflicting punishments for infractions of the Shart'at. He was wealthy as well as influential, and, according to the Rawdátu'l-Jannát (p. 125), spent 100,000 "legal dínárs2" in building a great mosque in the Bídábád quarter of Isfahán. He was born about 1180/1766-7, went to 'Iráq to pursue his studies at the age of sixteen or seventeen, returned to Isfahán in 1216 or 1217 (1801-3), and died on Sunday the 2nd of Rabl' i, 1260 (March 23, 1844). According to his namesake, the author of the Rawdátu'l-Jannát, his death was mourned for a whole year by the people (presumably the devout and orthodox only!), because none after him dared or was able to enforce the rigours of the Ecclesiastical Law to the same extent. By a strange coincidence, the "Manifestation" of Mírzá 'Alí the Báb, and the subsequent rise of that heresy which did so much to weaken the power of the orthodox Shí'a faith, took place just two months after his death.
- 23. Shaykh Ahmad ibn Zaynu'd-Din ibn Ibrahim al-Ahsa'i, the founder of the Shaykhi school or sect, spent most of his life at Yazd, whence he went by way of Isfahan to Kirmanshah. There he remained until the death of the

governor of that city, Prince Muḥammad 'Alí Mírzá, son of Fatḥ-'Alí Sháh, who favoured him and invited him to make his abode there. He then retired to the Holy Shrines of 'Iráq, where he composed most of his numerous works, of which the most famous are the Sharhu'z-Ziyárati'l-Kabíra and the Sharhu'l-Fawá'id. He vehemently opposed Mullá Ṣadrá, Mullá Muḥsin-i-Fayḍ, and the Ṣúfís, but was himself denounced as a heretic by Ḥájji Mullá Muḥammad Taqí of Qazwín, whose death at the hands of a Bábí assassin about A.D. 1847 earned for him the title of "the Third Martyr" (Shahíd-i-Thálith). Shaykh Aḥmad died in 1243/1827-8, being then nearly ninety years of age¹.

- 24. Mullá Ahmad-i-Niráqí, who died of cholera in 1244/1828-9, was a poet as well as a theologian, and composed a Persian poem entitled Táqdís in imitation of the Mathnawi of Jalálu'd-Dín Rúmí. His poetical name was Safá'í, and an article is consecrated to him in the Majma'u'l-Fuṣahá (vol. ii, p. 330).
- 25. Hájji Mullá Hádí of Sabzawár², the last great Persian philosopher, also wrote poetry under the nom de guerre of Asrár. He was born in 1212/1797-8 and died in 1295/1878.

¹ Rawdátu'l-Jannát, pp. 118-24.

² The dinar in modern Persia is of merely nominal value, and 100,000 (=10 Túmáns) are only worth £.2 to £.4, but originally the dinar was a gold coin worth about 10 francs, and this latter is presumably what is here intended.

¹ Most of these particulars are taken from the Rawdátu'l-Jannát, pp. 25-7.

² For an account of his life furnished by one of his disciples, see my Year amongst the Persians, pp. 131-43.

CHAPTER IX.

PROSE WRITERS UNTIL A.D. 1850.

Oriental writers on the art of rhetoric classify prose writings, according to their form, into three varieties, plain ('árí), rhymed(muqaffá), and cadenced(musajja'). Varieties of We may divide them more simply into natural Prose. and artificial. To us, though not always to our ancestors, as witness the Euphuists of Elizabethan days, artificial prose is, as a rule, distasteful; and if we can pardon it in a work like the Arabic Magámát of al-Harírí or the Persian Anwar-i-Suhayli, written merely to please the ear and display the writer's command of the language, we resent it in a serious work containing information of which we have need. It is a question how far style can be described absolutely as good or bad, for tastes differ not only in different countries but in the same country at different periods, and a writer deemed admirable by one generation is often lightly esteemed by the next, since, as the Arab proverb says, "Men resemble their age more than they do their fathers1."

But when a serious historian takes a page to Ornate prose in say what could be easily expressed in one or two historical works condemned. lines, we have a right to resent the wilful waste of time inflicted upon us by his misdirected ingenuity. Before the Mongol Invasion in the thirteenth century Persian prose was generally simple and direct, and nothing could be more concise and compact than such Early simplicity. books as Bal'amí's Persian version of Tabarí's great history, the Siyásat-náma of the Nizámu'l-Mulk, the Safar-náma of Násir-i-Khusraw, the Qábús-náma, or the Chahár Maqála. Mongol, Tartar and Turkish influences

النَّاس أَشْبَهُ بزمانهم منهم بآبائهم 1

seem to have been uniformly bad, favouring as they did flattery and bombast. The historian Wassaf, Corruption under whose chronicle was presented to Úljáytú in Mongol and other A.D. 13121, was the first great offender, and foreign dominion. unhappily served as a model to many of his successors. In recent times there has been a great improvement, partly due to the tendency, already re-Recovery in marked in the case of verse, to take as models recent times. the older writers who possessed a sounder and simpler taste than those of the post-Mongol period, and partly to the recent development of journalism, which, if not necessarily conducive to good style, at least requires a certain concision and directness. In point of style, arrangement, and, above all, documentation the quite recent but little-known "History of the Awakening of the Persians" (Ta'rikh-i-Bidárt-yi-Írániyán) ot the Názimu'l-Islám of Kirmán (1328/1910), unfortunately never completed, is incomparably superior to the more ambitious general histories of Ridá-qulí Khán and the Lisánu'l-Mulk (the Supplement to Mírkhwánd's Rawdatu's-Safá and the Násikhu't-Tawáríkh) compiled some fifty years earlier.

MISPLACED FLORIDITY

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Of prose works written simply to display the linguistic attainments and rhetorical ingenuities of the authors I do not propose to perpetuate the memory, or to say more than that, when they embody historical and other matter of sufficient value to render them worth translating, they should, in my opinion, if they are to be made tolerable to European readers, be ruthlessly pruned of these flowers of eloquence. As an instance I will take one passage from that very useful and by no means very florid history of the early Safawi period the Ahsanu't-Tawarikh (985/1577-8), of which I have made such extensive use in the first part of this volume. It describes the war

¹ See my Persian Literature under Tartar Dominion, pp. 67-8.

waged on the blind Sháhrukh Dhu'l-Qadar by Muḥammad Khán Ustájlú in the spring of 914/1508-9, and begins thus¹:

در بهار که سلطانِ گُل با حشمت وتجمّل روی بتاخت الوسِ ریاحین آورد و بزخمِ پیکانِ خار جنودِ شتویرا از گلزار منهزم گردانید

ہر آمد ز کوس سحابی خروش'

در آمد سهاه رياحين بجوش

رخ خویشرا ابر درهم کشید،

بدعوى كهانهاى رستم كشيد،

بــر آورد شــاخ شـگــوفــه عَـــلــمــ،

ریاحین بیاراست خیل و حشم ا

ز ژاله پسی فرقِ افراسیاب²

بدامان كشان سنگ هرسو سحاب،

خان محمد استاجلو به ييلاق ماردين نزول فرمود،

"In the spring, when the Rose-king with pomp and splendour turned his face to attack the tribes of the Basil, and, with thrusts of his thorn-spear, drove in rout from the Rose-garden the hibernal hosts—

A roar³ arose from the cloud-drums, the army of the basils was stirred:

The cloud contracted its brows, and drew Rustam-bows* for the contest;

The flowering branches raised their standards, the basils prepared their cavalry and their hosts;

The cloud in its skirts bore in every direction hail-stones for the head of Afrásiyáb—

Khán Muḥammad Ustájlú encamped in summer quarters at Márdín."

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All this could much better be said in one line:

در بهار خان محمّد استاجلو به ییلاق ماردین نزول فرمود،

"In the spring Khán Muḥammad Ustájlú encamped in summer quarters at Márdín."

Graceful poetic fancies are all very well in their proper place, but in a serious history they are inappropriate and irritating. The trouble is that, as has been remarked already, nearly all literary Persians, and consequently historians, are poets or poetasters, and they unhappily find it easier and more entertaining to mix poetry with their history than history with their poetry, even their professedly historical poetry. In discussing the later prose literature of Persia I shall therefore confine myself to what has substantial value apart from mere formal elegance, and shall treat of it, according to subject, under the five following headings:

(1) Theology.

Classification of prose works.

- (2) Philosophy.
- (3) The Sciences—mathematical, natural and occult.
- (4) History—general, special and local.
- (5) Biography and autobiography. including travels.

I. THEOLOGY.

Theology in Persia during the period with which we are dealing, that is from the establishment of the Safawi dynasty to the present day, means Shi'a theology, and by extension the semi-heterodox doctrines of the Shaykhis and the wholly heterodox doctrines of the Bábis and Bahá'is. A large portion of this theological literature—in older times almost all, and even now a considerable amount—is in Arabic, the sacred language of Islám and of the Qur'án, and much of it in all Muslim countries is almost unreadable, save for a few professional

¹ F. 75° of Mr A. G. Ellis's MS.

² This reading is conjectural. The MS. has limit which is obviously wrong, since it is neither sense nor verse.

³ I.e. the spring thunder.

⁴ The rainbow is called "Rustam's bow" (Kamán-i-Rustam) in Persian.

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theologians, and, it may be added, quite unprofitable. Some learned man writes a theological, philological, A worthless or logical treatise which achieves renown in the class of books. Colleges where the 'ulamá get their mediaeval training. Some one else writes a commentary on that treatise; a third produces a super-commentary on the commentary; a fourth a gloss on the super-commentary; a fifth a note on the gloss; so that at the end we are confronted with what the immortal Turkish wit Khoja Naṣru'd-Dín Efendí called "soup of the soup of the haresoup," a substance devoid of savour or nutriment, and serving rather to conceal than to reveal its original material. Shaykh Muhammad 'Abduh, late Grand Mufti of Egypt and Chancellor of the University of al-Azhar, than whom, perhaps, no more enlightened thinker and no more enthusiastic lover of the Arabic language and literature has been produced by Islám in modern times, used to say that all this stuff should be burned, since it merely cumbered bookshelves, bred maggots, and obscured sound knowledge. This was the view of a great and learned Muhammadan theologian, so we need not scruple to adopt it; indeed the more we admire and appreciate the abundant good literature of Islám, the more we must deplore, and even resent, the existence of this rubbish. In reading the lives of the 'Ulamá in such books as the Rawdátu'l-Jannát and the Qisasu'l-'Ulamá we constantly find a theologian credited with forty, fifty, or sixty works of this type, which nobody reads now. and which, probably, no one but his pupils ever did read, and they only under compulsion. Even to enumerate these treatises, were it possible, would be utterly unprofitable.

The great achievement of the Shí'a doctors of the later Safawí period, such as the Majlisís, was their popularization

Popular theological works in Persian. of the Shí'a doctrine and historical Anschauung in the vernacular. They realized that to reach the people they must employ the language of

the people, and that in a simple form, and they reaped their reward in the intense and widespread enthusiasm for the Shi'a cause which they succeeded in creating. We have already seen how few Shi'a books were available when Shah Isma'il first established that doctrine as the national faith of Persia, and, according to the Rawdatu'l-Achievement of Lawa 412 Mulla Muhammad Tagi Mailisi was

Achievement of the Majlisí.

Jannát², Mullá Muḥammad Taqí Majlisí was "the first to publish the Shía traditions after the appearance of the Ṣafawí dynasty." His even more eminent son Mullá Muḥammad Báqir compiled

Works of Mullá on this subject the immense Biháru'l-Anwár Muhammad Báqir-i-Majlisí. ("Oceans of Light") in Arabic, and in Persian the following works3: 'Aynu'l-Hayát ("the Fountain of Life"), containing exhortations to renunciation of the world; Mishkátu'l-Anwar ("the Lamp of Lights"); Hilyatu'l-Muttaqín ("the Ornament of the Pious"), on example and conduct; Ḥayátu'l-Qulúb ("the Life of Hearts") in three parts, the first on the Prophets before Muhammad, the second on the Prophet Muhammad, and the third on the Twelve Imams, but only part of it was written and it was never completed; Tuhfatu'z-Za'irin ("the Pilgrims' Present"); Jalá'u'l-'Uyún ("the Clearing of the Eyes"); Miqbásu'l-Masábíh, on the daily prayers; Rabí'u'l-Asábí' ("the Spring of Weeks"); Zádu'l-Ma'ád ("Provision for the Hereafter"), and numerous smaller treatises. Oddly enough one of the most notable of his Persian theological works, the Haqqu'l-Yaqin ("Certain Truth"), which was compiled in 1109/1698,

and beautifully printed at Tihrán so early as 1241/1825, is

omitted from this list. The late M. A. de Biberstein Kazi-

mirski began to translate this book into French, but aban-

doned his idea, sent his manuscript translation to me, and

urged me to continue and complete the work he had begun;

¹ Pp. 54-5 supra.

² Tihran lithographed ed. of 1306/1888, p. 129.

³ Ibid., p. 119.

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a task which, unfortunately, I have never had leisure to accomplish, though it would be well worth the doing, since we still possess no comprehensive and authoritative statement of Shí'a doctrine in any European language.

The basic works of the Shi'a faith, namely the Qur'an (the Word of God) and the Traditions (the sayings and deeds of the Prophet and the Imáms), are Classification of naturally in Arabic. The numerous Persian Persian theological works. religious treatises may be roughly classified in three groups—the doctrinal, the historical, and the legal. In practice doctrine and history are almost inevitably intermixed, especially in the sections dealing with the Imamate, where attempts are made to prove that the Prophet intended 'Alí to succeed him; that Abú Bakr, 'Umar and 'Uthmán were usurpers of his rights; that the Imams were twelve in number, no more and no less, and that they were the twelve recognized by the "Sect of the Twelve" (Ithnà-'Ashariyya) and none other. Thus while the earlier sections of these doctrinal works dealing with God and His Attributes border on Metaphysics, the later sections are largely composed of historical or quasi-historical matter, while the concluding portions, dealing with Heaven, Hell, the Last Judgement, and the like, are eschatological.

The style of these books is generally very simple and direct, and totally devoid of rhetorical adornment, but commonly affects an imitation of the Arabic idiom and order of words, not only in passages translated from that language, but throughout, as though these theologians had so steeped their minds in the Qur'an and the Traditions that even when using the Persian language the thought must follow Arabic lines. The following example, taken from the beginning of the second volume of the Haqqu'l- Yaqtn¹, will suffice to illustrate this peculiarity:

مقصد بهم در اثبات رجعتاست بدانکه از جمله اجهاعیّات شیعه بلکه ضروریّات مذهب حقّ فرقه مُحقّه حقیّت رجعتاست یعنی پیش از قیامت در زمانِ حضرت قایم عَ جمعی از نیکانِ بسیار نیک و بدان بسیار بد بدنیا بر میگردند نیکان برای آنکه بدیدنِ دولت ائمّهٔ خود دیدهای ایشان روشن گردد و بعضی از جزای نیکیهای ایشان در دنیا بایشان برسد و بدان از برای عقوبت و عذابِ دنیا و ایشان در دنیا بایشان برسد و بدان از برای عقوبت و عذابِ دنیا و مشاهده اضعاف آن دولتی که نمیخواستند باهلِ بیت رسالت عَ برسد و انتقام کشیدنِ شیعیان از ایشان و سایرِ مردم در قبرها میمانند تا در قیامت محشور شوند چنانچه در احادیث بسیار وارد شدهاست که رجوع نمیکند در رجعت مگر کسی که محض ایمان داشته باشد یا محضِ کفر امّا سایر مردم پس ایشانرا بحال خود میگذارند،

"Maqsad IX: establishing the 'Return' (Raj'at).

"Know that of the number of those things whereon the Shi'a are agreed, nay, which are of the essentials of the true doctrine of that Truth-pursuing body, is the 'Return.' That is to say that in the time of His Holiness the $Q\dot{a}'im^{1}$, before the Resurrection, a number of the good who are very good and of the bad who are very bad will return to the world, the good in order that their eyes may be brightened by seeing the triumph of their Imams, and that some portion of the recompense of their good deeds may accrue to them in this world; and the bad for the punishment and torment of the world, and to behold the double of that triumph which they did not wish to accrue to the Imáms, and that the Shí'a may avenge themselves on them. But all other men will remain in their tombs until they shall be raised up in the general Upraising; even as it has come down in many traditions that none shall come back in the 'Return' save he who is possessed of pure belief or pure unbelief, but as for the remainder of mankind, these will [for the time being] be left to themselves."

It is true that here the sentence most Arabian in construction may be the literal translation of a tradition not

"He who shall arise," i.e. the Imám Mahdí or Messiah of the Shí'a.

¹ Tihrán printed ed. of 1241/1825, f. 142^b.

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لا يرجع في الرّجعة الّا من له محض الايمان او محض الكفر،

but the influence of Arabian syntax is constantly apparent. Another class of Shi'a theological writings consists of polemical works directed against the Sunnis, the Súfis, the Shaykhis, the Bábis and Bahá'is, and the Polemical works Christians. The Sunnís are naturally attacked in against--(1) The Sunnis. all manuals of doctrine with varying degrees of violence, for from Nádir Sháh downwards to Abu'l-Hasan Mírzá ("Hájji Shaykhu'r-Ra'ts"), an eager contemporary advocate of Islamic unity¹, no one has been able to effect an appeasement between these two great divisions of Islám, and a more tolerant attitude in the younger generation of Persians, so far as it exists, is due rather to a growing indifference to Islám itself than to a religious (2) The Súfís. reconciliation. Attacks on the Súfís, especially on their Pantheism (Wahdatu'l-Wujúd), are also often met with in general manuals of Shi'a doctrine, but several independent denunciations of their doctrines exist, such as Ágá Muhammad 'Alí Bihbihání's Risála-i-Khavrátivva'. which led to a violent persecution of the Sussa and the death of several of their leaders, such as Mír Ma'sum, Mushtáq 'Alí and Núr 'Alí Sháh'; and the Matá'inu's-Súfiyva of Muhammad Rafí' ibn Muhammad Shafí' of Tabríz, composed in 1221/18064. The latter even has recourse to the Gospels to prove his case, quoting Christ's saying "Beware

of them which come to you in sheep's clothing (suf, wool), but within they are ravening wolves."

The Islamo-Christian controversy has also produced a considerable literature in Persian, which has been discussed

by Professor Samuel Lee in his Controversial (3) The Tracts on Christianity and Mohammedanism Christians. (Cambridge, 1824). Several such works were written in the first quarter of the seventeenth century by Sayyid Ahmad ibn Zaynu'l-'Ábidín al-'Alawí, one in refutation of Xavier's A'ina-i-Haqq-numá ("Truth-revealing Mirror"), and another directed against the Jews. Later the proselytizing activities of Henry Martyn the missionary called forth replies from Mírzá Ibráhím and others1.

The Shaykhí sect or school derived its origin and its name from Shaykh Ahmad ibn Zaynu'd-Dín al-Ahsá'í, a native not of Persia but of Bahrayn, who died, (4) The Shaykhis. according to the Rawdátu'l-Jannát2, at the advanced age of ninety in 1243/1827-8, and was succeeded by Sayyid Kázim of Rasht, who numbered amongst his disciples both Sayyid 'Alí Muhammad the Báb, the originator of the Bábí sect, and many of those who subsequently became his leading disciples, and Hájji Muhammad Karím Khán of Kirmán, who continued and developed the Shaykhí doctrine. This doctrine, essentially a rather extreme form of the Shí'a faith, was accounted heterodox by several eminent mujtahids, such as Hájji Mullá Muhammad Taqi of Qazwin, the uncle and father-in-law of the celebrated Bábí heroine Qurratu'l-'Ayn, whose hostility to the Shaykhís and Bábís ultimately cost him his life, but earned for him from the orthodox Shí'a the title of the "Third Martyr" (Shahid-i-Thálith). Some account of the

¹ His pamphlet on the "Union of Islám" (Ittihadu'l-Islám) was lithographed at Bombay in 1312/1894-5.

² Composed in 1211/1796-7. See the full and interesting account of the work in Rieu's Persian Catalogue, pp. 33-4.

³ For a full account of these events, see Malcolm's History of Persia. ed. 1815, vol. ii, pp. 417-22.

⁴ Of this I possess a good MS. dated 22 Jumádá ii, 1222 (27 Aug. 1807).

¹ See my Cat. of Pers. MSS. in the Camb. Univ. Library (1896), pp.

² Pp. 25-6, of the Tihrán lithographed edition of 1306/1888.

³ See vol. ii of my Traveller's Narrative, pp. 197-8 and 310-12.

Shaykhis and their doctrines, sufficient for the ordinary student of Persian thought, is given in Note E (pp. 234-44) at the end of the second volume of my Traveller's Narrative¹. Shaykh Ahmad was the author of numerous works, all, I think, in Arabic, of which the titles are given in the Rawdátu'l-Jannát (p. 25), which asserts amongst other things that he held the Súfís in great detestation, notwithstanding his own unorthodox views on the Resurrection. Naturally the pantheistic and latitudinarian opinions of these mystics are distasteful to dogmatic theologians of every kind, whether orthodox Shí'a or Sunní, Shaykhí, Bábí and Bahá'í, or Christian. Henry Martyn evidently felt that he had far more in common with the ordinary fanatical mullá of Shíráz than with the elusive and eclectic Súff. The later Shaykhis and Bábis, though both derive from a common source, hold one another in the utmost detestation; and at least one of the doctors of theology who examined and condemned the Báb at Tabríz towards the end of the year A.D. 1847, Mullá Muhammad Mámaqání, belonged to the Shaykhí school².

The Bábí-Bahá'í movement, of which the effects have now extended far beyond the Persian frontiers even to America, has naturally given rise to a far more extensive literature, which forms a study in itself, and which I have discussed elsewhere. Of the Báb's own writings the Persian Bayán and the Dalá'il-isab'a ("Seven Proofs") are the most important of those composed in Persian. Bahá'u'lláh's Iqán ("Assurance")

is the earliest reasoned apology, and was written before he advanced his claim to be "He whom God shall manifest." His later "Tablets" (Alwah), many of which are in Persian, are innumerable; amongst them the "Epistles to the Kings" (Alwah-i-Salatin) are the most interesting and important. There is also an abundant Azalí literature; and each dichotomous schism has given rise to a fresh crop of controversial pamphlets. Of systematic refutations of the Bábí and Bahá'í doctrines in Persian the most elaborate are the Ihqáqu'l-Haqq ("Verification of the Truth") of Aqá Muhammad Taqí of Hamadán¹, composed about 1326/1908; and the Minhaju't-Talibin' of Hajji Husaynqulí, an Armenian convert to Islám, lithographed at Bombay in 1320/1902. The Bábís and Bahá'ís have developed a somewhat distinctive style of their own in Persian which possesses considerable merits. Some of Bahá'u'lláh's "Tablets" (Alwah) addressed to Zoroastrian enquirers are even written in pure Persian without admixture of Arabic. Their most important works, like the Kitáb-i-Aqdas ("Most Holy Book"), are, however, written in Arabic. From the point of view of style, both in Persian and Arabic, an immense improvement was effected by Bahá'u'lláh, for the style of Mírzá 'Alí Muhammad the Báb was, as Gobineau says, "terne, raide, et sans éclat," "dull, stiff, and devoid of brilliance."

2. PHILOSOPHY.

Philosophy (Hikmat, Filsafa) is defined by the Muslims as "a knowledge of the true essence of things, as they really are, so far as is possible to human capacity."

It is divided into two branches, the theoretical (nasart), and the practical ('amalt). The former comprises Mathematics (Riyādiyyāt), Natural Science ('Ilmu't-Tabt'at), and Metaphysics (Mā warā'ba'd or fawq

¹ See also A.-L.-M. Nicolas, *Essai sur le Cheïkhisme* (Paris, 1910), pp. 72. A list of Shaykh Aḥmad's writings is given.

² See Traveller's Narrative, vol. ii, p. 278.

³ Traveller's Narrative, vol. ii, pp. 173-211; Materials for the Study of the Bábí Religion, pp. 175-243.

⁴ French translations of both have been published by the learned and impartial A.-L.-M. Nicolas.

¹ Materials, pp. 189-90.

² Ibid., pp. 196-7.

at-Tabt'at); the latter Ethics (Tahdhibu'l-Akhlaq), Economics (Tadbiru'l-Manzil), and Politics (Siyasatu'l-Mudun). The three best-known Persian treatises on Practical Philosophy, namely the Akhláq-i-Násirí, Akhláq-i-Jalálí, and Akhlág-i-Muhsiní, all belong to the period preceding that which we are now discussing, and I do not recollect any important Persian work on the subject which has appeared since. We may therefore confine our attention here to the first, or theoretical, branch of Philosophy, and in this section to Metaphysics, which on the one hand borders on Theology, and on the other on Science. It is generally admitted that a very close connection existed Shí'a and between the Shí'a and the Mu'tazila2 in early Mu'tazila. 'Abbasid times, and it is well known that the latter were the most enlightened and philosophic of the theological schools of Islám, and that in particular they were the champions of Free Will against the rigid Determinism which subsequently triumphed, to the great detriment of the intellectual development of the Muhammadan world. Those sections of Shl'ite theological works which treat of the Nature and Attributes of God are, therefore, of a more philosophical character than is commonly the case in Sunní books of a similar type.

Muslim Philosophy, like Muslim Science, admittedly and avowedly owes almost everything to the Greeks. Its development from the middle of the eighth century of the Christian era, when under the early 'Abbásid Caliphs the work of translating into Arabic the works of the most eminent and celebrated Greek thinkers began, down to the deadly blow inflicted on Islamic civilization by the Mongol Invasion and the destruction of

Baghdád and the 'Abbásid Caliphate in the middle of the thirteenth century, has been repeatedly traced by European scholars. For a broad general view, characterizing the chief exponents of the different schools of Islamic thought, Dr T J de Boer's History of Philosophy in Islam, translated into English by E. R. Jones, may be recommended to the general reader. It will be observed that only one of the thinkers mentioned in that book, Ibn Khaldún (b. A.D. 1332 at Tunis, d. A.D. 1406 at Cairo), flourished after the fall of the 'Abbásid Caliphate, and he was a unique and isolated phenomenon, "without forerunners and without successors"." The question we have to answer here is, has Persia, which in earlier times produced so large a proportion Difficulty of determining the of the so-called "Arabian Philosophers2," provalue of later duced any metaphysician of note since the Persian philosophical systems. beginning of the sixteenth century? To answer this question one would need to combine with a competent knowledge of Arabic and Persian a grasp of the history and subject-matter not only of "Arabian" but of Greek Philosophy (and, indeed, of Philosophy in general) to which I cannot lay claim. This, indeed, constitutes the difficulty of judging the value of the scientific literature of Islám. How many of those who admire the Persian quatrains of Umar

Khayyam can follow M. Woepcke in the appreciation of his

Arabic algebraical treatises? A knowledge of Arabic does

not suffice to enable us to decide whether ar-Rází or Ibn

Síná (Avicenna) was the greater physician. Much valuable

work of this technical character has been done in Germany,

by Dr E. Wiedemann of Erlangen (Optics, Physics, etc.),

Dr Julius Hirschberg of Berlin (Ophthalmology), Dr Max

Simon (Anatomy), and others, but very much remains to

¹ See my Persian Literature under Tartar Dominion, pp 442-4.

² See de Boer's *Hist. of Philosophy in Islam*, translated by E. R. Jones (London, 1903), pp. 33, 43, 72 and 84; and Goldziher's *Vorlesungen über der Islam* (Heidelberg, 1910), pp. 234 et seqq.

¹ De Boer, op laud., p. 208.

² So-called merely because they wrote in Arabic, at that time exclusively, and even now to a considerable extent, the learned language of Islám, as Latin was of Christendom.

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be done, and few scholars are competent to undertake it. As regards Philosophy in Persia during the last three or four centuries, all one can say is that half a Six modern dozen thinkers have established a great repu-Persian philosophers of repute. tation amongst their countrymen, but how far this reputation is deserved is a question which has not yet received a satisfactory answer. These thinkers are, in chronological order, as follows: (1) Shaykh Bahá'u'd-Dín al-'Amilí (d. 1031/1622); (2) Mír Dámád (d. 1041/1631-2); (3) Mullá Sadrá (d. 1050/1640-1); (4) Mullá Muhsin-i-Fayd (d. after 1091/1680); (5) Mullá 'Abdu'r-Razzág al-Láhijí; and, in quite modern times, (6) Hájji Mullá Hádí of Sabzawár (d. 1295/1878).

Now Muslim philosophers are of two sorts, those whose philosophy is conditioned by and subordinated to revealed Religion, and those whose speculations are not Hikmat and so limited. The former are the Mutakallimún or Kalám. Ahl-i-Kalám, the Schoolmen or Dialecticians1; the latter the Hukamá (pl. of Hakím) or Falásifa (pl. of Faylasúf), the Philosophers proper. Of the six persons mentioned above, Mullá Sadrá certainly and Hájji Mullá Hádí possibly belong to the second class, but the four others to the first. These four, however, if less important from the point of view of Philosophy, were in other ways notable men of letters. Biographies of all of them except Mullá Hádí, who is too modern, are given in the Rawdátu'l-Jannát, or the Qisasu'l-'Ulamá, from which, unless otherwise stated, the following particulars are taken.

The first five were more or less contemporary, and are, to a certain extent, interrelated. Shaykh Bahá'u'd-Dín and Mír Dámád both enjoyed considerable influence and stood in high favour at the court of Sháh 'Abbás the Great, yet there was no jealousy between them, if we may believe the pleasing anecdote about them and the Sháh related by Sir

1 See de Boer, op. cit., pp. 42-3.

John Malcolm. Mulia Şadra was the pupil of both of them, while Mullá Muḥsin-i-Fayd and Mullá 'Abdu'r-Razzáq al-Láhijí were both his pupils and his sons-in-law.

I. Shaykh Bahá'u'd-Dín al-'Amilí.

Shaykh Bahá'u'd-Dín Muhammad ibn Husayn ibn 'Abdu's-Samad al-Harithí al-'Amilí al-Hamdaní al-Jab'í was one of the numerous Shí'a doctors who came to Shavkh-i-Bahá'í. Persia from Jabal 'Amil in Syria, whence he b. 953/1546; d. 1031/1622. derived the nisba by which he is commonly known, though by the Persians he is most often spoken of as "Shaykh-i-Bahá'í." His father Shaykh Ḥusayn, a disciple of Shaykh Zaynu'd-Dín "the Second Martyr" (Shahid-i-Thání), came to Persia after his master had been put to death by the Turks for his Shiite proclivities, bringing with him the young Bahá'u'd-Dín, who applied himself diligently to the study of Theology in all its branches, Mathe-His teachers. matics and Medicine. His teachers included, besides his father, Mullá 'Abdu'lláh of Yazd, a pupil of Jalálu'd-Dín-i-Dawání, the author of the Akhlág-i-Jalálí, who was in turn a pupil of the celebrated Sayyid-i-Sharff-i-Jurjání. In Mathematics he studied with Mullá 'Alí Mudhahhib ("the Gilder") and Mullá Afdal of Qá'in, while in Medicine he was the pupil of 'Alá'u'd-Dín Mahmúd'. In due course he attained great celebrity as a theologian and jurist, and became Sadr or Shaykhu'l-Islám of Isfahán. After a while he was possessed with the desire to make the pilgrimage to Mecca, and on his homeward journey visited, in the guise of a darwish, Mesopotamia, Egypt, the Hijáz

¹ Hist. of Persia (ed. 1815), vol. i, pp. 558-9. The anecdote occurs in the Qişaşu'l-'Ulamá and in the Rawdátu'l-Jannát, p. 115.

² Rawdátu'l-Jannát, p. 331.

³ Some account of him is given in vol. i of the Tarikh-i-'Alam-ara-yi-'Abbas' amongst the notices of eminent men of the reign of Shah 'Abbas, whence some of the particulars here given concerning Shaykhi-Baha'i and Mír Dámád are also derived.

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and Palestine, and made the acquaintance of many learned men and eminent doctors and mystics.

Shaykh-i-Bahá'í was born at Ba'labakk in Syria on Muharram 17, 953 (March 20, 1546), and died on Shawwál 12, 1031 (August 20, 1622). His principal works are the Jámi'-i-'Abbásí, containing legal decisions His principal (fatáwà); the Zubda; the Miftahu'l-Faláh; the Tashrihu'l-Aflák ("Anatomy of the Heavens"); the Khulásatu'l-Hisáb on Arithmetic; the Kashkúl ("Beggars' Bowl"), a large miscellany of stories and verses, the latter partly in Persian1; a similar work called the Mikhlát; also a Persian mathnawí poem entitled Nán u Halwá ("Bread and Sweetmeats") describing his adventures during the pilgrimage to Mecca, and another entitled Shir u Shakar ("Milk and Sugar"). Extracts from these poems, as well as from his ghazals, are given in the Majma'u'l-Fusahá (vol. ii, pp. 8-10).

2. Mír Dámád.

Mír Muhammad Bágir of Astarábád, with the pen-name of Ishraq, commonly known as Damad ("son-in-law"), a title properly belonging to his father Sayyid Muham-Mír Dámád mad, whose wife was the daughter of the celed. 1041/1631-2. brated theologian Shaykh 'Alí ibn 'Abdu'l-'Álí, pursued his earlier studies at Mashhad, but spent the greater part of his life at Isfahán, where, as we have seen, he stood in high favour with Sháh 'Abbás the Great, and where he was still living when the author of the Ta'rikh-i-'Alam-aravi-'Abbásí wrote in 1025/1616. He died in 1041/1631-2. Most of his writings were in Arabic, but he wrote poetry in Persian under the takhallus of Ishraq. He seems to have had a taste for Natural History as well as Philosophy, for, according to the Qisasu'l-'Ula-Observes the má, he made an observation hive of glass in

¹ These Persian verses are omitted in the Cairo ed. of 1305/1887-8, but are contained in the Tihrán lithographed ed. of 1321/1903-4.

Autograph of Shayklı Bahá'u'd-Dín-i-,Ámilí

Or. 4936 (Brit. Mus.), 15

order to study the habits of bees. It is stated in the same work that after his death his pupil and son-in-law Mullá Ṣadrá saw him in a dream and said, "My views do not differ from yours, yet I am denounced as an infidel and you are not. Why is this?" "Because," replied Mír Dámád's spirit,

"I have written on Philosophy in auch

DCIICVEL.

3. Mullá Sadrá of Shíráz.

Sadru'd-Dín Muhammad ibn Ibráhím of Shíráz, commonly known as Mullá Sadrá, was the only son of an aged and otherwise childless father. On his father's death Mullá Sadrá, he left Shíráz and went to Isfahán, where, as d. 1050/1640-1. we have seen, he studied with Shaykh-i-Bahá'í and Mír Dámád, from both or whom he held ijázas, or authorizations to expound their works. He subsequently retired to a village near Qum, where he lived a secluded and austere life, engaged in profound meditations on Philosophy. He is said to have made the Pilgrimage to Mecca on foot seven times, and to have died at Basra on his return from his seventh journey in 1050/1640-1, leaving a son named Ibrahim who did not follow his father's doctrine but denounced and controverted it, boasting that "his belief was that of the common people." To these meagre particulars of Mullá Sadrá's life, derived from the Rawdátu'l-Jannát (pp. 331-2) and the Qiṣaṣu'l-'Ulamá, I can only add that it is clear from some expressions in the Preface to his Asfár that he suffered a good deal at the hands of the orthodox divines, and that Shaykh Ahmad His influence on Aḥsá'í, the founder of the Shaykhí school, wrote Shaykhí and Bábí theology. commentaries on two of his works, the Hik-

matu'l-'Arshvyya and the Masha'ir. Shaykh Muḥammad Iqbál is therefore probably right when he says¹ that "the Philosophy of Ṣadrá is the source of the metaphysics of early Bábíism," and that² "the origin of the philosophy of this wonderful sect must be sought in the Shí'a sect of the Shaykhís, the founder of which, Shaykh Aḥmad, was an enthusiastic student of Mullá Ṣadrá's philosophy, on which he had written several commentaries."

The two most celebrated of Mullá Sadrá's works, all of which, so far as I know, are in Arabic, are the Asfár-i-Arba'a, or "Four Books"," and the Shawahidu'r-His chief works. Rubúbiyya, or "Evidences of Divinity." Both have been lithographed at Tihrán, the first in two folio volumes in 1282/1865, the second, accompanied by the commentary of Ḥájji Mullá Hádí of Sabzawár, without indication of date or place of publication. Amongst his other works which I have not seen the Rawdátu'l-Jannát (p. 331) enumerates a Commentary on the Uşûlû'l-Káfí, the Kitábu'l-Hidáya, notes on the metaphysical portion of Avicenna's Shifá, a Commentary on the Hikmatu'l-Ishráq (presumably that of the celebrated and unfortunate Shaykh Shihabu'd-Din-Suhrawardi, known, on account of his execution for heresy, as al-Maqtúl), the Kitábu'l-Wáridáti'l-Oalbiyya, the Kasru Asnámi'l-Jáhiliyya, or "Breaking of the Idols of Ignorance," several commentaries on various portions of the Qur'an, etc.

Of Mullá Sadrá's philosophical doctrines, in spite of their

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necessarily superficial accounts in any European necessarily superficial accounts in a

The other shorter but more serious account of Mullá Sadrá's doctrine is given by Shaykh Muḥammad Iqbál, formerly a pupil of Dr McTaggart in this Unihammad Iqbál's versity of Cambridge, and now himself a notable and original thinker in India, in his excellent little book entitled Development of Metaphysics in Persia: a contribution to the History of Muslim Philosophy's, p. 175, but he devotes much more space (pp. 175-95) to the modern Ḥájji Mullá Hádí of Sabzawár, whom he regards as Mullá Ṣadrá's spiritual successor, and who, unlike his master, condescended, as we shall presently see, to expound his ideas in Persian instead of in Arabic. It may be added

كان...منقّحًا اساس الاشراق بما لا مزيد عليه و مفتّحًا ابواب الفضيحة على طريقة المشّاء و الرّواق'

¹ Development of Metaphysics in Persia (Luzac, London, 1908), p. 175.

² Ibid., p. 187.

³ Gobineau has misunderstood Asfár (which is the plural of Sifr, "a book," not of Safar, "a journey") when he writes (Rel. et Philos., 1866, p. 81), "Il a écrit de plus quatre livres de voyages." In the same way he mistranslates the title of one of the Báb's earlier works, the Ziyárat-náma ("Book of Visitation") as "un journal de son pèlerinage."

¹ Les Religions et les Philosophies, etc. (1866), pp. 80-92.

² P. 331. The passage runs in the original:

³ London, Luzac and Co., 1908. Muhammad Iqbál has set forth his own doctrines (which, as I understand them, are in the main an Oriental adaptation of Nietzsche's philosophy) in a short Persian mathnawl poem entitled Asrar-i-Khudl, lithographed at the University Press, Lahore, and translated into English with an Introduction and Notes by my friend and colleague Dr R. A. Nicholson (The Secrets of the Self, London, Macmillan & Co., 1920).

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that Mullá Ṣadrá speaks with great respect of that eminent

Maghribí Shaykh Muḥyi'd-Dín ibnu'l-'Arabí,

whose influence, non-Persian though he was,

was probably greater than that of any other
thinker on the development of the extremer

forms of Persian philosophical-mystical speculation.

4. Mullá Muhsin-i-Fayd of Káshán.

Muhammad ibn Murtadà of Káshán, commonly called Muhsin with the poetical pen-name of Fayd, was a native of Káshán, and, as already said, the favourite Mullá Muhsin-i-Fayd, d. about 1091/1680. pupil and son-in-law of Mullá Sadrá. In the Rawdátu'l-Jannát (pp. 542-9) and the Qisasu'l-'Ulamá much fuller notices of him are given than of his master, and, since he was not only a theologian and a philosopher but likewise a poet of some note, he is also mentioned in the Riyádu'l-'Árifín (pp. 225-6) and the Majma'u'l-Fusahá (ii, 25-6). His literary activity was His prodigious enormous: according to the Qisasu'l-'Ulamá he wrote nearly two hundred books and treatises. and was surpassed in productivity by hardly any of his contemporaries or predecessors except Mullá Muhammad Báqir-i-Majlisí. Sixty-nine of these works, of which the last, entitled Sharhu's-Sadr¹, is autobiographical, are enumerated in the Qisas, but fuller details of them are given in the Rawdát (pp. 545-6), where the dates of composition (which range between 1029/1620 and 1090/1680) are in most cases recorded. His age at this latter date, which is also notified as the year of his death, is stated as eightyfour2, so that he must have been born about 1006/1597-8. Of one of his works, the Mafátíhu'sh-Sharáyi', I possess

Autograph of Mullá Muḥsin-i-Fayḍ

Or. 4937 (Brit. Mus.), p. 84

Fare

¹ It was written in 1065/1654-5. See Rawdátu'l-Jannát, p. 546. It is wrongly entitled Sharh-i-Suwar in the Indian lithograph of the Qisas.

² Rawdátu'l-Jannát, pp. 542 and 549.

what appears to be an autograph copy, made in 1042/1632-3, now bearing the class-mark C. 18.

When Mullá Muhsin wished to leave his home in Káshán and go to Shíráz to study under the celebrated theologian Sayyid Májid of Bahrayn, his father opposed His travels this project, and it was finally agreed to take an in search of knowledge. augury (tafa"ul) from the Qur'an, and from the poems ascribed to the first Imam 'Alí ibn Abí Tálib. The former yielded the verse (ix, 123) "if a part of every band of them go not forth, it is that they may diligently instruct themselves in Religion"; the latter the following lines rendered particularly apposite by the words subbatu An apposite Majidi, "the society of some noble one," which augury. might in this case be taken as referring particularly to the above-mentioned Sayyid Májid:

تغرّب عن ٱلأوطان في طلب العُلمي،
و سافر ففي الأسفار خبس فوائد،
تفرّج همّ و آكتساب معيشة،
و علم و آداب و صحبة ماجد،
فأن قيل في الأسفار ذل و محنة،
و قطع الفيافي و ارتكاب الشّدائد،
فبوت الفتي خيرٌ له من قيامه،
بدار هوان بين ذل و حاسد،

"Go abroad from the home-lands in search of eminence, and travel,

After these clear indications, Mullá Muhsin's father no longer opposed his desire to go to Shíráz, where he pursued his studies not only with the aforesaid Sayyid Májid, but also with Mullá Sadrá. It is difficult to accept the statement of the Qisas that this took place in 1065/1654-5, for this would make him nearly sixty years of age before he began his serious studies with Mullá Sadrá or married his daughter.

Mullá Muhsin is described in the Qisas as a "pure Akhbárí" (Akhbárí-yi-Sirf), a Súfí, and an admirer of Shaykh Muhyi'd-Din ibnu'l-'Arabi. Shaykh Antagonism Ahmad Ahsa'ı, who, as we have seen1, wrote between Shaykh Ahmad Ahsa'i commentaries on two of the books of his master and Mulla Mullá Sadrá, detested him, and used to call him Muhsin. Must' ("the ill-doer") instead of Muhsin ("the well-doer"), and to speak of the great Shaykh as Mumitu'd-Din ("the Slayer of Religion") instead of Muhyi'd-Din ("the Quickener of Religion"). According to an absurd story in the Qisas, Mullá Muhsin was chosen by Sháh 'Abbás to confute a Christian missionary sent by the "King of the Franks" to convert the Persians. Mulla Muhsin triumphs over

would specify any article held in the closed hand of his opponent2. Mullá Muhsin chose a rosary (tasbih) made of clay taken from the tomb of the Imam Husayn. The Christian hesitated to speak, but, when pressed, said, "It is not that I cannot say, but, according to the rule I observe, I see that in thy hand is a portion of the earth of Paradise, and I am wondering how this can have come into thy possession." "Thou speakest truly," replied Mullá Muhsin, and then informed him what he held, and bade him abandon his own faith and accept Islám, which,

The sign offered by this missionary was that he

1 Pp. 429-30 supra.

a Christian missionary.

435 according to the narrator, he was constrained to do. Though extremely pious in most respects, Mullá Muhsin scandalized the orthodox by his approval and sanction of singing. His best-known Persian compilation is probably the Abwábu'l-Janán ("Gates of Paradise") composed in 1055/1645, on prayer and its necessity1, but few of his numerous writings have been published or are now read, and at the present day, at any rate, his name is more familiar than his works.

5. Mullá 'Abdu'r-Razzág-i-Láhijí.

The subject of this notice resembled Mullá Muhsin in being a pupil and son-in-law of Mullá Sadrá and a poet, who wrote under the pen-name of Fayyád, but Mullá 'Abdu'rhis writings, though much fewer in number, are Razzáq-i-Láhijí. more read at the present day. The best known are, perhaps, the philosophical treatise in Persian entitled Gawhar-i-Murád ("the Pearl of Desire"), and His Gawhar-ithe Sar-máya-i-Ímán ("Substance of Faith") Murád. also in Persian, both of which have been lithographed. The notices of him in the Rawdátu'l-Jannát (pp. 352-3) and the Qişaşu'l-'Ulamá are short and unsatisfactory. The latter grudgingly admits that his writings were fairly orthodox, but evidently doubts how far they express his real convictions and how far they were designed from prudential motives to disguise them, thus bearing out to some extent the opinion expressed by Gobineau.

I have been obliged to omit any further notice than that already given of the somewhat elusive figure of Mír Abu'l-

Qásim-i-Findariskí, mentioned by Gobineaus Mír Abu'las one of the three teachers of Mullá Sadrá, Qásim-i-Findariskí. because, apart from the brief notices of him

Not to be confounded with a later homonymous work on Ethics.

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[?] This is called khaby, and thought-reading damir. See my translation of the Cháhar Magála, p. 64 and n. 2 ad calc., and pp. 130-1.

⁹ Op. laud., pp. 91-2.

⁸ See pp. 257-8 and 408 supra.

contained in the Rivádu'l-'Arifín¹ and the Majma'u'l-Fusahá, in both of which the same poem is cited, and the passing reference in the Dabistán² to his association with the disciples of Kaywan and adoption of sun-worship, I have been unable to discover any particulars about his life or doctrines. He appears to have been more of a qalandar than a philosopher, and probably felt ill at ease in the atmosphere of Shí'a orthodoxy which prevailed at Isfahán, and hence felt impelled to undertake the journey to India. He must, however, have subsequently returned to Persia if the statement in the Rivádu'l-'Arifín that his tomb is well known in Isfahán be correct.

Gobineau (op. laud., pp. 91-110) enumerates a number of philosophers who succeeded Mullá Sadrá down to the time of his own sojourn in Persia, but most of them have little importance or originality, and we need only mention one more, who was still living when Gobineau wrote, and whom he describes as "personnage absolument incomparable."

6. Hájji Mullá Hádí of Sabzawár

It is not, however, necessary to say much about this celebrated modern thinker, since his philosophical ideas are somewhat fully discussed by Shaykh Muham-Hájji Mullá mad Iqbál at the end of his Development of Hádí of Sabzawár, Metaphysics in Persia⁸, while I obtained from b. 1212/1797-8, d. 1295/1878. one of his pupils with whom I studied in Tihran during the winter of 1887-8 an authentic account of his life, of which I published an English translation in my Year amongst the Persians. According to this account, partly derived from one of his sons, Hájji Mullá Hádí the son of Hájji Mahdí was born in 1212/1797-8, studied first in his native town of Sabzawár, then at Mashhad, then at Isfahán

ḤÁJJI MULLÁ HÁDÍ OF SABZAWÁR 437 with Mullá 'Alí Núrí. Having made the pilgrimage to Mecca, he visited Kirmán, where he married a wife, and then returned to Sabzawár, where the remainder of his life was chiefly spent until his death in 1295/1878. His bestknown works, written in Persian, are the His works. Asráru'l-Hikam ("Secrets of Philosophy") and a commentary on difficult words and passages in the Mathnawí; in Arabic he has a versified treatise (Manzúma) on Logic; another on Philosophy; commentaries on the Morning Prayer and the Jawshan-i-Kabir; and numerous notes on the Shawáhidu'r-Rubúbiyya and other works of Mullá Ṣadrá. He also wrote poetry under the pen-name of Asrár, and a notice of him is given in the Riyadu'l-'Arifin (pp. 241-2), where he is spoken of as still living and in the sixty-third year of his age in 1278/1861-2, the date of composition. Most of his works have been published in Persia in lithographed editions.

3. THE SCIENCES-MATHEMATICAL, NATURAL AND OCCULT.

As stated above, Mathematics (Rivadiyyat) "the Disand Tabi'iyyát the Natural Sciences, in conciplinary" junction with Metaphysics (Má wará or Má Evolution of "Arabian" ba'da't-Tabi'at), constitute the subject-matter of Science, and its the theoretical or speculative branch of Philoconnection with Philosophy. sophy, of which, therefore, they form a part. It is probable that to this manner of regarding them is partly due the unfortunate tendency noticeable in most Muslim thinkers to take an a priori view of all natural phenomena instead of submitting them to direct critical observation. The so-called "Arabian," i.e. Islamic, Science was in the main inherited from the Greeks; its Golden Age was the first century of the 'Abbasid Caliphate (A.D. 750-

¹ Pp. 165-6.

² Shea and Troyer's translation (London, 1843), vol. i, pp. 140-1.

⁸ Pp. 175-95. 4 Pp. 131-4.

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δ50), when so much trouble and expense was incurred by the Caliphs, especially al-Manṣúr, Hárúnu'r-Rashíd and al-Ma'mún, to procure good and faithful Arabic translations of the great Greek philosophers, naturalists and physicians; and the great service it rendered to mankind was to carry on the Greek tradition of learning through the Dark Ages of Europe down to the Renaissance.

So much is generally admitted, but there remains the more difficult and still unsolved question whether the Arabs

What, if anything, did the Arabs add to what they inherited from the Greeks? were mere transmitters of Greek learning, or whether they modified or added to it, and, in this case, whether these modifications or additions were or were not improvements on the original. This question I have endeavoured

to answer in the case of medical science in my Arabian Medicine¹, but I was greatly hampered by insufficient acquaintance with the original Greek sources. For such investigation, whether in the Medicine, Mathematics, Physics, Astronomy or Chemistry of the Muslims, three qualifications not often combined are required in the investigator, to wit, knowledge of the science or art in question, knowledge of Arabic (and, for later writers, of Persian and even Turkish), and knowledge of Greek. In the case of the "Arabian" (i.e. Muslim) physicians the conclusion at which I arrived (already reached by Dr Max Neu-

Eminence of Rhazes (ar-Rázi) burger in his monumental Geschichte der as an observer.

Medizin²) was that Rhazes (Abú Bakr Muhammad ibn Zakariyyá ar-Rází, i.e. a native of Ray in Persia) was, as a physician, far superior to the more celebrated and popular Avicenna (Ibn Síná), and was, indeed, probably the greatest clinical observer who ever existed amongst the Muslims. The notes of actual cases which came under his observation, as recorded in parts of his great "Continens"

(al-Hawt), have an actual and not merely a historical or literary value; and even from his methods of treatment it is possible that here and there a hint might be obtained. Avicenna was more logical, more systematic, and more philosophical, but he lacked the Hippocratic insight possessed by his great predecessor.

In my Arabian Medicine I sketched the history of the art amongst the Muslims from its beginnings in the eighth century of our era down to the twelfth, but learning after the made no attempt to follow it down to the period which we are now considering. The Mongol Invasion of the thirteenth century, as I have repeatedly and emphatically stated, dealt a death-blow to Muslim learning from which it has not yet recovered. Medical and other quasi-scientific books continued, of course, to be written, but it is doubtful if they ever approached the level attained under the early 'Abbasid Caliphs and maintained until the eleventh, and, to some extent, until the thirteenth century of our era. That they added anything which was both new and true is in the highest degree improbable, though I cannot claim to have carefully investigated the matter. A long list of these books is given by Dr Adolf Fonahn in his most useful work entitled Zur Quellenkunde der Persischen Medizin1, which has pointed the way for future investigators. Of these later works the most celebrated is probably the Tuhfatu'-Mú'minín, compiled for Sháh Sulaymán the Safawi by Muḥammad Mú'min-i-Husayní in A.D. 1669. It deals chiefly with Materia Medica, and there are numerous editions and manuscripts, besides translations into Turkish and Arabic.

What has been said about Medicine holds good also of Zoology, Botany, Chemistry, etc., and in a lesser degree of Mathematics, Astronomy and Mineralogy. Fine work

¹ Pp. viii+138, Cambridge University Press, 1921.

² Vol. ii, Part i, pp. 168 et seqq.

¹ Leipzig, 1910, pp. v+152.

² See Fonahn, op. laud., pp. 89-91. See also B.M.P.C., pp. 476-7.

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yard in Chemistry. All these, I think, have come to the conclusion that the standard attained by the best Muslim investigators surpassed rather than fell short of what is generally supposed. Yet it is often difficult to assure oneself that direct observation, which is the foundation of true science, has played its proper part in ascertaining the phenomena recorded. Dr Badhlu'r-Raḥmán, now Professor of Arabic in the Oriental College at Lahore, when he was a Research Student in this University, took as the subject of his studies the works of al-Jáhiz, who,

Al-Jáhiz on instincts in ants. on the strength of his great book on animals, the Kitábu'l-Hayawán, is often regarded as one

of the leading naturalists of the Arabs¹. At my request this able and industrious young scholar devoted especial attention to the question whether the writings of this author afforded any proof that he had himself observed the habits of any of the animals about which he wrote. A passage was ultimately found which seemed conclusive. In speaking of instinct al-Jáhiz says that when the ant stores corn for food it mutilates each grain in such a way as to prevent it from germinating. After numerous fruitless enquiries as to the truth of this statement, I finally ascertained from Mr Horace Donisthorpe, one of the chief British authorities on ants, that it was correct, and I began to hope that here at last was proof that this old Muslim scholar had himself observed

a fact of Natural History apparently unknown to many modern Zoologists. Unhappily I subsequently discovered the same statement in Pliny, and I am afraid it is much more likely that it reached al-Jáhiz by tradition rather than by direct observation.

In each of the "Arabian" sciences the same question arises and demands an answer which only one thoroughly versed in the scientific literature of the ancients can give. Does Ibnu'l-Baytár's great Arabic work on medicinal plants, for example, contain any information not to be found in Dioscorides? Be the answer what it may, it is doubtful whether the later Muslim writers on these various Modern Eurosciences ever surpassed, or even equalled, their pean Science in Persia. predecessors. In quite recent times, especially since the foundation of the Dáru'l-Funún, or Polytechnic College, at Tihrán early in the reign of Násiru'd-Dín Sháh, numerous Persian translations or adaptations of European scientific works have been made, but these are entirely exotic, and can hardly claim to be noticed in a work on Persian Literature. A number of them are mentioned in my Press and Poetry of Modern Persia, pp. 154-66, under the heading "Modernising Influences in the Persian Press other than Magazines and Journals." But of those Persians who since the middle of the nineteenth century have successfully graduated in the European schools of science, I know of none who has hitherto made a reputation for original research.

In conclusion a few words must be said about the Occult Sciences, excluding Astrology and Alchemy, which are in the East hardly to be separated from Astronomy and Chemistry. Alchemy is called in Arabic and Persian Kimiya, and the names of four other Occult Sciences, dealing with Talismans, Necromancy, and the like, are formed on the same model, Limiya, Himiya, Simiya, and Rimiya, the initial letters

¹ E.g. by Fr. Wüstenfeld in his Geschichte der Arabischen Aerste und Naturforscher (Göttingen, 1840), pp. 25-6 (No. 65). Carl Brockelmann's view is correct (Gesch. d. Arab. Litt., i, p. 152), but his criticism of Dr L. Leclerc's remarks on the subject (Hist. de la Médecine Arabe, i, p. 314) hardly appears justified.

being derived from the words Kulluhu Sirr (قله سرّ), "All of it is a Mystery." The book entitled Asrár-i-Qásimi ("Secrets of Oásim")1 in Persian, and the Shamsu'l-Ma'arif ("Sun of Knowledges")2 of the celebrated Shaykh al-Búní in Arabic, may be regarded as typical of this class of literature, but to the uninitiated they make but arid and unprofitable reading. Ibn Khaldún is the only Muslim writer I know of who has sought to discover a philosophical and rational basis for these so-called sciences, and his ideas have been collated with the theories of modern Psychical Research in a most masterly manner by Professor Duncan Black Macdonald in his interesting and suggestive book entitled The Religious Attitude and Life in Islam's. I have always kept an open mind as to the reality of the powers claimed by Occultists, and, when opportunity offered, have always gone out of my way to investigate such manifestations. Disappointment has invariably been my portion, save in two cases: a "magician" whom I met in Kirmán in the summer of 1888, who, amidst much vain boasting. did accomplish one feat which baffled my comprehension4; and the late Shaykh Ḥabíb Aḥmad, author of an astonishing work in English entitled The Mysteries of Sound and Numbers, who, if nothing more, was an amazingly skilful thought-reader.

4. HISTORY—GENERAL, SPECIAL AND LOCAL.

It must be admitted, with whatever unwillingness and regret, that in the art of historical compilation the Persians

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fall far short of the Arabs, who, indeed, excel in this branch of literature. The earlier Muslim annalists like Tabarí, with

Superiority of the Arabs to the Persians as historians.

their verbatim narratives by eye-witnesses of the events recorded transmitted orally through carefully scrutinized chains of traditionists, are not only singularly graphic but furnish us, even

at this distance of time, with materials for history of which, thanks to these isnáds, it is still possible to estimate the authenticity, even if our judgement as to the strength of the respective links in the chain does not always agree with that of Muslim critics. The later Arab historians selected, condensed, and discarded these somewhat wearisome if valuable isnáds, but their narrative, as a rule, continues to be crisp, concise, graphic and convincing. The best of the earlier Persian historians, down to the thirteenth century, though lacking the charm of the Arabian chroniclers, are meritorious and trustworthy. The bad taste of their Tartar and Turkish rulers and patrons gradually brought about a deterioration both of style and substance,

Deplorable influence of the Tarikh-i-Wassaf.

very noticeable between Juwayni's Ta'rikh-i-Jahán-gusháy (completed about 658/1260) and its continuation, the Ta'rikh-i-Wassaf (completed in 712/1312), which, as already observed,

exercised an enduring evil influence on subsequent historians in Persia. Of later Persian histories I have met with few equal to a history of the Caliphate by Hindúsháh ibn Sanjar ibn 'Abdu'lláh aṣ-Ṣáḥibí al-Kírání, composed in

A Persian version of the Kitabu'l-Fakhri.

724/1324 for Nusratu'd-Dín Ahmad the Atábak of Luristán, and entitled Tajáribu's-Salaf ("Experiences of Yore"). This, however, is

entirely and avowedly based on the delightful Arabic history of Safiyyu'd-Din Muhammad ibn 'Alí al-'Alawi at-Tiqtaqi, composed in 701/1302, commonly known

¹ Lithographed at Bombay in 1885 and 1894.

² I possess the lithographed edition of 1318/1900, but others have appeared in India and Egypt.

³ University of Chicago Press, 1909.

⁴ See my Year amongst the Persians, pp. 453-5.

London, Nichols & Co., 1903; pp. xiv+211.

as the Kitábu'l-Fakhrí, but here entitled Munyatu'l-Fudalá fí Tawáríkhi'l-Khulafá wa'l-Wuzará ("the Desire of Scholars on the History of the Caliphs and their Ministers"). That it never appealed to the debased taste which we are here deploring is sufficiently shown by the fact that not only has it never been published, but, so far as I know, it is represented only by my manuscript, G. 3 (copied in 1286/1870), and one other (dated 1304/1886-7) in the Bibliothèque Nationale in Paris2.

It would be a wearisome and unprofitable task to enumerate the many Persian historical works composed during the last four centuries. Of the histories of Some notable special periods the most important have been later Persian histories. not only described but freely quoted in the first part of this volume, notably the Safwatu's-Safá for the life of Shaykh Safiyyu'd-Dín from whom the Safawí kings were descended; the monograph on Sháh Isma'il described by Sir E. Denison Ross in the J.R.A.S. for 1896, pp. 264-83; the Ahsanu't-Tawarikh, completed in 985/1577-8 by Hasan-i-Rúmlú; and the Ta'ríkh-i-'Alamárá-yi-'Abbásí of Iskandar Munshi, composed in 1025/1616. There are other monographs on the later Safawi period, such as the Fawa'id-i-Safawiyya (1211/1796-7) and the Tadhkira-i-Al-i-Dáwúd (1218/1803-4), which I would fain have consulted had they been accessible to me. For the post-Safawí period we have several excellent European accounts which render us less dependent on the native historians, some of whose works moreover (e.g. the Ta'ríkh-

i-Zandiyya¹ and the Mujmalu't-Ta'rikh-i-Ba'd-Nádiriyya²) have been published in Europe, while others, such as the Durra-i-Nádirí of Mírzá Mahdí Khán of Astarábád, are easily accessible in Oriental lithographed editions. These monographs contain valuable material and are indispensable to the student of this period, but they are generally badly arranged and dully written, and further marred by the florid and verbose style of which we have just been complaining.

DEFECTS OF PERSIAN HISTORIES

For the general histories of our present period, from Khwandamir's Habibu's-Siyar (929/1523) at the beginning

Poor quality of most of the Persian general

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to Ridá-qulí Khán's Supplement to the Rawdatu's-Safá and Lisánu'l-Mulk's Násikhu't-Tawarikh at the end, with the very rare

Khuld-i-Bartn (1071/1660-1) in the middle, there is even less to be said, since, though for events contemporary with their authors they have the same value as the monographs just mentioned, for the earlier periods they are not even good or judicious abstracts of the carelessly selected authorities from whom they derive their information. They are, moreover, histories not of the Persian people but of the kings, princes and nobles who tyrannized over them and contended with one another for the spoils; wearisome records of bloodshed, violence and rapine from which it is hard to derive any general concepts of value. Only by diligent and patient study can we extract from them facts capable of throwing any real light on the religious, political and social problems which a historian like Ibn Khaldún would have handled in so masterly a manner.

There are, however, hopeful signs of improvement in

¹ Originally edited by Ahlwardt from the Paris Ms. 895 (now 2441) and published at Gotha in 1860. A revised text was published by H. Derenbourg at Paris in 1895, and there are at least two cheap and good Egyptian editions. A French translation by Emil Amar has been published by the Société des Études Marocaines (Paris, 1910).

² See Blochet's Cat. des Mscr. Persans etc. (Paris, 1905), vol. i, p. 251 (Schefer 237 = Suppl. Pers. 1552).

¹ Ed. Ernst Beer, Leyden, 1888.

² Ed. Oskar Mann, Leyden, 1891.

³ Compare Mr Vincent Smith's judicious remarks on this subject in his monograph on Akbar, pp. 386-7.

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recent times. Poor Mírzá Jání of Káshán, though a merchant without much literary training, wrote his Signs of im-Nugtatu'l-Káf¹ on the history of the Bábí sect, provement in modern times. of which in 1852 he was one of the proto-martyrs, with violence and passion indeed, but with knowledge, in plain and simple language without that florid rhetoric which we find so intolerable; while the unfinished "History of the Awakening of the Persians" (Ta'ríkh-i-Bídárí-yi-Írániyán) of the Názimu'l-Islám of Kirmán², with its ample documentation and endeavour to estimate personal characteristics and influence on political events, seems to me to stand on an altogether higher level than any preceding Persian historical work composed during the last six or seven centuries.

5. BIOGRAPHY, AUTOBIOGRAPHY AND TRAVEL.

Muslim writers have always evinced a great partiality for biography, which may be general, dealing with the lives of eminent men of all sorts, like Ibn Khallikán's Biography Wafayátu'l-A'yán ("Obituaries of Notable popular with the Muslims. Men") and the Rawdátu'l-Jannát, of which I have made such extensive use in the latter part of this volume, the former composed in the thirteenth, the latter in the late nineteenth century, and both in Arabic; and the ambitious but unfinished modern Persian Náma-i-Dánishwarán ("Book of Learned Men") compiled by a committee

of some half a dozen scholars, of which the first volume was lithographed at Tihrán in 1296/1879 and Different types the second in 1312/1904-51. More often such of biographical works treat of the biographies of some particular class of men, such as Ministers, Physicians, Poets or Theologians; or they follow a geographical or a chronological arrangement, merging on the one hand into geography and on the other into history. Khwandamír's Dastúru'l-Wuzara ("Models for Ministers")2, composed, according to the chronogram implicit in the title, in 915/1509-10, affords us a Persian example of the first type falling at the beginning of the period reviewed in this volume. For the Physicians and Philosophers no Persian work approaches the level of al-Qifti's Ta'rikhu'l-Hukamá's and Ibn Abi Usaybi'a's 'Uyúnu'l-Anbá fi Tabaqáti'l-Atibbá', both composed in the thirteenth century of our era, a period so rich in Arabic biographical works. Biographies of poets, on the other hand, abound in Persian, especially in the later period, since Sháh Isma'íl's son Sám Mírzá set the fashion with his Tuhfa-i-Sámí (a continuation of Dawlatsháh's "Memoirs of the Poets") compiled in 957/1550. Eminent representatives of the Shi'a sect, both Arabs and Persians of every category from kings to poets, form the subject-matter of the very useful Majálisu'l-Mú'minín ("Assemblies of Believers"), the author of which, Sayyid Núru'lláh of Shúshtar, was flogged to death in 1019/1610-11 by order of Jahángír at the instigation of the Sunnís, and who is therefore called by his tellow-believers the "Third Martyr" (Shahid-i-Thálith).

¹ Published in 1910 as vol. xv of the "E. J. W. Gibb Memorial" Series.

² This work was published in lithographed fasciculi, and, so far as it has reached me, comprises the Introduction (Mugaddama) of 273 pp.; vol. i, completed on the 20th of Dhu'l-Qa'da, 1328 (Nov. 23, 1910), which carries the narrative down to what is called the Hijrat-i-Sughrá (December, 1905), and comprises 256 pp.; and vol. ii, completed at the end of Safar, 1330 (Feb. 18, 1912), comprising 240 pp. Whether there is any likelihood of the work being completed I do not know.

¹ See my Press and Poetry in Modern Persia, pp. 165-6.

² Compare Rieu (B.M.P.C.), p. 335. I have a good modern Ms. professedly collated with the original in 1268/1851-2, now marked

^{*} Edited by Professor Julius Lippert (Leipzig, 1903).

⁴ Printed in Cairo in two volumes in 1299/1882.

⁵ See Rieu (B.M.P.C.), pp. 337-8.

Of the older geographico-biographical works the Atháru'l-Bilád ("Monuments of the Lands") of Zakariyyá ibn Muhammad ibn Mahmúd al-Qazwíní¹, and the Persian Haft Iglim ("Seven Climes"), composed in 1028/1619 by Amín Ahmad-i-Rází, are typical specimens². Monographs on different provinces or cities of Persia are also fairly common, and generally include notices of the more eminent natives of the region discussed. Of modern biographical works produced in Persia I have made extensive use, especially in the chapter on the Theologians, The Rawdátu'lof the Arabic Rawdátu'l-Jannát fi Ahwáli'l-Jannát. 'Ulamá wa's-Sádát ("Gardens of Paradise, on the circumstances of Men of Learning and Leading"). This comprehensive work, which deserves to be better known, contains some 742 notices of eminent Muslim scholars, saints and poets, ancient and modern, and was compiled by Muhammad Báqir ibn Hájji Amír Zaynu'l-'Abidin al-Musawi of Khwansar in the latter half of the nineteenth century. A good lithographed edition (except that, as usual, it has no Index) appeared at Tihrán in 1306/ 1888. The notices are arranged in alphabetical order, not very strictly observed, under personal names, such as Ahmad, 'Alí, Muhammad, etc., which, of course, are seldom the names by which those who bear them are commonly known. Thus the Muhammads, who fill the greater part of the fourth and last volume and comprise a hundred and forty-three articles, include the great Shí'a theologians generally referred to as al-Kulayní, Ibn Bábawayhi and

Shaykh-i-Musíd; the historians Tabarí and Shahristání; the scientists Rází and Bírúní; the thinkers Fárábí, Ghazálí and Muḥyí'd-Dín ibnu'l-'Arabí; and the Persian poets Saná'í, Farídu'd-Dín 'Attár and Jalálu'd-Dín Rúmí, nor is any subordinate plan, chronological or other, discernible within these sections, so that the owner of the book who wishes to consult it regularly is compelled to make his own Index or Table of Contents.

The other book which I have constantly consulted as to the lives of the theologians is the Persian Qisaşu'l-'Ulamá ("Stories of the Doctors") of Muḥammad ibn The Oisasu'l. Sulaymán of Tanakábun, who wrote it in 1290/ Ulama. 18731. It contains about a hundred and fifty biographies of Shí'a divines, and is more readable, if less accurate, than the work previously mentioned. Another useful Persian book on the same subject is the The Nujûmu's. Nujúmu's-Samá ("Stars of Heaven") composed Samá, and other biographies of by Mírzá Muḥammad 'Alí in 1286/1869-703, Theologians. dealing with the Shi'a doctors of the eleventh, twelfth and thirteenth centuries of the hijra (seventeenth, eighteenth and nineteenth of the Christian era). There exist also two special monographs in Arabic on the Shí'a divines of Bahrayn and Jabal 'Amil, the Lú'lú'atu'l-Bahrayn ("Pearl of Bahrayn") of Shaykh Yúsuf ibn Ahmad al-Bahrání, who flourished in the eighteenth century; and the Amalu'l-Amil fi 'Ulamá'i Jabal' Amil (" the Hoper's Hope, on the Doctors of Mount 'Amil"), by Muhammad ibn Ḥasan ibn 'Alí...al-Ḥurr al-'Amili, who belongs to the previous century.

Mention must also be made of another modern biographical work of a somewhat special character, which,

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¹ Edited in the original Arabic by F. Wüstenfeld (Göttingen, 1848), and followed in the succeeding year by the same author's "Wonders of Creation" ('Ajá'ibu'l-Makhlúqát).

² In the Haft Iglim the biographical element preponderates. Unfortunately it remains unpublished, though a critical edition was begun by Mawlawi 'Abdu'l-Muqtadir, of which, so far as I know, only the first fasciculus (pp. x+114) has been printed at Calcutta in 1918.

¹ I possess two lithographed editions, one, the second Tihrán edition, published in 1304/1886; the other, apparently at Lucknow, in 1306/ 1888-9

² Lithographed at Lucknow in 1303/1885-6.