IAD ORIENTAL SERIES: 16

EDUCATION IN MUSLIM INDIA

BEING
AN INQUIRY INTO THE STATE OF EDUCATION DURING THE MUSLIM PERIOD OF INDIAN HISTORY
(1000—1800 A.C.)

BY

S. M. JAFFAR, B.A., M.R.A.S. (LONDON),
Author of "Medieval India", "The Mughal Empire" and "Some Cultural Aspects of Muslim Rule in India"

IDARAH-I ADABIYAT-I DELLI

2009, QASIMJAN STREET. DELHI-6 (INDIA)
TO
MY PARENTS AND TEACHERS
IN TOKEN OF MY GRATITUDE
PREFACE

"They also serve who stand and wait."

—Milton.

While studying original sources and contemporary histories for writing a comprehensive history of Muslim Rule in India, I came across a number of notices on education and educational matters. Though I dealt with them at some length in my *Medieval India*, and *The Mughal Empire*, I thought it proper to take them up in a separate volume—hence this book. The absence of good libraries such as exist in important educational centres, coupled with my own limited resources, rendered it peculiarly difficult for me in this province to procure the books over which the information on the subject lies scattered. It was my interest in education that drove me from place to place in search of books drawn upon for material, and it was my industry that enabled me to write this book on a rather neglected subject of our study during my college career. Considering the difficulties, referred to above, and the fact that the book was carried through the press amidst a great pressure of work, I am afraid I cannot expect it to be free from flaws, but I hope I will be able to remove them in its subsequent editions, should these be called for. For the present, I shall deem myself richly rewarded if this humble effort—a pure labour of love—succeeds in arresting attention and evoking interest, enlisting sympathy and stimulating further researches into the subject.

It will not be fair on my part if I do not warn the reader against a pitfall which I came across in the course of my investigations in Indian History. Most of the modern writers have consciously or unconsciously adopted the
modern standard of civilization as a criterion whereby they judge the things of the past. They compare the past with the present and denounce the former in the light of modern conceptions of culture and civilization without having regard to the time that has scanned the interval in between—time that has made marvellous improvements in and additions to the existing knowledge of man and changed his conception of things. Such a comparison is not only unfair but injurious unless it aims at the edification of the future. Progress is the law of life, and time is an important factor, which, when a comparison is attempted, must be taken into consideration. And when this is done, it will be evident that education, which is supposed to have been neglected, was sufficiently sought and provided for in the Islamic times, so much so that India at that time could favourably compare and often successfully compete with any country of the world in point of education. Imagine, for instance, the absence of the printing press side by side with the presence of thousands of libraries containing innumerable manuscripts. Imagine also the state of crude means of conveyance and with it the flocking of students from far and wide to important centres of education.

This book is a tribute of gratitude to all those contemporary chroniclers and modern historians whose monumental works I have consulted for constructing this narrative; to Professor Haroon K. Sherwani of the Osmania University for contributing the Foreword; and to the Judicial Commissioner, N.-W. F. P., for permitting me to publish it.

Khudadad Street,  
PESHAWAR CITY,                  S. M. JAFFAR.  
March 10, 1936.
CONTENTS

Preface ........................................ vii-viii
Abbreviations ................................... xvi
Corrigenda ...................................... xvi
Foreword ........................................ xvii-xix

CHAPTER I—INTRODUCTION
General Features
Importance attached to education in Islam—In Muslim India—Social status of the Teaching Class—Relation between the teacher and his pupils—Monitorial System—Education incumbent upon every Muslim, man and woman—State of female education in Muslim India—Muslim Kings' interest in education—Court Patronage and Private Patronage—Gratuitous Education—How maktabs and madrasahs were financed—Absence of printing press—Commercial Education—Education of Hindus—Cultivation of Sanskrit ................................ pp. 1—15

CHAPTER II—SYSTEM OF EDUCATION
Introductory—Higher Education—Secondary Education—Primary Education and Method of Teaching—Medium of Instruction and study of Arabic—Curriculum—Science vs. Philosophy—System of Examination—Public Tests—System of Punishment—Aims and ideals of education in other countries—In Muslim India—Aim of Present System of Education—Quality of education imparted in Muslim India—Extent of Education—Results and achievements of the System of Instruction then in force ................................... pp. 16—34

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION—I
COURT PATRONAGE

CHAPTER III—PROGRESS OF EDUCATION DURING THE EARLY MUSLIM PERIOD
Introductory—University of Sultan Māhmūd at Ghaznin—Foundation of Muslim Schools in India by Shahāb-ud
Din Ghori — Education of his slaves — Erection of mosques by Qutb-ud-Din—Altamash's Court-Scholars and his madrasah—Sultana Razia and the Mu'izzi College—Nasir-ud-Din's Court-Scholars—His Colleges—Balban and his Court-Scholars—Prince Muhammad, the pioneer of literary societies—Prince Kurra Bughra Khan, the founder of a dramatic society—Jalal-ud-Din Khilji and his contributions to the cause of education—Ala-ud-Din Khilji's Court-Scholars and universities—Mubarak Shah restores confiscated property—Secularization of state property and its effects on educational institutions—Ghiyas-ud-Din Tughluq: his literary activities and achievements—Muhammad Tughluq's attainments—Scholars who thrived under the patronage of Firoz Shah Tughluq—Organization of a system of public instruction under him—Thirty colleges of his reign—His most magnificent madrasahs—Education of slaves as a function of Firoz Shah's Government—Sayyad Kings' educational achievements—Bahlol Lodhi's interest in the education of his subjects—Sikandar Lodhi's literary associates—His interest in education—Progress of belles lettres under his patronage—Appointment of Miyani Budh and his work—Foundation of Agra and its growth into a university-city—Hindus receiving Persian education in Muslim Schools ... ... ... ... ... pp. 36–58

Chapter IV—Progress of Education in the Provincial Kingdoms

Introductory—State of education in Sind under Nasir-ud-Din Qabacha and Shah Beg Arghun—In Multan under Hussain Shah Langa and Hussain Mirza—Jaunpur as an important centre of education under Ibrahim Sharki—Court of Jaunpur—Jaunpur as a university-city—Decay of Indian Muslim universities for lack of patronage in later times—Educational facilities in Malwa—Decay of its colleges—Education in Bengali
CONTENTS

under Ghiyas-ud-Din I and — II — Darusbari and Madrasah-Tila — Interest taken by Raja Kanis in Islamic education — Progress of education in Bengal under the Hussaini Dynasty — Muslim Kings’ Contribution to Bengali Literature — Education in Gujarat during the days of its independence — Contributions of Sikandar Shāh, Zain-ul-Abidin and Hussain Shāh to the cause of education in Kashmir — State of education in the Bahmanid Kingdom — In its off-shoots — Imperial Library of Bijapur — Educationists of Khāndesh — State of education in Hinawr ... ... pp. 59-75

CHAPTER V — PROGRESS OF EDUCATION DURING THE MUGHAL PERIOD — I

Introductory — Bābar’s literary attainments — He makes diffusion of education a duty of the State — Humāyūn’s love of books and literary tastes — His literary associates — Educational progress under Sher Shāh Śūrī and his successors — Litterateurs of Akbar’s reign — Agra as a centre of education — Lāhore as a centre of literary activities — Fathpur Sikri and Ibādat Khāna — Original works, translations and compilations — Imperial Library — Propagation of education — Reforms in education — Method of Teaching — Curriculum — Conclusion. pp. 76-91

CHAPTER VI — PROGRESS OF EDUCATION DURING THE MUGHAL PERIOD — II

Jahāngir’s literary associates — His interest in the spread of education — His love of good books — Extremely high prices of Persian MSS in his times — Why and with what results? — Scholars of Shāh Jahān’s Court and his son’s literary work — State of education under him — Bernier’s account of education in India under him — Fallacy of Bernier’s arguments and falsity of his account — Shāh Jahān’s contributions to the cause of education — Alamgir’s interest in education — Foundation of
CONTENTS

numberless schools and colleges by him — Imperial Library — Educational achievements of Alamgir’s reign — Literary and educational achievements of the later Mughals — Conclusion

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION — II
PRIVATE PATRONAGE

CHAPTER VII — PROGRESS OF EDUCATION DURING THE EARLY MUSLIM PERIOD

Introductory — Voluntary Effort in the reign of Sultan Ghiyas-ud-Din Balban — In the reign of Sultan Ala-ud-Din Khilji — Specialists in various branches of knowledge, who flourished under private patronage — Nizam-ud-Din Auliya and Shai Kh Usman — Progress of theology and philosophy — Delhi as an important centre of education — Library of Ghazi Khan — State of education in India on the eve of Babar’s invasion

CHAPTER VIII — PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN THE PROVINCIAL KINGDOMS

Introductory — Educational efforts of the Sayyads of Rohri — Multan as a seat of learning — Banda Nawaz Gesu Daraz of Kulbarga — Mahmud Gawan’s literary attainments — His literary benefactions — Madrasah-i-Mahmud Gawan — Shaikh Ibrahim Multani chosen as the head of Madrasah-Gawan — Description of the Madrasah — M. Taylor’s opinion about it — Brigg’s note on it — Estimate of Mahmud Gawan’s achievements — Tuitionary work of Dauid Shahu’s son — Madrasah of Munim Khan at Jaunpur — Madrasah of Bibi Raji at Jaunpur — Rahim Dad’s College at Gwaliar — State of education in Bengal — Conclusion

CHAPTER IX — PROGRESS OF EDUCATION DURING THE MUGHAL PERIOD

Introductory — Shaikh Zain-ud-Din’s College and a School erected to his memory — Tomb of Humayun used as a madrasah — College of Maham Ankah in Delhi — Madrasah of Khwaja Mu’in — Voluntary Effort in Gujarat —
CONTENTS


Chapter X—Domestic System of Education and Village Schools

Introductory—Domestic System of Instruction—The System as described in the Imperial Gazetteer of India—Scholars who owed their erudition to it—Its existence in the South—Village Schools in the North—In the South—Importance of the systems of education described above—Maktab Ceremony—Conclusion ... pp. 145–154

Progress of Education—III

Connected Topics

Chapter XI—Royal Education

Introductory—Shahāb-ud-Din’s interest in the education of his adopted sons—Education of Sultāna Razia and Prince Māhmūd—Education of Balbau’s sons—Literary and military education of Muhammad Tughluq—Education of Firoz Shāh and his son Fath Khān—Sikandar Lodhi’s literary education—Education of Sultān Ghiyās-ud-Din II of Bengāl—Education of Bahmani Princes—Bābar’s early education—Lane-Poole on his education—Humāyūn’s admission into a school and the performance of Maktab Ceremony—Was Akbar illiterate?—His early education—Humāyūn’s interest in his education—Improbabilities of his illiteracy—Direct evidence on the subject—What is responsible
for the view that he was illiterate?—Evidence in support of his illiteracy negated—Akbar's interest in the education of his sons and grandsons—Education of Shāh Jahān's sons and grandsons—Alamgir's early education—His lengthy discourse on the subject of education—Discourse continues—Criticism of the discourse—Theory of royal education—Education of his children—Bernier's observations on Alamgir's anxiety for their education—Manucci on the education of Mughal Princes—Catrou on their education—Tod on their many-sided acquirements—Conclusion ... pp. 155—186

CHAPTER XII—GIRLS' EDUCATION

CHAPTER XIII—TECHNICAL EDUCATION
Introductory—Artistic and industrial development indicating the existence of a good system of technical education Kārkhanās— or workshops as technological institutes—Their importance—Domestic System of Industrial Education—Its merits and demerits—Imperial Patronage of arts and industries Their progress during the early Muslim Period—Bābar's account of Indian workmen and their abundance—Progress of arts and industries during the Mughal Period—Bernier's testimony to Indian workmanship—Achievements of Kashmiris in arts and industries—Description of Kārkhanās or workshops—Trade-guilds—Importance of home manufactures—Feats of engineering—Conclusion. pp. 199—241
CONTENTS

CHAPTER XIV - EVOLUTION OF URDU
Introductory—Origin of Urdu—Forces which produced it—
Its conventions of diction and grammatical structure
—Difference of script—Provenance of Urdu poetry—
Delhi School of Urdu Poets—Lucknow School of
Urdu Poets—Rāmpur School of Urdu Poets—Patna
School of Urdu Poets—Development of Urdu prose—
Need for a lingua franca and chances of Urdu—
Conclusion ... ... p. 215-30

CHAPTER XV - RETROSPECT
General Conclusions and Suggestions
Introductory—Libraries—Literary Societies—Mushāirās or
poetical contests—Mosques and monasteries—Kār-
khanājāt—Musalmāns’ contribution to Indian edu-
cational thought and practice—Some Suggestions.
pp. 231-42

Bibliography ... ... p. 243-46.
Index ... ... p. 247 ff.
ABBREVIATIONS

Ain. ... Āin-i-Akbari by 'Allāma Abul Fazal.
B.I.S. ... Bibliotheca Indica Series.
H.U.L.S. ... Home University Library Series.
J.A.S.B. ... Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.
J.R.S.A. ... Journal of the Royal Society of Arts.
M.A.S.B. ... Memoirs of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.
M.U.J. ... Muslim University Journal.
N.K.T. ... Newal Kishor Text.
P.A.S.B. ... Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.
Trans. ... Translation (English).

CORRIGENDA

Page 108, line 6 (from foot), for literary read literary.
Page 140, line 11 (from top), insert and after emperor.
Page 165, line 12 (from foot), for thes read that.
Page 185, line 5 (from foot) insert the after from.
Page 193, line 2 (from top), for minstrel read minstrel.
Pages 227 and 240, lines 6 and 4 (from foot), for chose read choose.
Page 234, line 7 (from foot), for immensely read immensely.
FOREWORD

I believe it was Froude who once said something to the effect that one should not raise one's pen to write unless one can add to human knowledge, and there is no doubt that Mr. S. M. Jaffar has done a great service to the cause of education in general and Indian Culture in particular by writing this book on 'Education in Muslim India' and thus made a distinctive contribution to the field of Indian historical literature.

Time was when a student of Indian history had to be content with knowing something about warring dynasties, court intrigues, internecine feuds and other matters which went to make the 'history' of this country a subject of useless, if not actually harmful, study. Happily we have now come to feel the necessity of the whole of Indian history being rewritten not so much from the point of view of occurrences at the capitals of various states, as in order to delineate the spread of culture and to demonstrate the value of its present composite form, so that our people may not be led away by the false notion that whatever paraphernalia of civilization we possess does not go back to more
than a century and a half. Indian civilization, with its real and inherent unity in the midst of its outward diversity, is age-long and not a mere graft, and this is one of the great and abiding results of the events which go to form the history of India.

Mr. Jaffar has stressed the right point when he describes how the people began to drink at the fountain of knowledge without regard to their rank or religion, and education, once the monopoly of the chosen few, nearly ceased to have any barriers round it. It was not merely instruction in the traditional Reading, Writing and Arithmetic which was imparted, but the magnificent monuments of the Age, the wonderful technique of apparel, wood and metal-ware, the great precision in the execution of public monuments, the abundance not only in commodities but in the monetary wealth as well which went to purchase them, the strides taken in the arts of war as well as of peace—all these things lead one to estimate, in however meagre a manner, the great progress made in the equipment of the people, high and low, with the right kind of vocational and technical knowledge.

I am very glad to find that Mr. Jaffar has brought out these and many other equally important and attractive traits in his valuable
work by tapping the information contained in the contemporary chronicles and has thus filled a long-felt want. I am sure that the book will be of great use to the student of Indian history as well as to the general reader, and trust that it will receive the recognition it so fully deserves.

Osmania University, H. K. Sherwani
Hyderabad, Deccan.
CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION
GENERAL FEATURES

"Acquire knowledge because he who acquires it in the way of the Lord, performs an act of piety; who speaks of it, praises the Lord; who seeks it, adores God; who dispenses instruction in it, bestows alms; and who imparts it to its fitting objects, performs an act of devotion to God. Knowledge enables its possessor to distinguish what is forbidden from what is not; it lightens the way to heaven, it is our friend in the desert, our society in solitude, our companion when bereft of friends; it guides us to happiness; it sustains us in misery; it is our ornament in the company of friends; it serves as an armour against our enemies. With knowledge the servant of God rises to the heights of goodness and to a noble position, associates with sovereigns in this world, and attains to the perfection of happiness in the next."

—Muhammad.

Islam attaches immense importance to the acquisition and extension of 'ilm or knowledge, which, with all its scholastic appurtenances involved in the study of the Qur'an, the Ahadith and other sciences, is the only road to the apprehension of truth. The plea of ignorance does not weigh with it because it is often used as a subterfuge. Apropos of it there are recurring passages in the Qur'an. The Surah-i-Iqra,2 the first revealed version of this Holy Book, opens with

2. Al-Qur'an, Chapter XCVI. This surah is also known as 'Al-alaq'.

---
an injunction addressed to the Prophet to 'read', and the place assigned to education in Islam can be best appreciated in the light of importance attached to ink, pen and paper,—the three indispensable instruments of acquiring and extending knowledge. The same surah is also partially devoted to the art of writing and its indispensability as a means to the same end. 3 Besides, there are numerous Traditions (Ahadith) treating of the subject and enjoining it as a religious duty. 4 Consequently, it should not occasion surprise if the votaries of Islam have always held learning and erudition in honour verging on veneration. With such an attitude towards knowledge, Islam has immeasurably contributed to the wisdom of the world and the science of humanity. For the achievements of Islam in the realm of letters, the reader is requested to refer to the histories of Ibn-i-Khaldun, Ibn-ul-Athir and a host of historians whose accounts exhibit the height of civilization to which the Musalmans had attained. 5 Suffice

3. Ibid., Chapter XCVI; and Spirit of Islam, by Amir Ali, p. 361.
5. For the literary and scientific spirit of Islam, see Spirit of Islam, by Amir Ali, Chapter IX, pp. 360-404.
it to say here that while the whole world was sunk in barbaric ignorance, Baghdad, Cairo, Cordova, Damascus, Kairowan, Nishapur and Seville reared their heads, shone as beacons and shed their light far and wide, illuminating the West as well as the East, then steeped in the darkness of ignorance.  

In India, the sons of Islam, remotely removed as they were from the rest of the Muslim World, could not keep pace with their brothers outside in material as well as in intellectual advance. Consequently, their attainments in education were not as high as may be expected; yet considering the conditions of the newly conquered country and the difficulties they had to face there, they did very well indeed. Many of them were noted for their love of learning and patronage of letters. Some of them devoted themselves exclusively to the acquisition and extension of knowledge. They did not marry because marriage, they thought, obstructed their progress in education. Their self-abnegation and self-effacement in the cause of learning have few parallels in the whole history of education. Hazrat Shaikh Isa Dehlawi, for instance, 'expressed his last

---

6. An account of these universities will be found in Amir Ali's *Short History of the Saracens*, pp. 205-207, 459, 460 and 517; and *Encyclopædia Britannica* (12th edition).
wish that he should be buried in the place where the students of his madrasah used to keep their shoes'. In short, learning was held in high esteem and the learned were loved and respected all over the country. The State also encouraged them in every possible way. Judges, lawyers and ministers of religion were taken from their class. The appointment was made by a board of examiners, who were the distinguished members of their class, best suited to ascertain the learning and suitability of a candidate, who, if declared successful, was formally invested by them with his new character by tying an imāmah (turban) round his head.

It may also be said at the outset that our old Indian teachers had a great respect for their calling. They would not do anything which might reflect badly on their character and profession. Their integrity was absolutely unshakable. They occupied a high position in society and, though their emoluments were small, they commanded universal respect and confidence. The spiritual force of their character could not be doubted and the efficacy of their

8. M. Elphinstone’s History of India, p. 421.
teaching was such as was never called in question. They were very much like the German teachers of to-day. 

There existed a most affectionate relation between the teacher and his pupils. They often resided together in constant intellectual communion, and even when this was not so, the pupils were always in close contact with their teachers. Their relation was like that of father and son. That this was exactly so, is proved by the fact that no regular fee was charged and that the students were often provided with board and lodging free by their teachers. Profound respect and, sometimes, personal service were expected from the pupils, and the teachers, in return, regarded it their moral duty to equip their pupils with all that was essential for their moral and material improvement. 

Intimately allied to the relationship between the teacher and the taught is the monitorial system, which also deserves a passing notice. More intelligent and advanced students were associated with their masters in the work of teaching. They were appointed as monitors


for the assistance of teachers in conducting the class, maintaining order and giving lessons. The monitoiral system seems to have been devised by the Indian educators of old for solving the problem of teaching a large number of students at different stages of study at the same time. While the monitors thus helped their teachers a good deal in their work, they, in return, received good practical training in the art of teaching. The revival of this system is recommended by many on the ground that 'it will yield many excellent results,' and there is no doubt that it is worth a trial in India, where the younger students' respect for the older ones is very marked and this will, as a matter of course, prove useful in making the experiment a success.\[11\]

The teachings of Islām are meant for all human beings. Muhammad recommended education as meritorious in the eyes of the Almighty and invited all and sundry to acquire it. To say or to suppose that the nobler sex was debarred from acquiring it, is wholly against the spirit of his teachings. He emphasized the acquisition of learning and made it compulsory for all the Faithful,—men as well as women. We know for certain that

Bibi Fatima, his own beloved daughter, was efficiently equipped with intellectual attainments. She used to participate in the discussions on the controversial question of Caliphate (Succession). It was undoubtedly on account of her extraordinary erudition that she was known by the honorific appellation of 'the Lady of the Light'. Zainab, Hamda, Hafsah, Al-Kalleyeh, Safia, Maria\textsuperscript{12} and many more whose names cannot be enumerated here for want of space, have all left an ineffaceable impress on the literature of their times. They have since been regarded as true models of womanhood, whose footsteps every woman should aspire to follow.\textsuperscript{13}

In India, the daughters of Islam could not rise to the standard of perfection their preceptors had

\textsuperscript{12} Spirit of Islam, by Amir Ali, p. 393 and his Short History of the Saracens, p. 569.
\textsuperscript{13} Khalidā Edib Khanum, the Turkish educationist, novelist and historian, whose public lectures attracted large learned audiences during her short tour in India, is in fact their faithful follower. She is a living instance of what woman has achieved and is capable of achieving in the realm of letters in the wide world of Islam. She reminds the students of Islamic history of Shaikhā Shuhādā (otherwise known as Fakhr-un-Nisā or the 'Pride of womanhood' on account of her intellectual eminence) who flourished in the fifth century of the Muslim era and lectured publicly in the Cathedral Mosque of Baghdad on literature, rhetoric and poetry. Amongst the gallery of the great women of Islam, who have consecrated their sex by their virtues, she occupies a high place.
attained in *belles-lettres*, yet when allowance is made for the age they lived in and the circumstances that obtained then, it will be evident that they had made a fair advance in the sphere of intellect, and it will be wrong to suppose that their education was neglected. For the instruction of girls, there were separate schools, but usually they received their education in their own houses or in those of their teachers, living in close proximity. Sometimes learned men of advanced age and proved piety and often learned ladies of tried merits and school-mistresses were employed for the purpose. I must point out here that education was given to girls according to their requirements. They received better moral, intellectual and practical training in their houses than their sisters of to-day do in the kind of schools now available. Consequently, there was no danger of their acquiring such desires as would have caused discontent and discord later on and resulted in their moral as well as spiritual bankruptcy.\textsuperscript{14}

\textsuperscript{14} Obviously enough, I refer to unrestricted and promiscuous co-education above the age of ten, which, if encouraged or even allowed to continue, is bound to bring about the destruction of both the sexes. This is by no means to say that I am opposed to co-education in the primary stage up to the age of ten, with suitable safeguards and under healthy atmosphere.
In the Middle Ages no Government, however advanced, had a regular department of public instruction. In Muslim India, there was one, which looked after religious as well as educational institutions. There was hardly a prince of any importance whose name is not, in some way or the other, connected with the opening of a school or a college during his reign. From the evidence recorded in the ensuing pages, it will be amply clear that the Muslim Kings of Mediæval India opened schools and colleges and established libraries in the various parts of their dominions, and sought to supplement their educational achievements by extensive patronage of literary worth, from whatever sources it was evinced. At times, of course, the machinery of education was thrown out of gear, but such times were few and far between. On the other hand, there was a time, says a Hindu historian, when Indian Muslim universities were thronged by thousands of students and when a professor had often hundreds of hearers.\(^{15}\) The streams of literary water, which flowed from these fountains of education, not only fertilized the soil, but supplied nourishment to the seeds of scholarship sown in it, and the result was a rich crop.

---

of *litterateurs*, poets, *savants* and scholars.

The Muslim Sovereigns of India loved and remunerated personal homage done to them in the form of eulogistic prose or verse. It followed, therefore, that the ambition of every courtier was to become an author and of every author to become a courtier. Hence it was that almost every author of importance was, in a greater or less degree, attached to the Muslim Court, which was, in fact, the fountain-head of encouragement for literary fortune-hunters. Not that there were no poetry and prose, histories and sciences written outside this charmed circle; there were many poets and philosophers, pamphleteers and chroniclers who were setting down histories and descriptions and inditing some of those detailed and realistic dissertations and other compositions that elicit our praises in spite of ourselves. This was because authorship commanded great respect and led to honours and emoluments.  

Arrangements were also made for the free education of poor but promising students. Stipends and scholarships were granted to them for their

---

maintenance and no effort was spared to supply their material requirements. Often the State set up schools and orphanages, where the children of the poor and orphans received education free of charge, and not infrequently they were supported at schools and colleges by the princes and peers at their own expense. No distinction was made between the sons of the rich and of the poor, and this had indeed a great unifying influence.¹⁷

Salaried teachers and paid professors were employed in state schools and seminaries. Vast endowments were created and large estates were set apart for the maintenance of educational institutions. In the schools that were held in private houses, the teachers, as a point of honour, taught their pupils without receiving anything, except personal service, as remuneration. The Village School-Master was paid his fees in kind and was, no doubt, a fair prototype of the Village School-Master portrayed by Goldsmith in his Deserted Village.¹⁸

It must, however, be pointed out here that the progress of education was much hampered in

---

¹⁷. Vide Professor Gulshan Rai’s article on Our Educational Problems—II in the Tribune, dated 4th August, 1935.
¹⁸. Indian Administration, by V. G. Kale, p. 432.
those days on account of the absence of the printing press. Consequently, books had to be written by hand. So, there were amanuenses, employed specially for the purpose. Numerous libraries, containing innumerable manuscripts in fine handwriting, were established and endowed. Not a few of the original works have come down to us to testify to the successful cultivation of calligraphy. Good handwriting was greatly valued; it was an essential constituent of a literary man's accomplishments. Though it is now quite out of fashion, it was regarded as an important fine art in those Days. Letter-writing and penmanship were equally highly prized in Muslim India.

Nor was scholastic learning alone cultivated. For the successful cultivation of such fine arts as painting and music, students went to the houses of their chosen ustāds, or teachers, sat at their feet and received instruction in these arts. Technical training, or vocational knowledge, was diffused by the system of apprenticeship. There were thousands of

karkhanas or workshops, wherein boys were often apprenticed with the artisans to the trade for receiving instruction in particular arts and crafts.\textsuperscript{20} Commercial education was also imparted with a view to provide scientific training in the structure of industry and commerce for those contemplating business careers. The trading-classes maintained their own schools for the training of their children in the rudiments of the three R’s and made arrangements for the promotion of their knowledge in business and accounts. Even at this distant date, such schools are commonly extant in India.\textsuperscript{21}

Before the advent of Islam in India, knowledge was the monopoly of the favoured few, \textit{viz.}, the Brahmins, who, partly from motives of self-aggrandisement and partly because they thought it would not answer to cast pearls before swine, refused to impart education to the low-born.\textsuperscript{22} With the

\textsuperscript{20} \textit{Imperial Gazetteer of India,} Vol. IV, p. 436.
\textsuperscript{21} \textit{Indian Administration}, by V. G. Kale, p. 432.
\textsuperscript{22} Going according to the principle of social divisions of Priests, Warriors, Merchants, and Workers,—each forming a water-tight compartment,—knowledge was, even in the best days of Hindu ascendancy, an exclusive monopoly of the Brahmins. Here by knowledge is meant spiritual knowledge or sacred lore, which the Brahmins had preserved or reserved for themselves and to which none but they could have free access. Though against this there was a revolt, not
advent of Islam, however, this superciliousness was shaken off and education became the birth-right of every citizen—Muslim and Hindu, man and woman, rich and poor. In the Muslim schools that were started in India, Hindus, who had hitherto been deprived of the intellectual feast, began to receive education side by side with their Muslim class-fellows, and there existed no feelings of prejudice, ill-will or enmity between the two in so far as education was concerned—a circumstance peculiar only to Islamic Governments, whether in India, Spain or elsewhere, which unequivocally facilitated the fusion of the rulers and the ruled into one nation. Apart from imparting education to the sons of the subject people in the same schools side by side with the sons of the ruling class, the State, during the Muslim Period, went even so far as to maintain private schools held by Brahmins and Mahants.

only individual or isolated, as the stories in some of the purāṇās and Epics would show, but also organized and persistent, as the outbreak of Buddhism and Jainism would indicate; yet after the decline of these two religions the same order of things obtained, so that when Islam appeared in India, it had to face and fight the same old spirit. I am not ignorant of the universities of Taxila, Nalanda, etc., but my point is that mass education was unknown to Hindu India for a long time. While as regards arts and crafts, the Brahmins were, I should say, positively backward as compared to other sections of Hindu community. (Vide Keny’s Ancient Indian Education, pp. 68, 69 and 159.)

23. India and Her People, by Swami Abhedananda, p. 189.
There was a separate department of the State, which looked after the endowments created and set apart for the maintenance of religious and educational institutions, and this department looked after them.  

The ban that had been put by the Brahmins on the cultivation of Sanskrit was removed by the Muslim Kings and Chiefs to an appreciable extent. Under the Imperial patronage, several Sanskrit books, dealing with diverse subjects, were translated into Persian and Arabic. Besides, there were scores of Muslim Chiefs who themselves studied Sanskrit and patronized it without stint. Many of them translated Sanskrit works into Persian in order to put the treasures of Hindu lore within the reach of the Muslim World, and encouraged others in this direction. Often Sanskrit works were included in the courses of study for Hindu students. In short, Sanskrit was encouraged in every possible way.

25. In his article on ‘Education in Muslim India’, Dr. James H. Cousins writes as follows:—

“Musulman kings and princes themselves became students, and included Hindu culture in their intellectual interests. Muslim literary education intermingled as freely with Hindu literature as Mughal painting with Rajput painting. Hindu classics were translated into Persian, and as a consequence Persian culture influenced Hindu culture . . . .” (The Eastern Times, dated 7th June 1935.)
CHAPTER II

SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

"Seek knowledge from the cradle to the grave."
—Muhammad.

In Islamic times education was diffused in this country by the three-fold means of maktabs and madrasahs, mosques and monasteries, and private houses, typifying three forms of education, viz.: (1) university or higher education with under-graduate and post-graduate courses; (2) secondary education, which obtained in grammar schools, high schools and private academies; and (3) primary education imparting elementary knowledge. As apart from these regular instruments of imparting instruction, the ends of education were achieved in another unostentatious and unconventional way, which had no mean share in the dissemination of knowledge. It was common that those who could read would read aloud and others who could not read would listen with avidity, and discussions followed on the topics raised between the educated, armed with information based on books on one side, and the illiterate equipped with accumulated experience on the
other. The result was that they obtained a better and broader view of topical subjects from those discussions than many of us do by reading only one side of the subject in our favourite papers. And, it was not uncommon for an 'allāma (scholar) or a muballigh (preacher) who, whether commissioned by a king or by his own conscience, came to deliver a lecture or a sermon, to attract large audiences; the people, high and low, old and young, clustered round him and attentively listened to his instructive discourse. Mushā-eras or poetical symposiums were frequently held and they, in their own way, contributed a good deal to the same cause.

About the higher education of Musalmāns during the Muslim Period, we have the following account from the *Imperial Gazetteer of India*:

"In former times the higher education of Muhammadans was in the hands of men of learning who devoted themselves to the instruction of youth. Schools were attached to mosques and shrines and supported by state grants in cash or land, or by private liberality. Individual instructors of merit were also aided by the state, and land-holders and nobles vied with each other in supporting scholars of repute. Several towns in India, such as Gopāmāu and Khairābād in
Oudh, and Jaunpur in the Province of Agra, have from time to time been famous seats of learning to which students flocked from all parts of India, and even from Afghanistan and Bokhara, to attend the lectures of renowned specialists. The course of study in a Muhammadan place of learning included grammar, rhetoric, logic, theology, metaphysics, literature, jurisprudence, and science. The classes of the learned instructors have been replaced by madrasas or colleges of a more modern type founded by the liberality of pious persons."

Generally speaking, secondary education was imparted in mosques and monasteries. Almost all mosques, like the churches of Mediaeval Europe, provided for religious as well as secular education. Likewise Muslim khānqāhs, analogous to the monasteries of Mediaeval Europe, made provision for education which was mostly religious. The dargāhs or shrines,

---

1. *Imperial Gazetteer of India*, Vol. IV, p. 408. Whereas the Jāmīn Osmānīa (Osmānīa University) of Hyderābād Deccan is a replica of those universities which were founded and endowed by the State, and the Nizām, a prototype of the Imperial educationists of those times; the Jāmīn Millīa (National Muslim University) of Delhi represents the type of educational institutions which owed their origin and existence to voluntary efforts, and the Shaikh-ul-Hind (Māhmud-ul-Hassan) is a true representative of the then voluntary zealots in the cause of education.
which are to be seen all over India, are the tombs of celebrated saints known as *dervishes*, who, on account of their profound knowledge, were loved and respected by the people as their *Murshids* or spiritual preceptors. One of the most renowned of these saint-scholars was Shāh Nizām-ud-Din Auliya who hailed from Ghaznin and is buried in the neighbourhood of Delhi, where he lived for a long time and died in 1325 A. C. in the reign of Sultān Ala-ud-Din Khilji, who was his disciple. Another such *savant* was Muin-ud-Din Chishti, who seems to have preceded Nizām-ud-Din Auliya. Muin died at Ajmere in 1265 A. C. and since then his tomb has been a resort of many pilgrims. The doctrines he preached, received sufficient support, three centuries later, from Salim Chishti, who found in Emperor Akbar a faithful friend, a proud patron and a devoted disciple. These and many others of their class established, during their lifetime, *khanqahs*, where they held schools, in which religious education was imparted and mystic ideas preached. Such centres of education supplemented very substantially the educational work done by *maktabs* and *madrasahs* established by the State.²

---

Elementary education was imparted in primary schools and private houses. The method of teaching in vogue was very simple and much the same as now. A novice was first taught the alphabet with correct pronunciation, punctuation and signs of accents. After learning this, he was taught their combinations and then made to read and write short sentences in which those combinations most frequently occurred. He was given some exercises daily, which he read and wrote on his takhti (oblong board) and gradually learnt the art of reading and writing. Having thus equipped himself with the necessary means of acquiring knowledge, he could, if he would, proceed to study various arts and sciences in schools and colleges under the tuition of learned professors and doctors. The method of teaching was much improved in the reign of Akbar the Great under the direction of Allāma Abul Fazal.

The medium of instruction was Persian, the language of the Muslim Court; and the study of Arabic, the language of the Qur‘an, was

3. Subsequent to the alphabet, or sometimes simultaneously with it, he was taught the numerals and elementary arithmetic.

compulsory for the Musalmāns. The Qur'ān was, as it is now and shall continue to be, the first school in which the sons and daughters of Islām received their early education. Students used to sit cross-legged on floors or on benches with books in their hands, and learnt lessons from their teachers, who used to sit on pulpits or stand before their pupils, dispensing instruction in various arts and sciences. In the elementary schools, the children learnt to write with reed pens or with tubes of some other kind on oblong boards called takhtis, 'in appearance like a large edition of the horn-book, which could be washed clean at the close of the lesson'.

In the primary stage the curriculum, comprised Reading, Writing and elementary Arithmetic, and in the secondary and higher stages it included the following branches of knowledge:—ethics, divinity, astronomy, the art of administration, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, physics, medicine, natural philosophy, rhetoric, law, ritual, accounts, agriculture, economics, and history. For Hindus, their own national books were prescribed. They were

6. Ibid.; India and Her People, by S. Abhedananda, pp. 188-89; Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law.
taught on the same level with Muslims, and in their own culture. Though the curriculum described above was not uniformly followed in the various Indian Muslim universities, yet most of the subjects enumerated above were taught to the students. No subject was forcibly thrust upon them. They had their own choice in the selection of their subjects, and they received their education according to their own future aims and ambitions. As a result, there was little waste of time and talent. It is also interesting to note that vocational studies, such as agriculture and accountancy, were also embraced by the curriculum. The inclusion of the art of administration in the course of study is significant. It shows that the subject was not exclusively meant for the princes of the royal family, as emphasized in the *Arthashastra*, but was taught to the delegate governors and even to the governed for their association in every branch of administration with a view, perhaps, to the progressive realization of responsible government. The subject moved from the princely specialization of the *Arthashastra* towards the participation of the people at large, has attracted the attention of the present rulers of India, and will undoubtedly

---

pp. 161-62.; Dr. J. H. Cousin's article in the *Eastern Times*, dated 7th June, 1935; and Ain 25 of the *Ain-i-Akbari*. 
move into the future which is still before us.\textsuperscript{7}

On the mental side of the Muslim curriculum, science seems to have received greater attention than philosophy; but the mental needs of man were not ignored. Arts and crafts were taught in separate schools because they were not included in the collegiate curriculum. The separation seems to imply that the artisans and craftsmen did not require to be informed or have their mental powers developed and disciplined, and that they needed only practical training which was given through apprenticeship. Education even in this age, at its most advanced stage, is not free from the same implication.\textsuperscript{8}

Unlike to-day, examinations were not the be-all and the end-all of all education. There was no mania for degrees and diplomas such as now prevails. This was because education was for its own sake and for the sake of self-improvement. It was not fettered with formalities and was free from such 'soul-destroying standardization' as exists to-day in India. There was no time-limit for passing certain examinations, and there were not so

\textsuperscript{7} Dr. J. H. Cousin's article in the \textit{Eastern Times}, dated 7th June, 1935.
\textsuperscript{8} \textit{Ibid.}
many examinations as now. There was only one efficiency test which was free from all the formalities of the examination test, which every student in modern Indian schools must undergo. For instance, a student, who answers three out of every five questions incorrectly, is declared successful and is placed in the second class. Such a one would have been condemned by the old Indian schools and his teacher must have taken every care to make up his deficiency. There were no monthly, terminal and annual examinations, and students were not examined year after year for promotion to a higher class in schools and colleges. There were no question-papers, answer-books, marking of papers set by one and examined by another. The teacher-in-charge himself conducted the examination of his class and promoted the successful students to the next higher step in the ladder of education. Apart from sanads or certificates, stipends or scholarships, inâms (prizes) and tamghâs (medals) were awarded to the brilliant alumni in proportion to their merits. In short, the system of examination in vogue was simple, less showy, more successful. A remnant of it still survives at the educational institutions which have resisted the interference of Government Education Departments, and can now be compared with the system of
examination now in force in Germany.  

This is so far as academic examinations are concerned. As regards those public tests and courtly rivalries, which used to provide on grand occasions no small interest, entertainment and instruction to the most magnificent Courts, it is not difficult to estimate their educative value. Rich rewards and precious presents of the princes afforded great stimulus to poets and scholars who emulated one another in literary excellence. Mushāeras or poetical symposiums were held at the Imperial Court where prominent poets, invited from all parts of the country, enlightened the assemblage with their compositions in poetry. There the ability of the poets was put to real test and there they were given their weight in gold or silver, which developed the spirit of competition among them and led to the progress of poetry. And, the conferment of the title of Malak-ush-Shu arā or Poet-laureate, with all the importance and dignity it carried with it, on the best poet of the day, had a lure that was irresistible.

Punishments inflicted on students in those days at the primary stage were pretty much the same as are meted out to their brothers in the Indian schools of to-day. Truants and delinquents were caned on their hands and slapped on their faces. But a more common punishment was, perhaps, to make them hold their ears by taking their hands from under their thighs while sitting on their tiptoes. Korah or whip was also used and custom permitted the teacher to punish his students in any other way his ingenuity might devise.¹⁰

The educational policy of every people, in every country and in every age has been framed by its educationists with a particular aim in view. In some countries the aim of their educationists has been to form and organize an independent nation; in others, to foster the spirit of patriotism. In order to achieve their objects, they arranged public lectures and included such books in the syllabuses of schools and colleges as would best serve their purpose. In France, for instance, when the Republican Government took over from the Church the function of education, they thought that the

¹⁰ Imperial Gazetteer of India, Vol IV, p. 409.
real aim of education was to produce free men. The entire scheme of education in Republican France was therefore framed with free dom as its first and foremost aim. ‘Liberty, equality and fraternity’—the new ideal of the French nation—became the sheet-anchor of the French System of Education. Soon after her defeat at the battle of Jena in 1802 A. C. at the hands of Napoleon, Germany evolved out a system of education at once in accordance with the needs of the nation. Patriotism became the principal aim of the German System and the love of the Fatherland was fostered through it in every possible way. Japan has successfully imitated Germany in constructing its educational system and has achieved much in almost every sphere of human endeavour. It cannot therefore be gainsaid that these and many other countries have risen chiefly through their new educational systems, which they have constructed in accordance with their present requirements. To education they owe their greatness and glory, and upon education depends their future success.

In the spiritually-minded countries of the East, the chief aim of education has been to produce religious men. In Muslim India, it was to bring out the latent faculties of students, to
discipline the forces of their intellect and to equip them with all that was essential for their moral and material improvement. It was, in other words, the formation of character. Education was regarded as a preparation for life and for life after death. Hence it was that religion was at the root of all study: Every maktab and madrasah had a mosque attached to it, and in every mosque there were separate classes for the instruction of students in sciences other than religious, so that secular education might go hand in hand with religious instruction. The curriculum embodied in a previous paragraph is amply illustrative of this point. The fact that the rulers and the ruled received their education together without any racial or religious antagonism, that the curriculum embraced the national literature of both Muslims and Hindus, that the art of administration was taught to all and sundry and everyone was eligible to compete for the highest post next only to the Emperor's, and that there was no distinction between the sons of the rich and of the poor in their educational career—shows that the formation of a nation was also aimed at. The Indo-Islamic System of Education embodied in it the germs of the German, the Japanese and the French Systems of Education. It was at its most perfect development
in the reign of Akbar the Great, who sought to unite the peoples of India in every possible way, no less through education.

Here I do not propose to expose the defects of the Modern System of Education in India, but I cannot help sounding a word of warning to our educationists, because it is my sincere belief that India cannot make her way in the world unless and until her educational system is remodelled on rational, or rather, national lines. Education has now descended from its high pedestal of glory to a commonplace level and its aim is no longer the same as it used to be. A boy is sent to school, not because his parents want to make him a man of learning and character or a useful citizen, but because they regard education as a means whereby their son can secure a good station in life. It is thus clear that from being an end in itself, education has now become a means to an end—an end at once selfish and ignoble, which, moreover, is not easy to achieve, so much so that the tendency of education in India at present is to produce learned beggars and literate coolies. Religion, the backbone of Indian culture and civilization, was once the root of all study, but does not find place in the curricula of modern Indian schools and colleges. This, in short, accounts for the
wholesale demoralization of the people.\textsuperscript{11}

In other respects, the quality of education imparted in Muslim India may be fairly estimated by putting the *elite* of that age side by side with those of the modern age, and comparing the achievements of both, making, at the same time, due allowance for the time that has since elapsed. In the absence of statistics, I cannot, I must acknowledge at the outset, give any definite figure of the literate of Muslim India, nor can I draw any comparison between that age and the educated India of to-day. Though the systematic diffusion of education in India on such a scale is a feature of the last fifty years, yet at no time during the eight centuries of the Muslim Rule was the subject of education ever relegated to the background. To the modern mind, however, the system of

\textsuperscript{11} "Education should not only build man's mind out, also his character, and should not demoralize the people. The standardisation of education in India which exists to-day is soul-destroying"—said the Right Reverend E.H.M. Waller, Bishop of Madras, in the course of his stirring speech at the Secunderabâd Y.M.C.A. He denounced the Modern System of Education on the ground that it was divorced from religion and did not build character. The real aim of education, he said, was the formation of character. Looked at from this angle of vision, the kind of education imparted in Muslim India was quite up to the mark, (*Vide* Eastern Times, dated 23rd March, 1935). For other faults and failures of the Modern System of Education, *Vide Peoples and Problems of India*, by Sir T.W. Holderness pp. 224 ff.
education then in vogue may appear to be inferior and even inadequate; it was, nevertheless, best-suited to the conditions of the country and the requirements of the students. It was free from much that has tarnished the Modern System of Education. It produced real scholars who were devoted to the study of truth. On the whole, there is a good ground for the general belief that the scholars turned out by old Indian schools were more thorough, and that the knowledge possessed by the matriculates and graduates manufactured by modern Indian universities is superficial and defective.¹² At present the statistical results may be highly impressive, but the fact, or rather the defect, that the real educative effect is absent, is also patent to the naked eye.

From the evidence recorded in the ensuing pages it will be evident that universities were established in principal cities, and schools were opened in smaller towns both by Kings, Amirs and others. Likewise mosques and monasteries were founded and endowed in almost all parts of Muslim India, and these became a valuable asset to education in general. Their importance as centres of both spiritual and secular learning

cannot be exaggerated. They were not strictly limited to ‘ibādat, i.e. divine worship. On the other hand, they were often availed of by scholars and savants for the recitation of their books. They were also used for lecture-halls and schools. Almost every mosque of importance had, as I have said before, a school and a library attached to it. Khānqāhs or shrines played a similar part in the dissemination of knowledge, both religious and general. A khānqāh commenced its career first as the centre of an order and then the oratory of its founder, who was buried there after his death. Like mosque, it was used as a place of instruction. The chief instance is the Khānqāh of Nizām-ud-Din Auliya.¹³ These khānqāhs were numerous, but more numerous were mosques. No city, town or village, however small, was without them, and often there were several mosques even in a single village, and many in cities and towns. From all that has been stated above as a summary of what will presently follow, the reader can roughly work out, with the aid of imagination, the number of schools and gauge the extent of education in Muslim India.

¹³. For an account of mosques as places of ‘ibādat and instruction, each containing a school and a library, vide Mohammedanism by D.S. Margoliouth, p 117; and for that of khānqāhs used as such, see Spirit of Islam by Amir Ali pp. 471-72.
The results of the system of education as typified in the enduring achievements of those who benefited by it also form an important part of this thesis and should not, therefore, be omitted. From amongst the countless scholars of various reigns and periods, I have singled out only some and outlined their achievements, which would give the reader some idea of the kind of education they had received. But my main point is that there could not have been such a rich crop of poets and philosophers, historians and others without there being some system of general education in existence. Great scholars do not, by themselves, spring up all over the country like mushrooms; they indicate the existence of a strong background of good average education from which they stood out like the peaks of a plateau. The most enduring achievement of the system of instruction in vogue at that time was the cultural unity of India. Hindus and Muslims studying side by side in the same state schools without any restrictions of rank, race or religion; compulsory education in Persian; cultivation of Sanskrit and Hindi; mutual exchange, adoption and incorporation of words, thoughts, and ideas—all these things combined and cumulatively contributed to the cultural unity of India during that period.
There were many Muslim scholars who studied Sanskrit and Hindi, wrote poetry and prose in these languages, and encouraged their cultivation. Likewise, there were several Hindus who cultivated Persian and Arabic and made their mark in the literature of these languages. Both the communities thus contributed to the language and literature of each other by enriching their vocabulary and enlightening the outlook of their votaries on life and letters. They devised a common medium of expression, Urdu, and developed it into a literary language. This had its natural result in the evolution of a common culture, which united them both and tended to bridge the gulf which existed between them on account of religious differences.  

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION—I
COURT PATRONAGE
CHAPTER III
PROGRESS OF EDUCATION DURING THE EARLY MUSLIM PERIOD

"Acquire knowledge even if it be in China."
—Muhammad.

Having described the system of instruction,—its methods and curricula, its aims and ideals, its extent and achievements, etc.,—I shall now proceed to trace the progress of education under the patronage of Muslim Kings and their Muslim subjects, and give a short account of the foundation and maintenance of educational institutions and the encouragement of men of learning and accomplishments—which forms an integral part of this thesis. For the sake of clarity and convenience I have treated the subject under three main heads: (1) Court Patronage; (2) Private Patronage; and (3) Connected Topics.

To begin with the House of Ghaznin.1

University of Sultan Mahmud at Ghaznin.

With rare exceptions, the promotion of education was an object of great concern to the Ghazna-wide Princes, each of whom tried to outvie

1. Same as Ghazna or Ghazni, the Capital of Sultan Mahmud situate in Afghanistán, 84 Miles, S. S. W. of Kâbul.
the other in his encouragement of letters. Sultan Mahmud and his successors were surrounded by a galaxy of literary stars. They opened schools and colleges in their kingdom, some of which are still famous in the annals of Islam. The university of Sultan Mahmud at Ghaznin, with a big library and a museum attached to it, stood as a lighthouse in Afghanistan, enlightening the life and thought of its inhabitants. But all this was, strictly speaking, outside India proper, mostly in Ghaznin and its dependencies.2

Sultan Shahab-ud-Din of Ghor (or Muhammad Ghori) was the first Muslim King of India who deemed it his duty to impart education in India proper. Notwithstanding his political preoccupations which constantly occupied his attention, we know for certain, he devoted himself to the cause of education in India. At Ajmere he set up some schools and seminaries for the spread of

2. A detailed account of the literary achievements of the Ghaznavides and their contributions to the cause of education will be found in:—(i) History of India as told by its own Historians, Elliot and Dowson, Vol. II, pp. 63, 138, 139, 188, ff.; (ii) Brigg's Translation of Tarikh-i-Ferishtah, Vol. I, pp. 32, 61, ff., 113, 114, 137, 149, and 150; (iii) Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law, Chapter I (The House of Ghazni).
Islamic culture and erudition in that province. Ferishta gives a graphic account of the work of private tuition undertaken by him to educate his slaves in whom he had seen the signs of their future greatness. That some of these slaves and their sons supplied a series of capable rulers to India, is a glowing tribute to the interest he had taken in their education. One of them faithfully followed him in his footsteps and further increased the facilities for education in India, particularly in Bengal and Bihār, where he opened some schools and colleges.

Qutb-ud-Din Aibak, the founder of the Slave Dynasty in India, was thoroughly conversant with Arabic and Persian, and had some knowledge of science besides. He loved the learned and reverenced them with all his heart. In the various parts of his dominions, he established

---

3. History of India as told by its own Historians. Elliot and Dowson, Vol. II p. 215.

4. Brigg’s Translation of Tarikh-i-Ferishta, Vol. I, p. 200. Mr. Law says that “in the instruction of these protégés of his he used to combine a literary education with a training in the difficult art of practical Government, which was essential to princes” (Vide Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law, p. 18).

5. History of India as told by its own Historians, Vol. II, pp. 306-309 and Raverty’s Translation of Tabqāl-i- Nāṣiri, p. 559-60; and Law’s Promotion of Learning in India, p. 106.
numerous mosques in which, analogous to the churches of Mediæval Europe, secular learning went hand in hand with religious instruction.  

Altamash (Iltutmish) was a distinguished patron of letters. Scholars of the calibre of Amir Khusrau and Fakhr-ul-Mulk Usami flourished at his Court under his patronage. Amir Kuhani, a philosopher of great reputation, was also among the stipendiaries who drew their sustenance from his coffers. The Fatuhat-i-Firoz Shahi ascribes to his efforts the erection of a madrasah. The original text is as follows:—

"The Madrasan of Shams-ud-Din Altamash had been destroyed. I rebuilt it and furnished it with sandal-wood doors."—Firoz Shah Tughluq.

Sultana Razia Begum, a cultured queen herself, she was not looked to in vain by the litterateurs of her time for encouragement. That she was in complete sympathy with the stimulation of

6. "Muhammadan learning was promoted by the establishment of hundreds of mosques which like the churches of Mediæval Europe were centres of both religion and learning." (Vide Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law, p. 19.)

7. History of India as told by its own Historians. Elliot and Dowson, Vol. III, p. 383.
education is brought home to us by the existence of the Muizzi College, which was in a flourishing state during her reign. The college was located at Delhi and was so rich and magnificent that it was once attacked by the Karamathians who were under the impression that it was the Jami-Masjid. 8

Nasir-ud-Din occupies a prominent place in the educational history of Muslim India. Himself a man of scholarly disposition and sedentary habits, he greatly appreciated and freely rewarded scholarship. Consequently his court was a regular rendezvous of literary geniuses. Among those erudite persons who enjoyed his patronage, the most renowned was Minhaj-i-Siraj, the well-known author of the Tabaqat-i-Nasiri.

During his reign there was a college at Jalandhar, wherein Balban, the Prime Minister, and his followers offered their Id-uz-Zuha prayers on their way back to Delhi after a successful campaign. 9 It was probably he who founded the famous Nasiriyya College, called after his name. The celebrated Minhaj-i-Siraj was for some time the principal of this institution and

superintendent of its vast endowments.\(^{10}\)

Ghiyās-ud-Din Balban continued with great vigour and wisdom the policy of his predecessors. He extended his support to all those men of letters who, blown out of their nests by the storm of Mughal invasions, took shelter at his Court, which at once became ‘the most splendid and cultured all through Asia.’ Amir Khusrau, Shaikh Usman Tirmizi, Shaikh Badr-ud-Din Ārif, Amir Hasan, Sayyad Maulā, Shaikh Shakar Ganj, Bahā-ud-Din and Qutb-ud-Din Bakhtiyār may be mentioned among the honoured celebrities of the Court, basking in the Imperial sun.\(^{11}\)

While Balban entertained his learned protégés, his son, Prince Muhammad, in the company of his scholar friends, indulged in philosophic discourses—thus giving a lead to the formation of literary societies, which under his initiative; honeycombed the whole kingdom in a short time and became a valuable

---


11. ‘Spare no pains’, said Balban to his officers, ‘to discover men of genius, learning and courage. You must cherish them by kindness and munificences that they may prove the soul of your councils and instruments of your authority.’ (Vide Brigg’s *Translation of Tārikh-i-Ferishtā*, Vol. I, pp. 251 ff.)
asset to education. 'The Court of the young prince,' says Barni, 'was frequented by the most learned, excellent and talented men of the age.' His palace was the meeting-place of his literary society, of which Amir Khusrau was the honoured president. There the merits of the most prominent poets were discussed by the learned members, and the Shahnamah, the Diwan-i-Khaqani and the Diwan-i-Senai were regularly recited.\(^{12}\)

Another society of a different type was founded by his brother, Prince Kurra Bughra Khan, the second son of Sultan Balban. The members of this society included a multitude of musicians, dancers, actors and story-tellers, who frequently convened their meetings at the palace of their prince.\(^{13}\) The example set by the Imperial House was followed by the nobility and the middle-class Musalmans, with the result that within a brief spell of time numerous such societies sprang up in the Sultanate of Delhi and raised the standard of education so high that travellers from distant parts of the world were drawn

---

12. *Ibid.*, pp. 252 and 258; *History of India as told by its own Historians*, Elliot and Dowson, Vol. Ill., p. 565. Also see pp. 109 and 110.

towards it for the cultivation of literature, music and other arts.  

The establishment of the Khilji Imperialism in India was highly conducive to the cultivation of literary knowledge. It was in fact during the Khilji regime that the seeds of scholarship sown before were nurtured and a rich harvest reaped. Jalal-ud-Din, the first king of the new dynasty, was a great lover of learning. He invited eminent *gens de lettres* to his private parties and listened to them with avidity. His unstinted bounty created an intellectual atmosphere in his court and carried his fame far and wide. Among those who wrote copiously on history, philosophy, poetry and other sciences under his auspices, were Amir Khusrau, 'the Prince of Poets' who never allowed a single party to take place without first preparing a new poem or a good song for the occasion; Khwajah Hassan, Taj-ud-Din Irāqi, Amir Arsalān, Saad-ud-Din Māntaqi, Ikhtīyār-ud-Din Yāghi, and Qāzi Mughīs of Jhānsi. In addition to his other duties, Amir Khusrau was also in charge of the Imperial Library. The Sultān held him in high esteem and conferred upon

---

him the honour of wearing white robes which the members of the Imperial House and the nobles of the highest order alone could wear.\textsuperscript{15}

Alā-ud-Din, the nephew and successor of Jalāl-ud-Din, rose to the rank of an eminent educationist.

The statement of Barni that ‘he was unlettered and never associated with men of learning,’ refers only to the early years of his reign, when he was not only indifferent but positively hostile to the peaceful cause of education; for the weight of evidence is in favour of the fact that subsequently he applied himself diligently to the study of Persian and succeeded in acquiring some proficiency in it.\textsuperscript{16} And, when he found himself in a position to understand learned discourses and discursive conversations, he began to show favours to all men of eminence. Firishta has given a list of those powerful intellectuals who were attracted to his Court from distant places and were the recipients of cordiality from him and honoraria from the State. According to him there were as

\textsuperscript{15} Briggs, Translation of Ṭāriḵh-i-Ferishta, Vol. I, pp. 292-293; and History of India as Told by its own Historians, Elliot and Dowson, Vol. III, pp. 144 ff.

many as forty-five doctors of arts and sciences who worked as professors in the universities; whereas Abdul Haq Haqqi informs us that ‘during the time of Sultān Alā-ud-din, Delhi was the great rendezvous for all the most learned and erudite personages.’ Among them the names of Amir Khusrau, who wrote as many as ninety-nine works on various subjects; Amir Hassan, the ‘Saadi of Hindustan’; and Shams-ul-Mulk, the Prime Minister, shine out most conspicuously. The last-named was such a consummate scholar that he counted among his students several learned men of the reign.17 The inscription on the southern doorway, or Alāi Darwāzah, describes the Sultān as ‘the strengthener of the pulpits of learning and religion and the strengthener of the rules of Colleges and places of worship’.18

On his accession to the throne, Mubārik Shah Khilji restored to the rightful claimants all those lands and jāgirs which, in spite of their being the chief means of subsistence of literary fortune-hunters, had been confiscated by his

17. Brigg’s Translation of Tārikh-i-Ferishia, Vol. I, pp. 353 and 376; and History of India as told by its own Historians, Elliot and Dowson, Vol. VI, p. 485.

18. Archaeology of Dehli, by Carr Stephen, p. 56
predcessors. This obviously meant the resuscitation of many a moribund madrasah. 19

The secularization of state property too often absorbed the endowments of schools and seminaries under 'Alā-ud-Din, so much so that many of them disappeared or continued a semi-starved existence with diminished funds. But it must not for a moment be supposed that education was being discouraged. On the other hand, the place of private schools was taken by state schools. Only such jāgirs and endowments were confiscated as had proved or tended to prove dangerous to the State.

Under the ægis of the House of Tughluq India began to wear a more brilliant literary aspect. Sultan Ghiyās-ud-Din’s magnanimity of temper and urbanity of tastes were displayed in the generous treatment which he always meted out to men of genius and learning. Amir Khusrau, our familiar acquaintance in this chapter, resided at his court and received 1,000 tankās a month from the State treasury. For guidance in the civil as well as military administration of his kingdom, he himself formulated a code of laws based on

19. *Promotion of Learning in India*, by N. N. Law, p. 41
the Qur'an and the traditional usages of the Sultanate of Delhi.\textsuperscript{20} The isolated hillock, a mile beyond the walls of Tughlaqabad, called Nai-Ka-Qila (Barber's Fort) is believed by some to have been a college originated by him.\textsuperscript{21}

His successor, Muhammad Shāh Tughluq, was the most learned among the crowned heads of the Middle Ages.\textsuperscript{22} He was thoroughly at home in almost all arts and sciences. His literary largesse attracted intellectual luminaries from far and wide. According to Professor Gibb, Ibn-Batuta, the famous Traveller of Islam, 'had already made up his mind to seek his fortune in India to which the boundless munificence of the reigning sovereign of Delhi was attracting numbers of scholars and theologians from other countries.'\textsuperscript{23} A faithful and unfailing friend of the learned and genuinely interested in their well-being, he could not, unfortunately, contribute to the cause of

\textsuperscript{20} Briggs\'s Translation of Tārikh-i-Ferishta, Vol. I, pp 402; and History of India as told by its own Historians, Vol. II, p. 318.

\textsuperscript{21} Delhi Past and Present, by Fanshawe, p. 291.


\textsuperscript{23} Travels of Ibn Batuta, translated by Gibb. Introduction, pp. 5 and 6.
education all that was expected from him, despite the piety and purity of his intentions. While dwelling on his literary achievements and the transfer of his capital, Mr. N. N. Law points out that ‘it is not at all likely that the literary Sultān would build his capital without any suitable madrasah as its educational ornament, as Firoz Shāh, his successor, would do in his own Firozābād’.

Among the Emperor-Sultāns there was none who endeavoured so much for the widespread diffusion of education in his kingdom as Firoz Shāh Tughluq, the cousin-successor of Sultān Muhammad Tughluq. As a keen student of history, he himself wrote an account of his reign, called Fatūhāt-i-Firoz Shāhi. Of the host of historians who shone at his court, the most recognized were Sirāj ‘Ārif and Zīā-ud-Din Barni. Among other scholars who thrrove under his fostering care, Maulānā Jalāl-ud-Din Rumi, Maulānā ‘Alim Anandapati, Maulānā Khwajgi, Qāzi Abdul Qadir and Aziz-ud-Din Khalid Khāni stand out pre-eminent. They wrote on theology, Islamic jurisprudence, history, geography,

24. Promotion of Learning in India, by N N. Law, p. 47
25. Not the famous mystic poet of the same name, who flourished in the twelfth century and wrote the immortal Masnawi, known as the Masnawi-i-Maulānā-i-Rum.
philosophy and several other sciences.  

Education during the reign of Firoz Tughluq made mighty advances because the Sultan was an eminent educationist, who strove zealously for its propagation. His peaceful reign enabled him to organize a regular system of public instruction. No doubt, he patronized learning and encouraged men of letters, as had been done by his predecessors, but he sent out eminent teachers to reside in different parts of his dominions for the sake of imparting instruction to the people at large. This was undoubtedly a far-reaching reform in the department of education. It led to an extensive diffusion of education and produced a large number of capable scholars.

He not only repaired and reconstructed old madrasahs which were in decadent condition, but built many new ones. According to the testimony of Ferishta and Nizam-ud-Din, he founded no less than thirty colleges in his kingdom and provided them with paid professors of proved merit; whereas Abdul Baqi has

26. Brigg’s Translation of Tarikh-i-Ferishta, Vol. I, p. 461; and History of India as told by its own Historians, Elliot and Dowson Vol. III, pp. 316, 317 and 343.

recorded in his *Ma‘asir-i-Rahimi* that he opened as many as fifty *madrasahs*. Though the number of the *madrasahs* he founded differs in different accounts, they were in no case less than thirty.\(^{28}\)

Not the least remarkable of these institutions was the one called Firoz-Shāhi-Madrasah. A description of this *madrasah* indicates the ideal and inner life of an educational institution held by a Muslim King of the fourteenth century. It was a superb and spacious mansion, situated within well-planned gardens, containing separate apartments for the reception and entertainment of foreign celebrities, who paid it frequent visits. It was a residential college with suitable provisions for poor students and professors, who resided there in constant intellectual communion. It had a mosque and a reservoir attached to it. The mosque was famous for its bounty, which was enjoyed by the professors as well as students who lived there.\(^{29}\) Another college, with a


29. See *Tārikh-i-Firozshāh*, by Zia Barni, pp. 562—566; Archaeology of Delhi, by Carr Stephen, p. 83; History of India as told by its own Historians, Elliot and Dowson, Vol.
mosque and a tank attached to it, was founded by Firoz Shāh in the vicinity of the Qadam Sharif to perpetuate the memory of his beloved son, Fateh Khan, the heir-apparent to the throne.\textsuperscript{30}

An important item of state expenditure during the reign of Firoz Shāh was the education of slaves, in whose well-being the Sultan was deeply interested. There was a separate department of officers, maintained for their welfare, and a separate treasury, kept for their pensions and gratuities. They were as many as 180,000, and there was no art or craft in which they were not trained. At one time, we are informed, as many as twelve thousand slaves were turned into serious scholars, tradesmen and artisans.\textsuperscript{31}

The Sayyad Kings,—Khizr Khan and Mubārik Shah in particular,—were also interested in the promotion of education in their kingdom. Under them, there sprang into prominence

---

\textsuperscript{30} Archeology of Delhi, by Carr Stephen, p. 147; Chronicles of the Pathan Kings of Delhi, by Thomas, p. 298; and Asār-us-Sanāʿīdīd, by Sir Sayyad Ahmad Khan, p. 37.

\textsuperscript{31} Tarikh-i-Hindustān, by M. Zakaulla, Vol. II, p. 208. History of India as told by its own Historians, Elliot and Dowson, Vol. III, pp. 340-341; and Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law, pp. 54 and 55.
two formerly obscure cities, viz., Badaon and Cuttair, which for a while, successfully rivalled the cities of Delhi and Firozâbâd in their intellectual outlook. They contained mosques and madrasahs which supplemented very substantially the educational achievements of the two imperial cities named above. The following statement of Mr. Francklin in his Shâh Alam is significant enough:—

"In the ancient city of Badaon, many princes of the Pathan Dynasty kept their Courts for a series of years during the reign of that dynasty of Hindostan. There, as in many parts of Cuttair, are to be seen the remains of magnificent edifices, palaces, gardens, mosques, colleges and mausoleums."

Bahlool Lodhi, the founder of the Lodhi Dynasty, was an enlightened patron of letters. He valued the society of literary men and loved them above all his servants. Though the strain and stress of ceaseless warfare during his reign left him but little leisure to turn his mind to the arts of peace, yet he

30. Shâh 'Alam, by Francklin, p. 57. Referring to the city of Badaun Mr. N. N. Law says that "within 100 miles of Delhi there had arisen another centre for diffusion of education, containing numerous colleges which supplemented the educational work of Delhi and Firozâbâd" (Vide Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N Law, p 71).
did not lose sight of the fact that the promotion of education was a part of his duty as a king. It can be gathered from the Maʿāsir-i-Rahimi that he opened some schools and colleges in his kingdom for the moral as well as intellectual improvement of his subjects.\footnote{Brigg's \textit{Translation of Ferishta}, Vol. I, p. 562 and \textit{History of India as told by its own Historians}, Elliot and Dowson, Vol. IV, p. 436; Maʿāsir-i-Rahimi, by Abdul Bāqī as quoted by Law in his \textit{Promotion of Learning in India}, p. 72.}

Sultān Sikandar Lodhi was himself a poet of distinction, who composed verses under the pen-name of Gulruķh. Shāh Jalāl, a talented poet and author of the \textit{Siyyār-ul-ʿArifīn}, was his preceptor in poetry. Abdullah, author of the \textit{Tārikh-i-Dāudi}, informs us that ‘seventeen accomplished and learned men of tried merit were constantly with him in his private apartments.’ Among them were Sayyad Sadr-ud-Din of Kanauj, Miyān Abdur Rahmān of Sikri and Miyān Aziz-Ullāh of Sambhal.\footnote{Ranking’s \textit{Translation of Muntakhīb-ut-Twārikh}, Vol. I, p. 429; Brigg’s \textit{Translation of Ferishta}, Vol. I, pp. 581, 587 589; \textit{History of India as told by its own Historians}, Elliot and Dowson, Vol. IV., pp. 446 and 450.}

The same authority (i.e. Abdullah) further states that this Sultān covered his kingdom with colleges and filled them with professors and
students. The testimony of Ferishta shows that education made much progress during his reign. He persistently insisted on the compulsory education of his military officers. This gave a new character to the profession of arms, which, as such, combined military training with literary instruction for the first time in Muslim history.

Sultān Sikandar Lodhi also encouraged the study of belles-lettres in his dominions. He gave a fresh impulse to the arts of writing, compilation and translation. Under his encouragement, standard literature of a very high order was produced. The learned physicians of India and outside put their heads together at his instance and compiled the Tibb-i-Sikandari, so-called after his own name. The new compilation began to


35. History of India as told by its own Historians, Elliot and Dowson, Vol. IV, pp. 446, 451.

36. Mr. N. N. Law asserts that the Tibb-i-Sikandari was translated from the Argar-Mahābedak (or the science of medicine and treatment of diseases). This patriotic assumption, I am sorry to say, lacks historical justification, since the book was not a direct translation of any complete work,
serve as the basis of the practice of many a well-to-do physician of India. We have it from the Waqiyat-i-Mushtaqi:—

"Mīyān Budh succeeded to the late Khwās Khān and was confirmed in the dignity. He got together fine calligraphists and learned men, and employed them in writing books on every science. He brought books from Khurasan and gave them to learned and good men. Writers were continuously engaged in this work. He assembled the Physicians of Hind and Khurasan, and, collecting books upon the science of medicine, he had a selection made. The book so compiled received the name of Tibb-i-Sikandar, and there is no work of greater authority in India."37

It will not be without some interest to mention here that Sultān Sikandar Lodhi, realizing the difficulty of governing his empire from his old capital, founded a new

as our friendly author erroneously supposes. It was, on the other hand, a compilation of a number of extracts selected from a number of books on the science of medicine, as seen above (Vide Promotion of Learning in India by N. N. Law. p. 77).

37. History of India as told by its own Historians. Elliot and Dowson, Vol. IV, p. 451.
city on the site where the modern city of Agra now stands, so that he might be able to exercise more effective control over the rebellious provincial governors and refractory fief-holders of Etawa; Biyāna, Koel (Aligarh), Gwalior and Dholpur, and shifted his capital to that place. The transfer of capital was fraught with far-reaching consequences. In course of time a splendid city sprang up on the selected site and took the name of Agra, which played a prominent part in shaping the destinies of India in her future history. Once founded, the new capital launched upon a career which was characterized by a rich efflorescence of learning and literature. It became a radiant centre of Islamic culture and civilization, and for some time threw into shade its sister city—Delhi—the Queen of Indian cities. There can be no doubt that Agra owed its grandeur to Sikandar, who founded it, beautified it with superb structures, including schools and colleges, and made it his capital. With the acquisition of the dignity of being the seat of Islamic Government in India, it began to draw towards itself the centre of gravity of the literary world, which had hitherto been at Delhi and Firozābād. Men of learning and erudition from Arabia, Persia and Bokhāra poured into it in ever-increasing numbers at the prospect of receiving better patronage
from the ruler of India, who was remarkable for his munificence. Wheedled out of their original homes by the favours of the reigning sovereign, these learned men took up their abode in the new capital, where they were granted lands and rewards by the State Officers in conformity with the Imperial 
Firmans. The result was that in course of time Agra grew into a great university-city, containing several schools and colleges, where people flocked from far and wide for higher education.\textsuperscript{38}

Again, in passing, it may be mentioned with propriety, that during the reign of Sikandar Lodhi the Hindus for the first time began to receive Persian education in the Muslim schools that were started. \textquoteleft\textquoteleft The Hindus from the sixteenth century', says Blochmann, \textquoteleft\textquoteleft took so zealously to Persian education that before another century had elapsed they had fully come up to the Muhammadans in point of literary acquirements.' Ferishta strikes the same note when he says that \textquoteleft the Hindus who had hitherto never learned Persian, commenced during this reign to study Muhammadan literature'.\textsuperscript{39}

\textsuperscript{38} \textit{Vide Imperial Gazetteer of India}, Vol. IV, p. 408.
\textsuperscript{39} Brigg's \textit{Translation of Ferishta}, Vol. I, p. 587; and \textit{Promotion of Learning in India}, by N.N. Law, pp. 75 and 76.
CHAPTER IV

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN THE PROVINCIAL KINGDOMS

"The seeker of knowledge will be greeted in Heaven with a welcome from the angels."

—Muhammad.

In the provincial kingdoms of the North as well as in the Shiâh States of the South there were many Governor-Sultâns, who vied with one another in patronizing learning and advancing education in their kingdoms. The breakdown of the Central Government left them a fair field for making their own contributions to the cause of learning, independently of the Delhi Sultâns. It should, however, be noted that the histories of many of these dependencies of Delhi as well as of independent kingdoms are mostly unchronicled, partly because they had no court-historians and partly because they rapidly changed hands. This accounts for the paucity of material and the consequent gaps that occur in between.  


2. Modern research has succeeded in rescuing from the past much that was thought to be irretrievably lost. It has restored some of the most regrettable *lacunae* in Indian
Nasir-ud-Din Qabaicha, who ruled in Sind about the beginning of the thirteenth century, and Shāh Beg Aṛghun, who was supreme there about the third decade of the sixteenth, were both exceedingly well-read. Whereas the former’s court was an asylum of learned men who had been driven out of Ghaznin and Ghor, by the ruthless ravages of Chingez Khan, the latter was himself an author of many books and an encourager of those who had similar tastes and inclinations.\(^3\)

Hussain Shāh Langha of Multān was a man of extraordinary learning and integrity. He actively patronized the best authors of the day, and during his time education received the lion’s share of his attention. At his instance, several schools and seminaries were started and staffed with talented teachers. Under the circumstances, his Prime Minister was totally justified in boasting thatMultān under him possessed a superior standard of

\(^3\) Brigg’s *Translation of Tārikh-i-Ferishta*, Vol. IV p. 432

history only so far as the names of the kings of these kingdoms and the duration of their reigns are concerned; but regarded as a record of cultural achievements and as a connected story of the growth and development of a nation, the history of these kingdoms is bound to remain sadly deficient.
education.\footnote{Ibid., p. 385. \textit{Promotion of Learning in India}, by N. N. Law, p. 105.} Hussain Mirza, the last of the Langha line, also seems to have done something in the way of advancing education in his kingdom. His devotion to learning may be judged by the encouragement he extended to scholarship. Among those attached to his court may be mentioned the names of at least two well-known scholars: Saʿad-ullāh Lāhorī and Maulāna Abdur Rāhmān Jāmi. The latter was a poet of supreme powers and singular endowments. On him the Muse had profusely showered her charms and graces. He claimed a large number of learned men as his pupils.\footnote{Ibid.}

Among the outlying provinces, there was none more fortunate than Jaunpur which became, under its Muslim rulers, a great university-city and continued as such for a fairly long time. Never in fact in the whole history of this province did the subject of education sway the hearts and the minds of its people quite as much as under the benevolent rule of Sultān Ibrāhīm Sharki. It was in his reign that it received the honorific appellation of Shirāz-i-Hind (Shirāz of India)
on account of its eminence as an important centre of education, to which hundreds of men flocked from far and near for higher education. It produced men whose memory cannot easily die. Some of them were Shaikh Allâh-dâd Jaunpuri, Zahir Dilâwari, Qâzi Shahâb-ud-Din Daulatâbâdî, Maulâna Ali Ahmad, Maulâna Hasan Baqshî and Nur-ul-Haq. The Tazkîrat-ul-Ulâmâ and the Siyyâr-ul-Mulk agree in recording that there were hundreds of madrasahs in Jaunpur and that the teachers and the taught were awarded tamghâs (medals) and jâgîrs in recognition of their literary merits.6

A mention may also be made about the Court of Jaunpur. It welcomed, with open arms, all poets and scholars who proceeded there in search of encouragement; particularly did it receive most hospitably those ousted from their homes by the invasion of Amir Taimur. Justly did the chronicler record the following in support of the above view:—

"During Ibrâhîm’s reign (1402-40), the Court of Jaunpur far outshone that of Delhi

and was the resort of all the learned men of the East.”

All that has been said about Jaunpur as an *El Dorado* of learning in India has been beautifully summed up in the *Archaeological Survey of India* by Mr. Furher as follows:—

“Warren Hasungs may have visited the city (of Jaunpur), Sir Eyre Coote certainly did, while Duncan’s visit in 1788 is recorded in those volumes of *Proceedings* which are mouldering unnoticed on the record-shelves of the Commissioner and Collector of Benares. He writes too favourably of the site and laments the decay of the town, telling how it once was the seat of Muhammadan learning, and the residence of many of their learned men in so much that it was known by the appellation of the Shirāz of India. Though no trace be now left of the schools, but the story of their past fame, we have better ground than Mr. Duncan’s for saying that this city was the Shirāz or the Mediaeval Paris of India. Feroze (Τυγλουξ) determined to make it a seat of learning worthy of his cousin’s fame. Each of the princes of Jaunpur prided himself

---

7. Quoted by Mr. Law from Lethbridge’s *Topography of the Mughal Empire* (Vide Law’s *Promotion of Learning in India*, p 100).
on patronizing science and the troubles which in the early part of the fourteenth century scattered the doctors of the ancient imperial city were eminently favourable to the rise of a school in the peaceful and secure Jaunpur. Even in Muhammad Shāh’s time 20 famous schools existed in Jaunpur of which now but the names are known—the founder of the one having died in the middle of the fifteenth century, and another in the middle of the seventeenth century. Nor was scholastic learning only cultivated. Of the successful cultivation of the arts, let the noble masjids of Ibrāhim and Hussain bear witness."

Keenly impressed by the state of Muslim learning in India, Mr. N. N. Law thus concludes his account of the kingdom of Jaunpur:—

"Like Jaunpur many a great Muslim University has now ceased to exist, leaving behind only a memory of its former glory. The days are past when the Indian Musalman universities, as also those of Damascus Baghdād, Nishāpur, Cairo, Kairawān, Seville, Córdova were thronged by thousands of students, when a prosessor had

often hundreds of hearers, and when vast estates set apart for the purpose maintained both students and professors.”

The disappearance of Indian Muslim universities of old is due to lack of encouragement in later times.

In point of educational facilities, the Kingdom of Malwa was no less renowned. In the opinion of Ferishta it could compare and compete favourably with Shiraz and Samarkand, the renowned university-cities of the East. It contained many colleges, one of which stood at its capital in close proximity to the Masjid of Sultan Hushang Shah. Its court received most hospitably, the many poets and philosophers, who, attracted by its bounty, proceeded there from different countries.

A traveller, who visits to-day the site of Malwa on a mountain plateau, sees nothing but a haunt of wild beasts. He seldom gives a thought to the remains of the royal madrasahs and other edifices, lying in a dilapidated condition, to realize that at one time the city was studded with schools and seminaries. Nevertheless,

10. Sultan Mahmud Khalji was such a promoter of learning and advocate of education that Malwa, during his reign
there is enough in these living lips (remains) to
tell one the tale of their vanished glory

Ghiyās-ud-Dīn I of Bengal, whose rule in
that province lasted from 1212
A. C. to 1227 A. C., stands in
the front rank among the
eminent educationists of Bengal. He had the
good sense to realize that the material com-
forts of those given to research and scholar-
ship would, if properly provided for, be whol-
ly beneficial to the cause of learning. So,
stipends to deserving literary plodders and
pensions to the superannuated were granted
by him. His memory is preserved in history
chiefly by the madrasah which he built in his
capital. Ghiyās-ud-Dīn II, besides being a
poet himself, was a liberal patron of letters.
He also founded a college called Darasbari.12

Referring to this particular abode of instruc-
tion, Mr. N. N. Law points out:—

"Many a madrasah like the present one
(Darasbari) is fast losing all
its marks by which it can be

became an important university-city. Hosts of eminent
scholars not only resorted to his capital but were also turned
out by the many madrasahs which he founded in the
various parts of his kingdom. (Vide Brigg's Translation of
Tārikh-i-Ferishta, Vol. IV, pp. 196, 197, 213. 234 and 210).

11. History of Bengal, by Stewart, pp. 56 and 57.
12. See Archaeological Survey of India, Vol. XV, p. 76,
and Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law, p. 108.
identified as such. The madrasah, for instance, which was built by the Musalmāns at Asthipurā (place of bones) where, it is said, the bodies of all the slain in the eighteen days’ battle between the Kauravās and the Pāndavās were collected and burnt, has already disappeared, leaving but a mound which can be recognized as the remnant of a college only by its name of Madrasah-Tila.”

The interest taken in Muslim education by Rājā Kānis, who ruled in Bengal from 1385 A. C. to 1392 A. C., is by no means negligible, though his motives were not quite genuine. We can readily understand the view presented by Mr. Stewart when he suggests that the Rājā had ulterior political aims in doing so. But as in this survey we are not concerned with what might or might not have been in his mind, it only behoves us to give an ungrudging tribute to what he did in this cause.

Hussain Shāh and Nusrat Shāh, the most remarkable kings of the Hussaini Dynasty of Bengāl, were exponents alike of Hindu

and Muslim literature. They founded schools and colleges in their kingdom and created vast endowments for their maintenance. From the ruins of the madrasahs it appears that they were built of marble and granite, different in character from those of their class seen in other parts of Gaur (Lakhnauti) but elegant in shape and considerable in size.  

Here I may appropriately trace the growth of Bengali literature under the encouragement of Muslim Kings and Chiefs of Bengal. The fact that the provincial vernacular (Bengali) owes its elevation to a literary status a great deal to the Musalmāns may appear an anomaly to a Bengali patriot; it is, nevertheless, an historical truth, and, as such, it cannot be called in question. It seems that the interest of the Muslims in this language was evoked partly by a sense of curiosity and partly by their love for Sanskrit with which it is closely connected. It was the celebrated epics of Ramayana and Mahābhārata that first caught the eyes of the Sultāns of Bengal. The first Bengali translation of the Mahābhārata was made under the orders of Sultān Nasir Shah (1282-1325). This Sultān was a fervent lover of Bengali literature. It was he to
whom the famous poet Vidyāpati dedicated one of his songs. Sultān Ghiyās-ud-Dīn II had also much to do with the development of Bengali, the language of his domicile. It was probably at his initiative that a vernacular rendering of the Ramāyana was made by Kirtivāsa; for Vidyāpati makes a reverential remark about him in his work. One of the most brilliant features of the Hussaini Rule of Bengāl is the rapid growth of native literature under its aegis. The contributions of the Hussaini Kings of Bengāl were not restricted to the promotion of Islamic learning alone; they also took Bengali literature under their fostering care. According to Mr. Dinesh Chandra Sen, Sultān Hussain Shāh had engaged one Malādhār Basu to turn the Bhagavata Purāṇa into the provincial vernacular. Parāgāl Khan, his general, and Chhuti Khan, his son, have left their names in Bengali literature by translating a part of the epic of Mahābhārata into that vernacular. It is also recorded in various works that the former used to invite his courtiers to his palace in order to hear the recitation of the Mahābhārata, rendered into Bengali by Kavindra Parmeshwara up to the Sri Parva at that time. After his demise, the task of translation was continued by a poet, named Sri Karna Handi, under the direction of his son, Chhuti Khan,
and the *Asvamedha Parva* was also done. Sultān Nusrat Shāh Hussaini, the second great King of that house, was responsible for another Bengali version of the *Mahābhārata*.\(^\text{16}\)

The influence of the Musalmāns on the development of Indian vernaculars is not confined to Bengāl only. In almost every province of modern India the entire language of administration, of navigation, of technique in many an industry and craft, is of Muslim creation and bears the stamp of Muslim rule. It is both rich and sufficient; but to its misfortune, it has been allowed to decay and die in disuse with a pitiable reaction on the ability of our youth to grasp, through the medium of a foreign language, the intricacies of modern science.\(^\text{17}\)

In the spring-time of its independence Gujarāt too might have justly prided itself on its wealth, strength and civilization.

---


17. This is by no means to suggest that I would banish English. Persian was in those days what English is to-day—a language of world fraternity—, which I am not at all prepared to denounce or disparage. But as a humble educationist, I cannot help suggesting that at least the first steps in the education of a child can be more effectively taken through the child's own language.
Sultan Ahmad Shah (1411—1441 A. C.) built the city of Ahmadabad and adorned it with magnificent maktabs and madrasahs, the remains of which will linger long to testify to the refined taste of their founder. His successors: Muhammad Shah, Mahmud Bigharha, Muzaffar Shah, II and Muzaffar Shah, III, were all rulers of remarkable literary taste and studious turn of mind. Their names are associated with deeds which cannot be easily tarnished. They spent some of their time in the company of gens de lettres and took care to supply their material needs.18

The kingdom of Kashmir kept, throughout its existence as a Muslim province, its intellectual standard fairly high. Its rulers were reputed for their love of learning and their interest in the extension of education in their kingdom. Themselves scholars of no mean standard, they spared no pains to spread knowledge among their subjects. The names of Sultan Sikandar Shah, Zain-ul-Abidin and Hussain Shah stand out pre-eminent in this respect. Under their edifying influence, a fairly wide and varied literature was produced. The

last-named king has to his credit the establishment of many a madrasah in his kingdom.¹⁹

While the North loomed large in the mental horizon of the Muslim World, the South might justly be proud of possessing a superior standard of civilization. Almost all the Bahmanid Kings were generous patrons of letters. Some of them, such as Sultan Firoz Shah, were poets and scholars; others patronized learning and literature unstintedly and opened schools and colleges in their dominions, making ample arrangements for the free education of the poor.²⁰

The rulers of Ahmadnagar, Bijapur and Golconda too have left their impress on the history of their times. They encouraged those in quest of knowledge and set up schools and orphanages in their capital cities. Bijapur became a famous seat of learning under its kings, Yusuf ‘Adil Shah and Ibrahim ‘Adil Shah II, who belonged to the ‘Adil Shahi Dynasty of that kingdom.²¹

²¹. For the literary as well as educational achievements of the ‘Adil Shahi Dynasty of Bijapur, vide Wāqīsūt-i-Mumli kat-i-Bijāpur, by Bashir-ud-Din Ahmad, Vol. II, pp. 274 ff.
former king invited artists and scholars from Persia, Rūm and Turkey to shed a literary lustre on his reign, the latter was himself an eminent author, to whom we owe the Nauras or ‘nine savours’. It was under his patronage that Muhammad Qāsim, famous in history as Fērishta, flourished and wrote that valuable history of India which is the main source of our information. Gōlconda had its own royal Maecenas: Quli Qutb Shāh and his successor Abdullah Qutb Shāh, both of whom were poets of great distinction. Ibīn Nishāti, who flourished under the fostering care of the former, wrote two important works: Tuti Nāmah and Phulban, both of which are still considered as models in the Deccanese dialect. In their benevolent solicitude for the welfare of the poor and orphans, the rulers of the three kingdoms under review established many maktabs and madrasahs, where the children of the poor and orphans received gratuitous education. Such institutions were commonly extant in Kulbarga, Bīdar, Ellichpur, Daulatabdād, Debal and many other places in the Deccan.22

In passing, a remark must also be made about the Imperial Library of Bījāpur, a modicum of which still exists in the Asāri Mahal.

22. Brigg’s Translation of Tārikh-i-Fērishta, Vol. III, pp. 8, 30, 31, 72, 80, 100, 206, 207, 452 and 483; and Keay’s Ancient Indian Education, p. 119.
So says the historian of Bijāpur’s Architecture about the treasures of learning accumulated there:

“Some of its books are curious and interesting to anyone acquainted with Arabic and Persian literature. All the valuable manuscripts were, it is said, taken away by Aurangzib in cart-loads, and what remain are literally only a remnant, but a precious one to the persons in charge of the building who show them with a mournful pride and regret.”

The Kingdom of Khāndesh was not without its intellectual luminaries. It had its own educationists, among whom the most notable was Muhammad Nasir Khān, under whom education received a new lease of life. Shaikh Zain-ud-Din and his preceptor, Burhān-ud-Din, who was at one time the Principal of a madrasah at Daulatabād, were originally from Khāndesh.

Sultān Jalāl-ud-Din, one of the best and most powerful rulers of Hinawr (Hanaur), was also

---
23. Architecture at Bijapur, by Fergusson, p. 75.
24. Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law, pp. 98 and 99; and Brigg’s Translation of Tārikh-i-Feritsha, Vol. IV, p. 286.
25. An important town, situated in the southernmost part of the Indian peninsula, Hinawr was the capital of Sultān Jalāl-ud-Din Ahsān Shāh, the founder of the independent Kinkdom of Madura, which, under the Muslim occupation, comprised the entire area between the Malābār
interested in the advancement of education in his kingdom. Ibn Batūtah, the famous Moorish traveller who visited his kingdom during his reign, came across as many as twenty-three schools for boys and thirteen for girls in his capital. The traveller formed a very good opinion about the people of that place and spoke highly of their superior standard of civilization.  

and the Coromandel coasts and from Cape Comorin up to Gulbarga. The few fragments of fact, which recent researches have rescued from the past, have enabled scholars to construct only a framework of the history of this kingdom, but nothing social or cultural that may be fitted into this framework. The little information that we have about it, is from the Travels of Ibn Batūtah. (Vide J. A. S. B. Vol. XXX, 1934, No. 3, pp. 63 ff.)

CHAPTER V

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION DURING THE MUGHAL PERIOD—I

"He who favours learning and the learned honours me."

—Muhammad.

The advent of the Great Mughals in India unfolds a new chapter in the history of Muslim education. Never, in fact, in the whole history of the Muslim Rule in India did the subject of education receive such a regular encouragement from the reigning sovereigns of Delhi as under the Royal House of Taimur, whose every member was its die-hard exponent. The Mughal Court was, during the days of its ascendancy, the cradle of the sage and the scholar. It was renowned all over the eastern hemisphere for its liberality; it received under its benevolent care, all those who came there from distant lands in search of patronage.

Zahir-ud-Din Muhammad Bābar, the illustrious founder of the Mughal Empire, was a great

---

literary genius. As a scholar, he was second to none in his line. His Memoirs are an index to his intellectual achievements and a monument to his memory. He is rightly regarded as the 'prince of autobiographers'. He is stated to have invented a new type of handwriting, called Babari after his own name. As a poet, he was equally unrivalled among the crowned heads of his house. Some of his poetical compositions are indeed captivating. His society included men who will live long in literature: Ghiyās-ud-Din Muhammad Khudāmir, a Persian historian and author of many works; and Maulānā Shahāb-ud-Din, an enigmatist, poet and punster rolled into one, being the most friendly to fame.

Bābar did not stop short at the mere encouragement of literary men. At his instance, the Shuhrat-i-'Am (Public Works Department) was entrusted, in addition to other duties, with 'the Publication of a Gazette

2. For a detailed account of Bābar's literary accomplishments, see History of India as told by its own Historians, Elliot and Dowson, Vol. IV, pp. 141, 143 and 219; Memoirs of Bābar, by Erskine, pp. 50, 51, 291, 431 and 432; Brigg's Translation of Tārikh-i-Ferishta, Vol. II, pp. 61 and 65; Mediaeval India, by Stanley Lane-Poole, pp. 193 and 194; Lane-Poole's Babar, pp. 22 and 30; History of India, by M. Elphinstone, pp. 428 and 429; Ranking's Translation of Muntakhib-ul-Twārikh, vol. I, p. 419; Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law, pp. 121 ff.; and my Mughal Empire, Ch. II.
and the building of schools and colleges'.

The fact that the establishment of educational institutions constituted an important item of Babar’s administrative programme, speaks much for his interest in the extension of education in his Indian Empire.

Babar was succeeded by his son, Nasir-ud-Din Muhammad Humayun, who was a great bibliophile and a studious scholar. He had collected a vast number of books in the Imperial Library. In fact, so intense was his love for the best books of the day that even in his military undertakings he used to take with him a select library for his own use. Count Noer informs us that on the eve of his flight from India he took with him his favourite books along with his faithful librarian, called Lala Beg, otherwise known as Baz Bahadur. Under his orders the pleasure-house of Sher Shah, called Sher Mandal, was turned into a library during his second reign.

In revising the social organization of his empire, Humayun assigned a place to the scholar next but

3. Vide my Mughal Empire, Ch. 11; and Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law, pp. 126-27.

4. Ibid., pp. 128 ff.
one to the Emperor in dignity. Among those, who prospered at his Court and associated with him, were Khudāmir, Jauhar, Abdul Latif and Shaikh Hussain. The one last named was a professor of a madrasah founded by the Emperor at Delhi. As Humāyun was very fond of astronomy and geography, these branches of science made considerable progress during his reign. He is said to have indited some dissertations on the nature of the elements and ordered the construction of celestial and terrestrial globes for his own use immediately after his accession to the throne. And Fērishta tells us that he fitted up seven halls for the reception of his officers and dedicated them to seven planets. One of them was reserved for the reception of the learned.\(^5\)

Sher Shāh, the founder of the Sūr Dynasty, who deposed Humāyun and ruled for four years, did much for the promotion of education in his dominions notwithstanding the short duration of his reign. He had received his education at Jaunpur, the radiant

---

centre of Islamic culture and erudition in India at that time. No wonder, he became in due course, a cultured king and a serious scholar. Of the educational institutions that he opened, the one at Narnaul (in the Patyāla District), called the Sher Shāhi Madrasah, was the most gigantic. It was founded in 1520 A. C., i.e., before he became king. His immediate successor, Jalāl Khān, whose royal title was Islām Shāh (also Salim Shāh), followed in the footsteps of his father, at least in his educational outlook. His attachment to literature, like that of his predecessor, was very strong, and his respect for the learned profound. Two eminent scholars, viz. Shaikh Abdullah Sultanpuri Makhdum-ul-Mulk and Shaikh Abdul Hassan Kamboo, were his constant companions.

Akbar’s reign, characterized as it was by ubiquitous peace and prosperity, afforded ample opportunities for literary activities in India. His

6. See History of India as told by its own Historians, Elliot and Dowson, Vol. iv, pp. 311, 413 and 538; Ranking’s, Translation of Muntakhib-ut-Twārikh, Vol i, pp. 466; Brigg’s Translation of Tārikkh-i-Ferishta, Vol. ii, p. 100; History of Bengal, by Stewart, pp. 127 and 128; and Promotion of Learning in India by N. N. Law, pp. 136 ff.

Court was crowded with men who have found an abiding place in the hearts of historians. ‘Allāma Abul Fazal and his brother, Abul Faiz, popularly called Faizi, are too well known to need description. Abdul Qādir Badāoni, Khan-i-Khānān Abdur Rahim and so many others, whose names cannot be mentioned here for want of space, lived under the patronage of the Imperial Court, which raised them above wants, even to affluence. Vast impetus was also given to original research and scholarship, and authorship was rewarded with munificent allowances. As a result, we have those masterpieces of literature which, like the Ain-i-Akbari, are monuments of well-digested erudition.8

We learn that Agra, in the reign of Akbar, was a famous seat of learning and a celebrated centre of education. It had several schools and colleges, where students flocked from far and wide for listening to the lectures of renowned specialists, and where distinguished scholars of Shirāz were appointed as professors.

8. For the above information, see my Mughal Empire, Chapter IX. Also see Blochmann’s Ain-i-Akbari, pp. 96 ff.; Gladwin’s Ain-i-Akbari, pp. 85 ff.; History of India as told by its own Historians, Elliot and Dowson, Vol. iv pp. 218 ff., Vol. v. pp. 478 ff.; Lowe’s Translation of Muntakhib-ut-Twārikh, Vol. ii, pp. 207, 216; and Brigg’s Translation of Tārikh-i-Ferishta, Vol. ii, p. 280
Sil Chand says that a big madrasah existed there even up to his own time, and we learn from another source that Akbar himself once employed a famous philosopher of Shirāz as a professor in that institution.⁹

Lahore too was, at this time, an eminent abode of literary geniuses. It was here that celebrated Tārikh-i-Alfi was written and the Mahābhārata and the Rājarātrangi were translated into Persian. Again it was here that the Emperor commenced his religious and metaphysical discussions with the learned men of this place. The famous historian, Nizām-ud-Din Ahmad, author of the Tabqāt-i-Akbari, and Rāja Todar Mall, the Revenue Minister, also passed their time and breathed their last at Lahore.¹⁰

The newly-founded city of Fathpur Sikri (city of victory) was also studded with several schools and seminaries. The well-known Ibādat Khānā (literally a House of Worship, but in fact a Debating Hall), founded in 1578 A. C. in the new city, played a premier part in influencing the life and thought of the people. It was the meeting-place of the intellectuals of various nationalities and the centre of a set of

brilliant scholars of the reign. In it the representatives of different schools of thought used to discuss minute points of their religions. Its importance lay in the fact that it was used as a place, a pulpit and a platform, from which unity was preached and propagated. The much-mooted Din-i-Ilahi (Divine Faith), the real aim of which was not religious but national unity, was promulgated there.\footnote{Ibid., pp. 162-63; Elliot and Dowson's History of India as told by its own Historians, Vol. v, pp. 390-91; and Kay's Ancient Indian Education, p. 122.}

Profound as was Akbar's love of learning and respect for the learned, no less was his fondness for fostering literature which feeds on knowledge and feeds knowledge again and becomes a valuable asset to education in general. Under his patronage, a goodly number of books on history, philosophy, religion and other sciences were written, compiled and translated, and the result was a literature of a very high order. The Book of Akbar called Akbar Nāmah and the Ain-i-Akbari (Regulations of Akbar), written by 'Allāma Abul Fazal, not to speak of many other important works from his prolific pen; the Tarikh-i-Afs, compiled by a company of capable scholars; the Muntakhib-ut-Tarikh or the Tarikh-i-Badāoni, secretly written by Abdul Qādir Badāoni;
the Tabqat-i-Akbari by Nizam-ud-Din Ahmad, and the Munshiát of Abul Fateh, are some of the most marvellous masterpieces of Persian literature produced in Muslim India during the reign of Akbar the Great. Likewise, under his encouragement, several copious works were translated into Persian from other languages. Khan-i-Khânan Abdur Rahim put into Persian the Waqiyat-i-Babari (Memoirs of Bâbar) from the the original Turkish, and presented it to the Emperor, who was not slow in rewarding his labours. The Jâm-i-Rashidi was translated from Arabic into Persian by Abdul Qadir Badaoni and the Mu‘ajam-ul-Buldân—a geographical work of rare charm—, by Mullah Ahmad T’hat hâh, Qâsim Beg, Shaikh Munawwar, Abdul Qâdir and many other scholars. The Badshah-Nâmah (Book of Kings) was also put into Persian prose and the Hayât-ul-Haiwân was also translated into Persian. In order to promote free exchange of social as well as spiritual thoughts between the Hindus and the Musalmâns, a large number of Sanskrit and Hindi books were translated into Persian under the imperial patronage. The Râmâyana and the Mahâbhâratha, the Atharva Veda and the Bhagvata Gîta, and the Sangâsan Bittisi, the Râjtarangni and many other books were put into Persian and given new names. The translation of many
of the above-mentioned books being complete, they were embellished with charming illustrations and beautiful bindings.\textsuperscript{12}

At the instance of the Emperor, the Imperial Library was enriched with innumerable additions. Important works, written by ancient authors of repute, in prose or verse, and dealing with history philosophy, science and religion, were collected and placed in the Imperial Library. In order to facilitate reference, books in Arabic, Persian, Sanskrit and Hindi were separately classed under sciences and histories. The Librarian was Faizi, the fittest man for the job. Faizi, it may be pointed out here, was the Persian Poet-laureate of his time and an intellectual giant, whose inquiries into Hindu arts and sciences form a most conspicuous part of the literature of that 'Augustan Age.'\textsuperscript{13}

Such educational richness as has been surveyed, furnishes a direct clue to the existence of a sound system of education, which may profitably be described here at some length. To begin

\textsuperscript{12} My Mughal Empire, Chapter IX; Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N Law, pp 147, ff.; and Darbār-i-Akhari by M. Muhammad Hussain Azād, pp 115 ff.

\textsuperscript{13} Gladwin's trans. of Aīn-i-Akbari, Vol. ii, pp. 85-86. Mullah Pir Muhammad was also at one time the superintendent of the Imperial Library. (Vide Law's Promotion of Learning in India, p. 151, f. n. 2; and Darbrūr-i-Akbari, by M. Muhammad Hussain Azād, p. 114).
with, Akbar had early realised the importance of education for the making and development of a nation. Accordingly, under his instructions, numerous maktabs and madrasahs, for both resident and day-scholars, were founded and richly endowed. The most admirable and noteworthy of them all was the one built by him in the city of Fathpur Sikri, 'the like of which', says the author of the 'Ain 'few travellers can name'. Education was encouraged in every possible way. Stipends and scholarships were granted to the deserving alumni and arrangements were also made for the free education of the poor. At this time Kāja Todar Mall made Persian education compulsory for his co-religionists, presumably for its pecuniary advantages. As a result, Hindus began to study Persian with the same zeal as the Indians now study English, and, in due course, became quite efficient to compete with the Musalmāns in every sphere of Mughal administration.\(^{14}\)

Akbar was not satisfied with the mere multiplication of maktabs and madrasahs in his far-flung empire, much less with the quality of education that was then imparted. With a view to

improve the existing system of education and to give it a national bias, he introduced the following reforms:

In the first instance, the *modus operandi* of imparting education was improved in such a way that it took relatively very little time to possess sufficiently decent education. According to the new method of teaching, a boy had to pass through three distinct stages before he became able to read and write without difficulty: First of all he was taught the Persian alphabet with correct pronunciation and signs of accents. After mastering the alphabet, 'which did not take more than two days', he was taught the combination of two letters, which hardly took him a week to master. Finally, he was asked to read short lines of prose or poetry containing the praise of God or some moral lesson in which those combinations most frequently occurred. This was all the teacher was expected to do for him. Thereafter he must work hard, use his own intellect and read his book independently, with occasional help from his teacher. In order to keep him in touch with his lessons, the teacher used to give him four exercises daily as follows: (1) alphabet, (2) combinations, (3) a new hemistich or distich, and (4) the repetition of what he had read before. The new method of imparting
instruction proved so successful that what usually took a student years to learn was now learnt in only a few months. The results of this method were so beneficial that 'Allāma Abul Fazal prided himself on the fact that all civilized nations had schools for the education of youths; but Hindustān was particularly famous for its seminaries. It must, however, be pointed out at this place that the 'Allāma was responsible for many of the reforms in the system of education and for this we must pay him an ungrudging tribute.\textsuperscript{15}

Secondly, the curriculum was so modified as to enable the students to acquire education according to their particular aims and ambitions. Nothing was forcibly thrust upon them; but it was laid down that 'none should be allowed to neglect those things which the present time requires' — an injunction which 'may be taken as a suggestion that the practical side of education should not be neglected.' The various arts and sciences were taught in the following order:—ethics, arithmetic, accounts, agriculture, geometry, longimetry, astronomy, geomancy, economics, the art of administration,

physics, logic, natural philosophy, abstract mathematics, divinity and history.\textsuperscript{16}

Finally, the ideals and objectives of education were changed from being strictly religious into purely political. With one who was the apostle of Indian unity and the governing passion of whose life was the creation of a nation in India, the aim of education could be nothing less than the unification of India—unification in every sense: political, religious, social and cultural. With his characteristic broad-mindedness and national outlook, Akbar sought to have education imparted to all classes of his subjects, irrespective of their race or religion, caste or creed. Hindus were educated in the same schools and on the same level as Muslims, and in their own culture. This nationalization of education was fraught with far-reaching consequences. It led to mutual love and respect and created a nation where formerly there was none.\textsuperscript{17}

Thus it is evident that education in Muslim India was at its most complete development in the reign of

\textsuperscript{16} Blochman’s trans. of \textit{Ain-i-Akbari}, Vol. ii, pp. 278-79; Gladwin’s—, pp. 192-93 and \textit{Ancient Indian Education}, by Keay, pp. 124 and 125.

\textsuperscript{17} Law’s \textit{Promotion of Learning in India}, pp. 160, 161 and 162.
Akbar the Great. "Mussalman education (that is education not specifically for Mussal-mans, but education for a mixed population under Muslim Rule) was", says Dr. James H. Cousins, and with good grounds, "at its most inclusive stage in the reign of Emperor Akbar, and therefore at that stage it presents to us the largest selection of educational ideas to estimate our thought in the educational reconstruction of to-day."

18. Dr. J. H. Cousin's article on 'Education in Muslim India', in the Eastern Times, dated 7th June, 1935. Ain 25 of the Ain-i-Akbari is devoted to the subject of education. It may be reproduced here inasmuch as it brings out Akbar's interest in, and care for, education:

"In every country, especially in Hindustan, boys are kept for years at school, where they learn the consonents and vowels. A great portion of the life of the students is wasted by making them read many books. His Majesty orders that every schoolboy should first learn to write the letters of the alphabet, and also learn to trace their several forms. He ought to learn the shape and name of each letter, which may be done in two days, when the boy should proceed to write the joined letters. They may be practised for a week, after which the boy should learn some prose and poetry by heart, and then commit to memory some verses to the praise of God, or moral sentences, each written separately. Care is to be taken that he learns to understand everything himself, but the teacher may assist him a little. He then ought for some time to be daily practised in writing a hemistich or a verse, and will soon acquire a current hand. The teacher ought specially to look after five things, knowledge of the letters; meanings of words, the hemistich; the verse; the former lesson. If this method of teaching be adopted a boy will learn in a month, or even in a day, what it took others years to understand, so much so that people will get quite astonished. Every boy ought to read books on morals, arithmetic, the notation peculiar to arithmetic, agriculture, mensuration, geometry, astronomy,
physiognomy, household matters, the rules of government, medicine, logic the tabī'ī, riyāzi and ilāhi sciences and history; all of which may be gradually acquired. In studying Sanskrit, students ought to learn the Bayakaran, Niyai, Bedanta, and Patanjal. No one should be allowed to neglect those things which the present time requires. These regulations shed a new light on schools, and cast a bright lustre over madrasahs". ("The tabī'i, riyāzi, and ilāhi sciences are the names of the threefold divisions of sciences. Ilāhi, or divine sciences, comprise everything connected with theology, and the means of acquiring a knowledge of God. Riyāzi sciences treat of quantity, and comprise mathematics, astronomy, music, and mechanics. Tabī'i sciences comprehend physical sciences").
CHAPTER VI
PROGRESS OF EDUCATION DURING THE MUGHAL PERIOD—II

"The ink of the scholar is more holy than the blood of the martyr." 1

-- Muhammad.

Jahāngir was a scholar as well as a poet. He wrote his autobiography, which is the main source of our information about his reign. He was an unfailing friend of the learned. Among the many court-scholars whom he patronized, the Tuzk-i-Jahāngiri (Memoirs of Jahangir) and the Iqbalnamah (another account of Jahangir's reign) have mentioned the following: Ni'mat-ullah, the historiographer of Jahāngir who crystallized into a book the material accumulated by Haibat Khān of Samna about the history of the Afghāns; Mirza Ghiyās Beg, the best arithmetician, who also stood splendid and unsurpassed in the elegance of composition; Abdul Haq Dehlawi, one of the most erudite men of the day, who wrote an account of the lives of the Shaikhs of Hindustān and presented it to His Majesty; and Naqib Khān, the most honoured historian of the Court. Among the poets, the most

favourite to the Muse were Baba Talib Isfahāni, Fasuni Kāshi, Malik-ush-Shu'ara Talib-i-Amlī, Mir Kāsim Kāshi, Mullah Haider Khasali, Mullah Hayāti Gilāni, Mullah Muhammad Shafi Mazandrāni, Mullah Naziri Nishāpuri, Sa'ada-i-Gilāni and Shaida.³

So much was Jahāngir interested in promoting the cause of education that soon after his accession to the throne he repaired and reconstructed even those moribund maktabs and madrasahs, which had been for three decades the dwelling-places of birds and beasts, and populated them with professors and students.³ Under his instructions, the Imperial Library was augmented with numerous valuable additions and was entrusted to the care of Maktub Khān, who proved himself an expert librarian. Not only this—henceforth the property of the heirless deceased was appropriated by the Government and part of it was spent to defray the expenses of State schools.⁴

Jahāngir was passionately fond of good books, so much so that on his visit to Gujarāt he took with

---

2. *History of India as told by its own Historians*, Elliot and Dowson, Vol. vi, pp. 315 and 360; and *History of India*, by M. Elphinstone, p. 548.

3. *Promotion of Learning in India*, by N. N. Law, p. 175

him a library for his own use. From this library he gave to the Shaikhs of that province in token of his appreciation of their scholarship, such books as the Rauzat-ul-Å¡hâb, the Tafsir-i-Hussaini and the Tafsir-i-Kashshat. On the back of these books, he wrote in his own handwriting, the date of his arrival in Gujarat and the day of presentation of those books. Mr. Martin supplies us with the following details with regard to his love of books and the prices of Persian manuscripts in his times:

“Collectors (of books) complain of the exorbitant prices they were called upon to pay for Persian manuscripts, and yet the highest prices now paid are small in comparison with the sums they cost their former owners. The manuscript for which Jahangir paid 3,000 gold rupees—a sum equivalent to £10,000—would not fetch £2,000 at a sale in Paris to-day. From notes and calculations I have made, miniatures by Bihzad (the famous Persian painter) were worth hundreds of pounds each, and certain of his manuscripts were then worth ten times more than now. Some decades ago, when bibliophiles still existed in the East, far higher prices were

---

5 Tusk-i-Jahângiri, translated by Rogers and Beveridge. pp. 439 and 440.
paid there than in London or Paris to-day. Through the following centuries, the same love for old books prevailed, and ridiculous prices were paid for them, as high in proportion as Americans now pay for Rembrandts and Van Dycks. The Mongols, the Timurids, the Mughals, Emperors and Amirs, all, paid prices which we hardly understand, and it was not unusual for a celebrated manuscript of the Qur'ān to realize a sum that would be equivalent to about a million francs in modern currency."

The extremely high prices paid for valuable manuscripts undoubtedly point to the absence of the printing press, but they also show that learning was loved and pursued for personal improvement. Since books commanded high prices—and they commanded high prices because there was a great demand for them on the part of the bibliophiles,—their authors must have profited much from them. Such high prices, moreover, must have stimulated authorship which is proved by the great mass of literature that has come down to us.

Shāh Jahān, on the heels of Jahāngīr, rose to be the most beneficent member of his most beneficent house. Himself a cultured

king and a refined scholar, he always appreciated and rewarded literary worth from whatever sources it was evinced. Amin Qazwini and Abdul Hakim Siālkoti were among the most shining stars of his court. His eldest son, Dārā Shikoh, was ‘a voluminous writer’. To his prolific pen we must credit the Hasnat-ul-‘Arifin, the Majma-ul-Bahārīn, the Nādir-ul-Nakut, the Risāla-i-Haqnuma, the Safinat-ul-Auliya and the Sakinat-ul-Auliya. The Prince was profoundly interested in Hindu learning. Under his patronage, the Vedās and other Sanskrit books were translated into Persian.

Such a scholarly sovereign as Shah Jahan who was deeply interested in the moral as well as material welfare of his subjects, cannot be said to have neglected their education. The following picture of the state of education during his reign as painted by Bernier is a travesty of facts:


8. History of India as told by its own Historians, Elliot and Dowson, Vol. viii, pp. 159, 179; and Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law. pp. 184, 185 and 186.
"A gross and profound ignorance reigns in those states. For how is it possible that there should be academies and colleges well founded? Where are those founders to be met with? And if there were any, where were the scholars to be had? Where are those that have means to maintain their children in colleges? And if there were, who would appear to be so rich? And if they would, where are those benefices, preferments and dignities that require knowledge and abilities, and that may animate youngmen to study?""\textsuperscript{9}

No critical reading of the above passage is necessary. A cursory glance through it is enough to reveal to the reader the fallacy of Bernier's arguments. In the first place, I cannot imagine that the reign of such an enlightened and amiable sovereign as Shâh Jâhân should have lacked schools and colleges. Secondly, when one has once gleaned through the record of educational achievements succinctly surveyed in this book, one is apt to be at a loss to account for such a gloomy picture, particularly in view of the fact that the immediate predecessors of Shâh Jâhân were founders of innumerable schools and

\textsuperscript{9} Bernier's Travels, translated by Ouldinburgh, p. 210
seminaries, mosques and libraries. Thirdly, I must remind the reader that Bernier, who is wholly responsible for the above account, 'lived in India more like a student than a traveller.' During his stay at the Mughal Court he was ceaselessly occupied in the study of Persian and the translation of European books. He was constantly engaged in discoursing with the Pandits on Hindu lore, religion, institutions, customs and traditions. In consequence, therefore, he could not devote sufficient time to inquire into the true state of education. Lastly, 'as a good Catholic he might have carried a prejudice against Islam' and so drawn a melancholy picture.

That Shāh Jahān was not a reactionary is proved by the fact that he 'did nothing to undo the educational work of his father and grandfather.' Mr. N. N. Law asserts that all the educational institutions, with their rich endowments made by the previous Emperors, nobles and private gentlemen, continued in unabated prosperity in his time. Apart from what has been said, there is ample evidence to show that His Majesty himself made enduring contributions which added enormously to the momentum of the whole movement.

10. Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law, p 181
Dar-ul-Baqā (or the Abode of Eternity) had once been a magnificent madrasah, but lay in ruins in his reign. He had it reconstructed and appointed Maulana Sadr-ud-Din Khan Bahadur, the Chief Justice of Delhi, as its director and employed efficient professors to teach its students. In the year 1658 A. D. he founded the famous Imperial College to the south of the Jama Masjid in Delhi. And, according to Mr. B. P. Saksena, he appointed the teachers of the colleges at Delhi and Agra.

So the statements of Dr. Bernier may bear on a certain phase of Shāh Jahan’s reign, but are by no means a true perspective of a prolonged period of peace and prosperity preceding the upheaval (War of Succession) that synchronized with his presence in India.

Alamgir’s interest in education in the main took after his general policy, which aimed at bringing the law in line with the tenets of his religion. Well-versed in Arabic, Persian and his own mother tongue, Chughtai Turkish, he was equally adept in several arts and sciences.

11. Asār-us-Sanā‘id, by Sir Sayyid Ahmad Khan, p. 69.
12. 'To the north of the Jama Masjid (of Delhi) was the Imperial Dispensary, and to the south was the Imperial College.....They were built with the mosque in 1660 A H. (1630)' (Vide Archaeology of Delhi, by Carr Stephen, p 255).
He was thoroughly conversant with Muslim theology and the mysteries of Arabic grammar. He enunciated his own theory of royal education which emphasised the importance of general knowledge.

Alamgir 'founded numberless schools and colleges' in his kingdom and never neglected his duty with regard to the education of his subjects in the outlying provinces that acknowledged his suzerainty. Particularly was he keen about the education of the Bohrās of Gujarāt, for whom he appointed trained teachers and arranged monthly examinations, the results of which were regularly reported to him. Likewise, Imperial Firmāns were issued to other provincial governors with the instructions that they should be careful about the education of their subjects. In 1678 A. C. he sanctioned an enormous sum of money for the repair and reconstruction of the old maktabs and madrasahs of Gujarāt and ordered its Diwān to extend necessary support to the students of these colleges. Ali Muhammad Khān has recorded in his Mirāt-i-Ahmadi that imperial orders were also sent to the effect that three professors more in Ahmadābād,

14. See my Mughal Empire, Chapter XVI; Stanley-Lane-Poole's Aurangzib, p. 22; and History of Aurangzib, by Sir J. N. Sarkar, Vol. i, pp. 4 ff.
Patan and Surat and forty-five students more in Ahmadābād be added to the existing number. The same authority is also responsible for the piece of information that 'Aurangzeb assisted students in proportion to their proficiency in their education, with daily stipends.'¹⁵

As the Emperor was exceedingly fond of theology and Islamic Law, the Imperial Library was, at his instance, augmented with innumerable additions of important theological works and those on Islamic jurisprudence and other sciences. The famous *Fatawa-i-Alamgiri*, a work of great authority on the Muslim Law and an indispensable guide for the Bar and the Bench to-day, was prepared by a number of theologians and jurists under his personal supervision and placed in the Imperial Library.¹⁶

The system of instruction followed in the schools and colleges founded by Alamgir, must have been based on his own theory of education, which even Bernier has no hesitation to acknowledge.


That it proved extremely efficacious and led to an extensive diffusion of knowledge, is borne out by the rise of a number of eminent poets and scholars in the Mughal Empire. The *Farhat-ul-Nazirin* mentions the names of forty-five distinguished poets, of whom Sarmad was indisputably the most outstanding. Of them, six had hailed from Lahore and one, called Chandar Bhuan, was evidently a Hindu. The same source of information is further responsible for the fact that there were thirty-one litterateurs, some of whom, such as Danishmand Khan, Fazal Khan, Shaikh Harwi and Itimad Khan, had also qualified themselves as shrewd administrators. Over and above, there were thirty-six more, who distinguished themselves in religious sphere. Among the rest, such renowned teachers as Abdul Aziz, Abdullah and Abdul Karim, deserve specific mention. Finally, there were many others who achieved their laurels in literature by writing volumes on various subjects.\(^{17}\)

The successors of Aurangzeb—Bahadur Shah I, Muhammad Shah, Shah Alam II and Bahadur Shah II—were all noted for

---

17 *Aurangzeb*, by M. Elphinstone, edited by Prof. Srt Ram Sharma, pp. 251, ff. Also see my *Mughal Empire*, Chapter XVI. For Aurangzeb's theory of royal education, see ch. XI of this book.
their literary knowledge. Some of them were poets of elegant tastes; others were scholars of exquisite refinement. Though mere political nonentities, they were nevertheless, great patrons of letters and zealous promoters of education. They had all identified themselves with the cause of learning and the learned.\textsuperscript{18}

Never in the whole history of India did art and literature, science and philosophy, industry and commerce flourish as a whole quite as much as during the two hundred years of the Great Mughals' rule.\textsuperscript{19} Obviously, this tremendous progress is a tribute to the type of education that was then imparted by the Mughal Emperors, whose interest in this noble cause was occasioned by their own love of learning. If, therefore, education made mighty strides during the Mughal Period, it was because these Emperors were great educationists who far outshone their contemporaries in literary attainments.\textsuperscript{20}

\begin{flushright}

19 \textit{The Splendour that was Ind.} by K. T. Shah, p. 30.

20 \textit{Annals and Antiquities of Rajasthân.} by Lt Col James Tod, Vol. i, pp. 298-99.
\end{flushright}
PROGRESS OF EDUCATION—II

PRIVATE PATRONAGE
CHAPTER VII

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION DURING THE EARLY MUSLIM PERIOD

"The greatest ornament of man is erudition".
—Ali.

Hitherto I have dwelt on the promotion of learning and education by Muslim Kings alone; I shall now devote a few pages to Private Enterprise, which too was active in this direction. The cultural history of Muslim India is rich not only in records of copious contributions made by Muslim Kings to the sacred cause of education, but also in immortal achievements of other Musalmans of means in the sphere of education. The share of these Muslims in the spread of religious as well as general education was considerable and calls for a special comment. They caught the spirit of their sovereigns and further increased the facilities for education by founding and endowing maktabs and madrasahs, mosques and monasteries, libraries and literary societies, which, in point of beauty and extent, often rivalled those founded by the Imperial Patrons. This and the three subsequent chapters deal with this
subject and the information embodied in them will, it is hoped, throw ample light on the subject to enable the reader to appreciate the importance and appraise the efficacy of their selfless endeavours in this sphere of human welfare.

To begin with, Sayyad Maula, who flourished in the reign of Sultān Ghiyās-ud-Din Balban, was such a profound and competent scholar that he numbered even the princes and peers among his pupils and disciples. He was one of the most distinguished advocates of education. An alm-house for the support of learned travellers, who frequently visited Delhi, owed its origin and existence to his indefatigable efforts and industry. He also founded a college at Dehli and staffed it with brilliant professors.¹

The reign of Sultān Alā-ud-Din Khilji, noted as it was for literary activities, afforded a very favourable field to voluntary zealots in the cause of education. There were numerous nobles who came to their aid with liberal benefactions. There were, for

¹ Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law, pp. 28 and 32; and Brigg's Translation of Tārikh-i-Ferishta, Vol. i, p. 271.
instance, the nobles of Nauhatta, who were noted for their interest in the students who came from distant places to study in the schools and colleges at Delhi. Again, one may specifically mention the Sayyads of Gardez, who had settled in Delhi,—Sayyad Chhajju (otherwise known as Jāhji) and Sayyad Ajāli in particular—not to speak of Muin-ud-Din, Jalāl, Ali and many others of the Jajr Family, who were behind nobody in coming out with their contributions to the cause of learning and education. The Sayyads of Biānah too had much to do with the extension of education in Delhi. They were as remarkable for their love of learning and interest in education as the Sayyads of Gardez and the nobles of Nauhatta. The cumulative effect of the efforts of all these voluntary zealots was that Delhi, which was already at the top of fame, became more famous as a centre of education, to which hundreds of foreigners flocked for the cultivation of various arts and sciences.

Of the numberless philosohpers and poets, jurists and theologians, chronologists and historians, scientists and physicians, minstrels

Specialists in various branches of knowledge, who flourished under Private Patronage.

2. Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N, Law, pp. 36-37; and Brigg's Translation of Tārikh-i-Ferishta, Vol. i, p. 377.
and musicians, linguists and others, who prospered even without the fostering patronage of the reigning Sultān, so vital to the literary and educational advance of the people, the most renowned may be mentioned here. They were: Amir Arslān, a distinguished historian; Maulāna Alim-ud-Din, Jamāl-ud-Din Shatbi, Alā-ud-Din Maqri and Khwājāh Zikki—specialists in the Qur’ān; Maulāna Badr-ud-Din Damishqi, Maulāna Sadr-ud-Din, Jawānī Tabīb and ‘Alm-ud-Din—experts in the art of healing; Sayyad Mughis-ud-Din, Sayyad Muntajib-ud-Din, Sayyad Rukn-ud-Din and Sayyad Tāj-ud-Din—doctors of literature; Maulāna Imām-ud-Din Hassan, Maulāna Hamid, Maulāna Latif, Maulāna Shahāb-ud-Din Khalil and Maulāna Zia-ud-Din Sannavi—adepts in the performance of *Taszkirs*; Kabir-ud-Din, well known for his eloquence and ability in *belles lettres* in general; and Amir Hassan, known as ‘the Sa’adi of Hindustan’ on account of his proficiency in poetry.³ Besides the few enumerated above, there were numerous others who had distinguished themselves in other departments of knowledge. They were well-versed in Usūl-i-Din (theology), *Fiqah* (jurisprudence),

Usūl-i-Fiqah (logic), Nāhwa (grammar), Badi-o-Bāyan (history), and Tafsir (commentaries on the Muslim Scriptures). Barni supplies us with a list of some of them, and it is reproduced here:

Maulāna Alā-ud-Din Kark,
,, Alā-ud-Din Lāhori,
,, Alā-ud-Din Sadr-ul-Shariah,
,, Alā-ud-Din Tājar,
,, Burhān-ud-Din Bhakri,
,, Fakhr-ud-Din Hansuli,
,, Fakhr-ud-Din Shaqāqil,
,, Hamid-ud-Din Maniani,
,, Hamid-ud-Din Mukhlis,
,, Hasam-ud-Din Ibn Shādi
,, Hujjat Multāni Qadim,
,, Husām-ud-Din Surkh,
,, Iftikhr-ud-Din Barni,
,, Iftikhr-ud-Din Rāzi,
,, Kamal-ud-Din Koli,
,, Karim-ud-Din Jauhari,
,, Minhāj-ud-Din Qabni,
,, Mirān Mariklah,
,, Muin-ud-Din Loni,
,, Muiz-ud-Din Andihni,
,, Najib-ud-Din Sāhwi,
,, Najim-ud-Din Intishār,
,, Nasir-ud-Din Ghani,

Maulāna Nasir-ud-Din Karah, Nasir-ud-Din Sabuli, Nizām-ud-Din Kalāhi, Rukn-ud-Din Sunnami, Sadr-ud-Din Gandhak, Sadr-ud-Din Tawi, Salāh-ud-Din Satrki, Shahā-ud-Din Multāni, Shams-ud-Din Bāhi, Shams-ud-Din Tum, Tāj-ud-Din Kalāhi, Tāj-ud-Din Maqdum, Uhid-ud-Din Mulhu, Zahir-ud-Din Bhakri, Zahir-ud-Din Lang;

Qāzi Fakhr-ud-Din Naqlah, Iftikhār-ud-Din Rāzi, Mughis-ud-Din Biānah, Muhi-ud-Din Kashāni, Shams-ud-Din Ghazruni, Sharaf-ud-Din Sarbāhi, Ujiya-ud-Din Paili, Ujiya-ud-Din Rāzi.

To crown all the celebrated saint, Nizām-ud-Din Auliya, and his learned pupil Shaikh Usman (Maqdūm Sirāj-ud-Din), also belong

5. Vide Tārikh-i-Fīrozshāhi, by Zia-ud-Din Barni, pp. 341 ff.; Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law, p. 38; and Zia Barni, by Sayyad Hassan Barni, pp. 21 ff.
to this time. Posterity has exalted the tomb of the former to the dignity of a place of pilgrimage; whereas the latter has to his credit the reputation of having founded a big library which was removed to Lakhnauti (Gaur) after his death.\(^6\)

It may also be pointed out here that at this time the study of philosophy and theology was zealously carried on under the auspices of some of the most learned theologians, and consequently, the *Quib-ul Qalūb*, the *Ahyā-ul-Ulūm*, the *Kashf-ul-Māhjūb*, the *Sharha-i-Tārif* and the *Risāla-i-Qushiri* had an enormous vogue.\(^7\)

In short, Delhi was at that time the heart to which the outlying cities were connected by arteries, through which streams of ideas flowed and distributed nourishment all round. Barni informs us that there was there at that time an intelligentsia, who surpassed even the pick of Bokhāra, Baghdād Cairo, Damascus, Isphān, and Tabrez—the renowned Muslim university-cities of the East.\(^8\) Ferishta also

\(^6\) *Promotion of Learning in India*, by N. N. Law, pp. 36 and 37.

\(^7\) Ibid., p. 37.

\(^8\) See *Tārikh-i-Fīrozshāhi*, by Zia-ud-Din Barni, pp 341, ff.
refers to Delhi as an important educational centre and says that 'palaces, mosques, universities, baths...... and all kinds of public and private buildings seemed to rise as if by magic. Neither did there in any age appear such a concourse of learned men from all parts'. 9 I have adduced the testimony of Barni and Ferishta; I may now quote a Hindu historian, who says that numerous learned men came flocking to Delhi, 10 which, one may venture to suggest, could compare very favourably with the great university-cities of the world. Not that all this was due to voluntary efforts, but that these, combined with the educational efforts of the Kings, had raised the standard of education to such a high level.

9. Brigg's Translation of Tarikh-i-Ferishta, Vol. i, p. 376; and History of India as told by its own Historians, Elliot and Dowson, Vol. vi, p. 385. The magic referred to above was the magic of Private Enterprise. "During the time of Sultān Ala-ud-din Delhi was the great rendezvous for all the most learned and erudite personages, for notwithstanding the pride and hauteur, the neglect and superciliousness and the want of kindness and cordiality with which that monarch treated this class of people, the spirit of the age remained the same", (i.e. literary). (Vide History of India as told by its own Historians, Elliot and Dowson, Vol. vi, p. 485). If in spite of the superciliousness of the Sultān and the neglect of the noble cause of learning attributed to him by some of the historians, the spirit of the age remained the same, it was certainly due to voluntary efforts.

Contemporary chronicles are silent on the subject under discussion during the period scanning the interval between the end of the Khilji regime and the establishment of the Mughal Empire (at least I have not been able to find any evidence on the subject), except that when Babar invaded India in 1526 A. C., he came across a library which belonged to Ghazi Khan, an Afghan noble of the Punjab. This library had in it some important theological works, which also attracted the attention of the invader, who is said to have sent some of them to his sons, Humayun and Kamran, for their use. Besides the books on theology, it contained 'a number of valuable books on other sciences.'

Thus, from the evidence adduced above it is clear that besides the educational efforts made by the great Muslim rulers of India during the early Muslim Period, the patronage of learning and promotion of education by founding schools and colleges, were also undertaken with remarkable zeal and enthusiasm by many of the nobility and gentry. By the time, therefore, that the

---

Great Mughals began to rule in India, there must have already existed a large number of schools and colleges in almost all parts of Muslim India,\textsuperscript{12} and in consequence therefore the standard of education must have been fairly high and the amount of literacy considerable. The statement recorded in the \textit{Tuzk-i-Bābari} that there were no good colleges in India,\textsuperscript{13} refers only to the closing years of the Sultānate of Delhi when the normal machinery of the Muslim Government stood idle and civic activities were thrown into abeyance as a sinister result of the misgovernment of the last King of the Lodhi Dynasty (Sultān Ibrāhim Lodhi) and the subsequent unrest caused by the Battle of Pānipat (1526 A. C.), but for which Bābar's opinion about the state of education in India at his advent cannot hold water.

\textsuperscript{12} Rev. Dr. Keay also comes to the same conclusion after dealing with the progress of education during the pre-Mughal period. (See his \textit{Ancient Indian Education}, p. 120).

\textsuperscript{13} \textit{Vide} Erskine's \textit{Memoirs of Bābar}, Vol. i, p. 333; and Talbot's \textit{Memoirs of Bābar}, p. 190.
CHAPTER VIII

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN THE PROVINCIAL KINGDOMS

"Eminence in science is the highest of honours."
—Ali

"To respect the learned is to respect God."
—Ali

I must now proceed to consider the progress of education in the outlying provincial kingdoms under the patronage of those prominent persons, who vied with one another and even emulated their kings in promoting education by founding maktabs and madrasahs and creating endowments for their maintenance, as well as in supporting the learned and supplying their material requirements.

Turning to the kingdom of Sind, we learn that the cause of education found its reverant exponents in the Sayyads of Rohri, who were distinguished for their love of learning and their interest in the learned. Some of the colleges and establishments founded by them have survived to our own times and their minarets and domed roofs add to the picturesque appearance of that part of the

---

1. For these sayings see Spirit of Islam, by Amir Ali, p. 360.
province.²

Among those military colonies, which during the Arab occupation of Sind 'grew into flourishing cities and became centres of learning and culture', Multān was perhaps the most conspicuous. During the days of its independence as well as subjection to the Central Government, it possessed a superior standard of education, so much so that it attracted hosts of scholars from distant lands. Though there is very little documentary evidence at my disposal to show that it was an important centre of education during the Muslim rule, yet the presence of so many tombs of Muslim saints and scholars that stud the surface of that soil sufficiently testifies to the fact that it must have been noted, at one time, for the individual instructors of eminence who resided there. It was in fact an important asylum for all those literary persons who were ousted from their homes by the tyranny of their rulers. Shāh Shams Tabrez, whose tomb in Multān is now not less than a place of pilgrimage, was, for instance, not merely the

² "Rohri was formerly a place of great size and commercial importance, and contained large colleges and establishments of Sayyads and holy men. The minarets of these buildings and the domed roofs of the tombs add to the picturesque appearance of this part of Sind." (Vide Land of the Five Rivers and Sind, by David Ross, p. 68).
head of a religious order, but a poet of pure vigorous diction and sublime imagination. His name is enshrined in the roll of the great and glorious mortals whose lives form important landmarks in human history.  

Sadr-ud-Din Muhammad Hussaini, popularly called Banda Nawāz for his hospitality and Gesu Darāz for his long locks, was a famous saint of Kulbarga. In deference to his profound knowledge, both religious and secular, he was addressed to engage himself as a preceptor to Prince Ahmad Shāh. When the Prince ascended the throne, the saint’s star was in the zenith, and it was a matter of great pride for the proudest peer of the realm down to the humblest servant of the State to carry out his smallest wishes. So supreme was his sway over the hearts and the minds of the people that ‘his tomb became a pilgrimage to all sects’. Over and above the rôle he played as a private preceptor, his interest in education, as evidenced by the number of books he wrote, raises him to the rank of an enlightened educationist. Of his literary works, the Adab-ul-Murid, the Wajud-ul-‘Āshiqin and the Asmār-ul-Asar are greatly

---

admired. When he died, Ahmad Shāh, the ruling prince, honoured him by founding and endowing a madrasah to his memory—an honour which he richly deserved as a lover of learning and a promoter of education. His son, Muhammad Akbar, was the author of the *Aqaid-i-Akbar*, so called after his own name. It contained the fundamental principles of the Muslim Religion.\(^5\)

The Bahmanid Kingdom might justly be proud of having produced an outshining educationist, Māhmud Gāwān, who had great learning and ample judgment in the composition of prose and verse alike. He was an elegant writer of letters, an excellent author and an expert mathematician. The invaluable *Rauzat-ul-Insha*, the *Diwān-i-Ashar* and many other works from his prolific pen may still be found in some of the libraries of the Deccan. They were written with that clearness which is born of love and breeds love again. They are immortal not because they are the work of a genius, but because their themes are perennial. He was, in fact, so learned that Maulāna Abdur Rāhmān Jāmi regularly corresponded with him, and some of the

---

letters written to him by that renowned poet are still to be seen in his books.  

It was certainly in the sphere of education that he carved out a niche of undying fame, where his name will always shine with effulgent glory. Himself a man of vast knowledge and high literary tastes, too much stress cannot be laid on what he did for the promotion of education. His literary benefactions were so extensive that 'there was scarcely a town or city the learned men of which had not derived advantage out of him'. His liberality was not confined to his own country alone, but extended even beyond the Bahmanid Kingdom. Ferishta gives us to understand that he used to send every year precious gifts and valuable presents to the learned men of Irāq and Khurāsān, for which he received high honours from the princes of those places.

His name is preserved in history chiefly by a college founded by him in the city of Bidār and

---


7. Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law, p. 87.

8. Ibid., pp. 86-87; and Brigg’s Translation of Tārikh-i-Ferishta, Vol. ii, pp. 510 and 514.
known after his own name as Madrasah-i-Māhmud Gāwān. When Firishta saw it, it was so well intact as if it were just finished. It was equipped with a large library, containing, according to the same authority, as many as three thousand volumes for the use of its professors and students. It had an ornate mosque attached to it, so that religious education might be imparted side by side with secular learning. Around the mosque there was a row of rooms for the residence of professors and students. Firishta informs us that distinguished scholars of distant countries were conveniently accommodated there and provided with all the necessaries of life gratis. With the permission of the ruling prince, who too seems to have been interested in educational matters, Gāwān issued invitations to the most accomplished scholars of the Age, intending to employ them as professors in his institution. Of these, two deserve specific mention, viz., Maulāna Abdur-Rāhman Jāmi, the most illustrious poet and scholar of Persia, whom he wanted to appoint as the principal of his

Madrasah; and Maulana Muhammad Jalal-ud-Din Davvani, an author of many books and professor of the Madrasat-ul-Aitam at Shiraz. Unfortunately, however, Gawân was bitterly disappointed, when all the scholars invited by him, got themselves excused on the plea of old age, arduous journey and other inconveniences involved in it. Had they accepted his invitation, he would have employed them as professors in his college, and under the ennobling influence of their erudition the standard of education and the extent of literacy in the Bahmanid Kingdom would have risen much higher than was otherwise possible.

Having failed to secure the services of the celebrated scholars, referred to above, Gawân's choice fell on Shaikh Ibrahim Multani, a well-known saint and scholar, who happened to be staying at Bidar at that time. Gawân appointed him as the principal of his Madrasah. The Shaikh, in return, fully repaid the confidence reposed in him. Under him, Gawân's College grew into a flourishing institution. It may be mentioned here that the Shaikh was such a saint and scholar that even the Princes of the Bahmanid Kingdom considered it an honour to be his disciples. In recognition of his learning and piety, he
was afterwards appointed as the Chief Qāzi of the Kingdom. The Shaikh was not the only one noted for his erudition; there were many other scholars of equal importance, working at the Madrasah-i- Māhmud Gāwān.

Let us now turn to the building of the Madrasah itself. Of its perfection there can be no greater proof than that it took a period of about three years to be completed at a cost of several lakhs of rupees; and of its solidity, this that it has successfully withstood the ruthless ravages of time and has preserved most of its former glory and grandeur which still exact spontaneous praise and admiration even from outsiders. But for an untoward incident which spoiled much of its original beauty (vide infra), it would have retained its challenging greatness un tarnished and ranked amongst the most magnificent of its class in India. The following extract from the memoirs of Sir Richard Temple’s travels from Kashmir to Hyderabad contains a reference to this building (madrasah), which strongly endorses the above view:—

“Of the ancient buildings of India now extant, this building (madrasah) is by far the best and unparalleled”.

The following couplet of Mullah Sami’i, a contemporary poet of great celebrity, also
embodies it his view as to what this Madrasan once was:—

'Built was the Madrasan to be a centre of learning,

Its foundation: "O God, accept from us"
the chronogram bearing.'

Another passage which describes this building runs as follows:—

"The noble college of Mahmud Gawan
in the city of Bidar", says a modern historian, "was perhaps the grandest completed work of the period. It consisted of a spacious square with arches all round it, of two storeys, divided into convenient rooms. The minarets at each corner of the front were upwards of 100 feet high, and also the front itself, covered with enamel tiles, on which were flowers on blue, yellow and red grounds and sentences of the Qur'an in large Kufic letters, the effect of which was at once chaste and superb.'

Brigg's note on this Madrasah is as interesting as it is informing. I cannot,

10. S. Wajahat Hussain has attempted a highly interesting account of Khwaja Mahmud Gawan, for which vide J. A. S. B., LETTERS, Vol. i, 1935, No. 2, Article No. 3, pp. 81 ff. For the above information I am indebted to the above article, as well as to Tarikh-i-Ferishta; History of Bahmani Dynaste (1900); and History of India as told by its own Historians, Elliot and Dowson.

therefore, resist the temptation of quoting it in full:—

"After the capture of Bidar by Aurangzib, in the latter end of the seventeenth century, this splendid range of buildings was appropriated to the double purpose of a powder-magazine and barrack for a body of cavalry, when by accident, the powder, exploding, destroyed the greater part of the edifice, causing dreadful havoc around. Sufficient of the work remains, however, even at the present day, to afford some notion of its magnificence and beauty. The outline of the square and some of the apartments, are yet entire and one of the minarets is still standing. It is more than 100 feet in height, ornamented with tablets on which sentences of the Qur'an in white letters 3 feet in length, standing forth on a ground of green and gold, still exhibits to the spectator a good sample of what this edifice once was. The College is one of the many beautiful remains of the grandeur of the Bahmani and Burid dynasties, which flourished at Bidar; and they render a visit to that city an object of lively interest to all travellers, but particularly to those who may peruse this history."\textsuperscript{12}

\textsuperscript{12} Vide Brigg's Translation of \textit{Tārikh-i-Ferishta}, Vol. ii, p. 510
Apart from this magnificent Madrasah, Māhmud Gāwān executed with his own resources a large number of public works, the remains of which can still be seen in the Deccan. His crowning achievements stand out pre-eminent as a noble example of what a single individual, unaided and alone, can accomplish with his own limited resources for the good of humanity. Indeed he was imbued with the spirit of self-sacrifice. His income was as huge as that of a prince, but his bounty was so large that on his death a very small sum of money was recovered from his coffers—a convincing proof, if proof is required, of his liberality and philanthropy. 'Plain-living and high-thinking' was his motto, devotion to humanity was his watchword; service—his ideal. His whole life was devoted to the uplift of his country, both moral and material. Murtaza Hussain has recorded in his Hadiqat-ul-Aqlim that thirty-five thousand copious works were obtained from his house on his death. The College he founded is a monument to his memory.

The Silsilah-i-Āsifiyāh draws upon the Tuḥfat-ul-Salāṭin and states that a son of Daud Shah used to teach students for three days in a

---

week: Monday, Wednesday and Saturday. In the course of study for his pupils he included books such as *Zahidid*, *Sharh-i-Tazkirah* and *Tahriri Uqlidas* (Euclid) in mathematics; *Sharh-i-Maqāsid* in theology; and *Mutāwwal* in rhetoric, —books he himself was very fond of.  

Munim Khan of Jaunpur was another notable figure of the fifteenth century. Some apartments near the Big Jaunpur Bridge, used for the residence and tuition work of a learned man, named Shaikhu, are attributed to him. The inner apartments housed a *madrasah* and the outer apartments were let out. The rents derived from them defrayed the expenses of the teacher and the taught.  

Next in this account may be mentioned Bibi Raji, the high-spirited wife of Māhmud Shāh of Jaunpur, who was no less celebrated. In the first half of the sixteenth century, she constructed a *Jāmī’-Masjid*, a monastery and a *madrasah* in Jaunpur, and gave them the name of *Namazgah* (place of worship). She is stated to have assigned some stipends and scholarships  


15 *Promotion of Learning in India*, by N. N. Law, p.
to the professors and students of her college.\textsuperscript{16}

Rahim Dad of Gwalior also seems to have been a man of great learning and patriotic spirit. To him too is traced the foundation of a college in Gwalior. The existence of this college is supported by a statement in the \textit{Tuzk-i-Babari} (\textit{Memoirs of Babar}), which runs thus:—

“Having visited these places, I mounted my horse and went to the college founded by Rahimdad.\textsuperscript{17}

In Bengal there lived several learned Musalmāns, who encouraged Islamic as well as Hindu learning. Numerous Bengali works were translated into Persian and Sanskrit at the instance of Muslim Chiefs. They served to remove the supercilious spirit in which Bengali was looked upon by the Sanskrit-loving Brāhmanās and the Hindu Rajās. The Hindu Rajās and Chiefs imitated the Muslim Sovereigns and \textit{Amirs} in extending their patronage to Bengali writers and poets. It was thus that the institution of keeping ‘Bengali Court Poets’ grew into fashion and

\begin{flushright}
\textsuperscript{16} \textit{Ibid.}, p. 101.
\textsuperscript{17} Erskine’s \textit{Memoirs of Babar}, Vol. ii, p. 338.
\end{flushright}
it was in this way that the renaissance of Bengāli literature was brought about. In consequence, therefore, education—both Muslim and Hindu,—made considerable progress in Bengāl under the patronage of Muslim Chiefs and others.

From all that has been stated above about the progress of education under Private Patronage, it is evident that the Musalmān educationists of the outlying provinces were little behind their rulers in patronizing learning and promoting education on their own account and that their laudable efforts were not limited to the extension of Islamic learning and education alone; towering above the trammels of religion and soaring above the snares of sectarian psychology, they, like their rulers, took an active interest in the promotion of provincial vernaculars and contributed to their development, so much so that it is never too much to say that the work done in the domain of education would have been, but for their efforts, a mere modicum of what was actually accomplished.¹⁸

¹⁸. History of Bengal, by Stewart, pp. 111, 113 and 408; History of Bengali Literature, by Dinesh Chandra Sen, pp 10, 11, 12, 14, 140 and 222; and Lwa's Promotion of Learning in India, pp. 107 ff.
CHAPTER IX

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION DURING THE MUGHAL PERIOD.

He dieth not who taketh to learning.¹
—Muhammad

It may incontrovertibly be asserted that the diffusion of education throughout the length and breadth of their empire was largely the result of personal interest taken in this direction by the Great Mughal Emperors, who were doubtless great as patrons of learning and remarkable as promoters of education, though the patronage of learning and promotion of education did not remain circumscribed to the Imperial House. The example set by them in this, as also in other spheres, was followed by the Mughal nobility and upper classes, whose interest might not have been genuine at all times, but whatever they did, whether as followers of fashion and flattery, or as lovers of learning and literature, had a

beneficial effect on literary pursuits. This was highly conducive to cultural development. For when a king takes a real personal interest in an art or education, he is readily imitated by his courtiers, and this influence further flows down to those who associate with them or come in contact with them. "This tendency," says Sir Abdul Qadir, "was particularly strong among the nobility of the Moghal Court." Writing about the 'Reign of Shahjahan', Mr. A. Aziz refers to this tendency in these words:—

"The Moghal nobility constituted a sort of agency through which the ideals of art and morals and manners were diffused among the lower classes. The habits and customs of the people, their ideas, tendencies and ambitions, their tastes and pleasures, were often unconsciously fashioned on this model. The peerage acted as the conduit-pipe for this stream of influence. The patronage of art and culture followed the same lines; and even where the interest was not genuine the enlightened pursuits were followed and encouraged as a dogma dictated by fashion."  

2. Quoted from Mr. A. Aziz's History of the Reign of Shahjahan by Sir Abdul Qadir in his learned article on 'The Cultural Influences of Islam in India', for which, vide J.R.S.A., 10th January, 1936.
The value of the view expressed above by two distinguished scholars can be best appraised in the light of the ensuing account, from which it will be found that the educational work of the Mughal Emperors was reinforced, in a remarkable degree, by the laudable endeavours of the nobility and upper classes, who are justly entitled to a due share of honour.

Two instances of the achievements of private individuals during the reign of Humāyun can be cited. Shaikh Zain-ud-Din Hāfi was an author and poet of pure vigorous diction and towering imagination. The Muntakhib-ut-Twārīkh records to his credit that ‘he was unapproachable in his age in the construction of enigmas and chronograms, in extempore versification and in all the minutiae of poetry and prose’. He set up a superb college at Delhi, within the precincts of which he was buried after his death. A school was also founded at Agra to perpetuate his memory.³

Besides these two institutions, it appears that the tomb of Hamāyun was also at one time used as

---
a place of instruction. The fact that it housed a madrasah in its bosom at one time is corroborated by two European scholars in the following passages:

"The college which is on the roof of the tomb, was at one time an institution of some importance, and men of learning and influence used to be appointed to the charge of the place. It has, however, long ceased to maintain its reputation, and for the last 150 years, the once probably well-filled rooms have been completely abandoned."

Fanshawe also supports the above statements when he says that 'on the top of the building, round the drum below the dome, are a number of rooms and pavilions once occupied by a college attached to the mausoleum, and reminding one of the colony of St. Peter's Dome'.

One cannot help admiring Maham Ankah, the foster-mother of Emperor Akbar, who established a college, with a mosque attached

---

4 Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law, p. 134
5 Archaeology of Delhi, by Carr Stephen, p. 207.
6 Delh, Past and Present, by Fanshawe, p. 232.
to it, at Delhi in the year 1561 A. C., and provided it with decent equipment and capable professors. It was a splendid edifice built of 'rubble and plaster, with the ornamented parts painted by the use of red dressed stone and granite—the gate, now partly ruined, must have once been very fine. The masjid inside was profusely ornamented with coloured plaster and glazed tiles, though most of it has been stripped. The façade of the masjid and gateway was also ornamented with coloured medallions and carved stone flowers; the colours used were blue, yellow, red, purple, white, green, black, grey. It has one central dome on a low neck and very peculiar pinnacle, greatly resembling that of Qil'a Kona Masjid. The walls of the masjid are plumb, but the towers slope, and it has projecting caves in front as in Moti-ki-Masjid. A peculiarity of this was its cloisters'.

This noble offspring of voluntary effort and a crowning achievement of a female educationist is now in ruins; but the moribund cloisters are still to be seen in front of the western Gate of the Old Fort in Delhi.

7. Āsār-us-Sanādīd, by Sir Sayyad Ahmad Khān, p. 54, Archaeology of Delhi, by Carr Stephen, p 199 ff; and Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N Law, p. 165 ff.

8. Vide Archaeology of Delhi, by Carr Stephen, p. 199.
Nothing sadder exists in India than this dilapidated madrasah—the silent witness of a great feminine achievement.

Apart from the madrasah of Maham Ansâh, there was another extant in Delhi at that time. It was that of Khwâja Mu'în, wherein suitable professors were employed for the instruction of its students. One of the professors was Mirza Muslih Samarrqandi who taught in that institution for a period of about three years (1571—74 A. C.).

Gujarat continued to enjoy its literary fame throughout the Mughal Period. In 1623 A. C. Muhammad Safî, its Dîwân, founded a number of madrasahs in front of Fort Irk, and beside the Madrasah of Sayîf Khân. Sadiq Khan, who flourished there in the sixteenth century, was also an important educationist. He founded a madrasah, where the learned Shaikh Wajih-ud-Din used to teach. Wajih was buried within this

9. Ma'âsir-i-Rahimi, by Mullâh Abdul Bâqi, quoted by Law in his Promotion of Learning in India.

institution when he died in 1689 A. C.\textsuperscript{11}

Next I may mention Khān-i-Khānān Abdur Rahim, who also lived about this time and took an active part in the diffusion of education on his own account. It is recorded in the \textit{Ma‘asir-i-Rahimi} that as many as ninety-five learned men enjoyed his bounty and many more sat at his feet for receiving lessons. He possessed a big library, to which every one could have free access for study and self-improvement.\textsuperscript{12}

The splendour of Shāh Jahan’s glorious architecture so ravished the imaginations of contemporary historians that they did not think there was much else that could claim their attention. Consequently we are left in the dark as to the progress of learning and extention of education at that time. Nevertheless, we have grounds enough to say without being guilty of overstatement that this period was not without some educational institutions, befitting its architectural grandeur. Maulāna Sadr-ud-Din Khān Bahādur, Sadr-us-Saddur (Chief Justice) of Shahjahanābād, was one of the

\textsuperscript{11} \textit{Ibid.}, Vol. ii, p. 45.

\textsuperscript{12} \textit{Promotion of Learning in India}, by N N. Law, p 168.
most important educationists of Mughal India. He is said to have infused new life and blood into the college which he got transferred to himself from a later Mughal King.\textsuperscript{13}

The reign of Alamgir (Aurangzeb), noted as it was for the advancement of learning and literature under the encouragement of the Emperor, was no less distinguished for the progress of education under the patronage of private individuals. Akram-ud-Din, to quote one instance, built a madrasah at Ahmadābād in 1697 A. C. at a cost of one hundred and twenty-four thousand rupees, and in response to his request, he was given Siha and Sundra (two villages) by the Emperor for its maintenance.\textsuperscript{14} There were other similar maktabs and madrasahs. Maulvi Abdul Hakim also founded a school in Siālkot, of which his son, Maulvi Abdullāh, became an eminent teacher.\textsuperscript{15} Qāzi Rafi-ud-Din made a madrasah at Bīnāh in 1670 A. C. in the vicinity of Qāzion-ki-Masjid.\textsuperscript{16}

\textsuperscript{13} Āsār-us-Sanādīd, by Sir Savyad Ahmad Khān, p. 69.


\textsuperscript{15} Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law, p. 180.

\textsuperscript{16} Ibid.
Another remarkable feature of Alamgir’s reign was the increasing educational importance of the city of Sialkot in the Punjab. “During Aurangzeb’s reign”, says Mr. N. N. Law, “Sialkot was a great seat of learning. Learned men from various parts of the country resorted to this place”. Its importance as a centre of education was due partly to voluntary efforts and partly to the fact that paper was easily procurable there. It had a big manufactory of the Mānsinghi and silk paper, which was clean, durable and good in texture.\(^{17}\)

In connection with the manufacture of paper, it may be mentioned here that paper was first brought into India by Musalmāns. This was doubtless one of the most material contributions made by them to the cause of education in this country. It was most probably from China that paper was imported into Central Asia, where (in Samarqand) a big manufactory existed and supplied paper to various countries of the East, including India. It was from Samarqand that paper was first brought into

\(^{17}\) Ibid.
India about the tenth century of the Christian era.\(^{18}\)

Even amidst the waning glories of the Mughal Empire under the unfortunate successors of Aurangzeb, the spark of voluntary effort, lit in the cause of education, was not entirely extinguished. Thus during the reign of Emperor Bahadur Shah, there were three private institutions in Delhi. Ghazi-ud-Din, a favourite officer of the late Mughal Emperor one of the principal stars of the present reign, constructed near the Ajmeri Gate at Delhi, a madrasah, a masjid and a mausoleum, all within the same enclosure, in his lifetime, combining in one place, a house of worship, a tomb of the founder and a place of instruction, with a residence for those in charge of the whole establishment.\(^{19}\) A beautiful gateway will take the reader to this dilapidated enclosure. In the outer wall of this gateway he will find a number of arched-rooms which probably served as dining-rooms for the students of the college when it was in a flourishing state. In 1793 A. C. this institution

---


was closed for lack of funds.\textsuperscript{20}

The name of Firoz Jang is also associated with a college, which he founded at Delhi about the year 1711 A. C.\textsuperscript{21} At this time another madrasah existed in the city of Kanauj. It was called Fakhr-ul-Murrabbi. It was the alma-mater of Maulvi Alim-ud-Din and Maulvi Nasim-ud-Din, who were famous for their literary ability and attainments.\textsuperscript{22} This institution should not be confused with another of almost the same name (i. e., Fakhr-ul-Murrabbi Rub-ul-Mafakhir). The one within brackets was constructed at Firozabad, a little later, by Muhammad Wali-Ullah, the author of the Tārikh-i-Farrukhabādī.\textsuperscript{23}

In spite of the anarchy and confusion, rampant at Delhi, consequent upon the misgovernment of Muhammad Shāh and the subsequent invasion of Nādir Shāh, there still existed, at this time, a bright feature, which merits consideration, viz., encouragement accorded to education in

\textsuperscript{20} Delhi, Past and Present, Fanshawe, p. 64; Carr Stephen’s Archaeology of Delhi, p. 264. This college is now uninhabited. Also see Francklin’s Shāh Ālam, p. 200.

\textsuperscript{21} Mirāt-i-Ahmadi, by Ali Muhammad Khān, Vol. i, p. 410.

\textsuperscript{22} Promotion of Learning in India, by N N Law, pp. 195-96.

\textsuperscript{23} Ibid., p. 195.
science by Rajah Jai Singh of Ambar, who is reported to have laid out a number of observatories in Jaipur, Ujjain, Mathura, Benares and Dehli. The Imperial Observatory, which survives to the present day, was constructed under his supervision at the instance of the Emperor.  

The reign of Emperor Bahadur Shah also witnessed the foundation of a masjid and a madrasah by Sharaf-ud-Daula, a man of conspicuous literary distinctions. It is recorded in the Tabsirat-ul-Nazirin that when Nadir Shah invaded India and took possession of the Muslim Capital, he was seated in the ‘Madrasah of Raushan-ud-Daulah’. This incidentally points to the existence of another college. Thus there were, at this time, three noteworthy educational institutions flourishing in Delhi under private patronage.

The reign of Emperor Shah Alam II was not without its intellectual luminaries. Hasan Raza Khan

24. Vide Delhi, Past and Present, by Fanshawe, p. 247; and Carr Stephen’s Archæology of Delhi, p. 269 ff


26. Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law, pp. 197-98. After plundering Delhi Nádir Shah took away with him the Imperial Library which the Great Mughals had preserved as their most precious and proud possession
was, for instance, an eminent educationist. He founded at Farrukhābād, a madrasah, of which Abdul Wāhid Khanabādi was an illustrious professor.27

In the beginning of the eighteenth century there lived a wealthy zamindar at Barbhūm, called Abdullāh, who was a generous patron of letters. He is stated to have dedicated half of his income—an enormous sum—for the support of the learned as well as for other charitable purposes.28

At the end of the eighteenth century, a very learned scholar and author of not less than one hundred and fifty books, called Shaikh Nur-ud-Din, opened a madrasah in Ahmadābād a year after his return from a pilgrimage to Macca and Medina, and himself took to the profession of teaching.29

Almost about the same time Khair-ud-Din Muhammad of Allahābād, author of the Tazkirat-ul-

Some of these books were subsequently sold in Persia at extremely low prices. (Vide Miniature Painting and Pointers of Persia, India, and Turkey, Vol. i, pp 58-77.)

27. Hassan Raza Khān was a Minister of Nawāb Asaf-ud-Daulāh of Oudh. (Vide Promotion of Learning in India, by N N. Law, p. 199.)


Ulama (memoirs of the renowned scholars of Jaunpur), Ibrat-Namah, Gwalior-Namah, Balwant-Namah and Jaunpur-Namah, kept a madrasah at his native city till the sale of Kora and Allahabad by the East India Company to Nawab Shuja-ud-Daula.  

Thus, there can be no doubt that the cause of education was taken up by private individuals during the Mughal Period quite as feelingly as by the Emperors themselves. Some of the colleges and libraries established by them have survived to our own times; whereas others have lost all marks of recognition at this distant date and cannot be identified as such.  

Those that have survived afford ample proof of their pristine glory and grandeur, but those that are lying in ruin are known only by their names.

30. It will be interesting to have a glimpse of Khair-ud Din’s scheme of a school in Jaunpur (where he had received his early education), submitted in his Memorial to Lord Wellesley appended to his Tazkira, wherein he suggests the appointment of five maulvis, four of whom were to be in charge of teaching subjects included in the curriculum. This may be regarded as a humble prototype of the maktabs and madrasahs flourishing during the sunny days of the Muslim rule. (Vide Tazkirt-ul-Ulama translated by Sana-Ullah Khan.)

CHAPTER X

DOMESTIC SYSTEM OF EDUCATION
AND
VILLAGE SCHOOLS

"To the student who goes forth in quest of knowledge, God will allot a high place in the mansions of bliss; every step he takes is blessed, and every lesson he receives, has its reward."

—Muhammad

"No present or gift of a parent, out of all the gifts and presents to a child is superior to a good liberal education."

—Muhammad

"That a man gives a liberal education to his child is better for him than that he gives a large measure of corn in aiming."

—Muhammad

While we are still about the subject of the important contributions made by private bodies towards the cause of learning and education, I might, with propriety, give a brief account of the Domestic System of Education, which, I take it, is only a phase of the same movement. The Domestic System of Education went apace with the instruction in schools and colleges, not independent of or different from it in aim and character but existing side by side as a necessary corollary. Every house of a Mullah, Maulana or Maulvi was in itself
an important centre of culture and good breeding, which often provided board and lodging free to the students.¹

There were many who had not even entered the portals of a university and yet they were as remarkable for their learning and scholarship as those turned out by schools and colleges. This was because they were taught either by their fathers in their own houses, or by other learned men to whose houses they went and learnt lessons at whose feet: Their education was free from the formalities of a school-room. That they often became splendid scholars and eminent authors, worthy to be ranked with the best of their class, is indeed an important achievement of the Domestic System of Instruction, which is thus described in the *Imperial Gazetteer of India*:

"Elementary classes were included in the schools attached to mosques, but ordinary education was, as a rule, imparted at home. Householders of means engaged the services of a teacher to instruct their children in reading, writing and arithmetic. Persian

¹. *Promotion of Learning in India*, by N. N. Law p 164
was the medium of instruction, and letter-writing and penmanship were highly prized accomplishments. The children learned to write on oblong boards, in appearance like a large edition of the horn-book, which could be washed clean at the close of the lesson. Less affluent neighbours were invited or allowed to send their children to the class, which sometimes attained the proportions of a small school. The schools were known as domestic *maktabs*, and the teachers were called *maulvi sāhib* or *munshi sāhib*. The profession was followed by both Muhammadans and Hindus. ..”

As stated above, many an eminent scholar in those times owed his erudition to this unconventional Domestic System of Education. The author of the *Tarikh-i-Tahiri*, a very learned scholar, received his early education in the house of his *ustad* (teacher) Maulāna Is’hāqi and studied Sa’adi, Jāmi, Khaqānī and Anwārī with him.3 Abdul Qādir, the renowned scholar and author of the *Tarikh-i-Badaoni* (*Muntakhib-ut-Twāriḵ*), who flourished in the time of Akbar, completed his course of studies in the house of his talented teacher,

3. *Vide History of India as told by its own Historians*, Elliot and Dowson, Vol. I, p. 253.
Mehr Ali Beg, in the city of Agra. It appears that Allāma Abul Fazal and his brother, Faizī, the most consummate Perso-Sanskrit scholars that Muslim India could justly be proud of having produced, also owed their creation to the Domestic System of Instruction. In Arabic and Persian they might have received their education either in state schools, where these languages were compulsory, or in their own house by their learned father, Shaikh Mubārik, whose literary superiority was acknowledged even by his worst enemy, viz., Abdul Qadir Bādaoni. But, where did they acquire their proficiency in Sanskrit?—Either in state schools, which is a testimony to the fact that Sanskrit occupied a prominent place in the curricula, or in the houses of some Sanskrit scholars, which is a tribute to the Domestic System of Education.

Examples like these can be multiplied, but the few cited above will suffice to satisfy the curiosity of the inquisitive mind.

The System of Domestic Education was not confined to the North; it was in full swing in the South.

---

4. Ibid., Vol V p 493; and Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law; p. 117.

5. See Maulāna Mūhammad Ḥusain Azād’s Tazkīrat-ul-Ulāma, which teems with such instances of individual instructors of merit.
as well. Mr. Shoberl gives a somewhat graphic description of those schools which were held in the houses of the teachers in the Shiah Sultanates of the Deccan. He says:

"The pupils sit cross-legged on the bench or on the floor. They write on paper with reed pens, or with tubes of some other kind. The paper mostly imported from China is not so good as that of Europe. It is smooth, very thin and easily tears."

It may be pointed out here that Mr. Shoberl describes the state of education in the South in those days when the sun of Muslim Supremacy had set.

There was another system of instruction in vogue in India at that time. In almost every village there were some small schools in which reading, writing and arithmetic were taught to the children of all classes without restrictions of caste, colour or creed. The village school-master received his fees from his pupils usually in kind and was, as noted before, a fair prototype of the Village School-Master immortalized by Goldsmith in his Deserted

Village. 7 Mr. N.N. Law, on the authority of the Kharshid-i-Jahān Numa, asserts that towards the end of the eighteenth century there were small educational institutions at Silāpur in Bengal, where both Hindus and Musalmāns received education in Arabic and Persian. 8 "Max Muller, on the strength of official documents and a missionary report concerning education in Bengal prior to the British occupation, asserts that there were then 80,000 native schools in Bengal, or one for every 400 of the population." 9 These schools must have been of the kind of those described above. Their number is remarkable indeed.

Such small educational institutions existed in the villages of Southern India as well. While dwelling

7. In the good old days of the 'Village Republics' there was always provision in each village for a School-Master along with other functionaries of the Village Service. This was confirmed by Sir Thomas Munro, who gave evidence before both the Houses of Parliament in 1813 A.C. to the effect that there were schools in every Indian village and that the people were well-versed in the rudiments of the three R's. To these institutions was rightly ascribed the general efficiency of the natives as scribes and accountants. They were flourishing till the close of the eighteenth century but are now dying out for want of sympathy and support  (See 'India' in Encyclopædia Britannica.)

8 Vide Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law, p. 113
9 India, Impressions and Suggestions, by J K. Hardie p. 5.
upon the state of civilization there, Mr. Fergusson informs us that 'education in Persian and Arabic literature was extended as much as possible by village schools, which were attached to mosques and endowed with lands sufficient for their maintenance'.

The importance of the systems of education described above cannot be exaggerated. They have been extant in India since the advent of Islam, especially for such branches of arts and sciences as music, painting and calligraphy, and for proficiency in a particular art. Big institutions like schools and colleges did not always make provision for artistic training and hence we find a student of music, painting, etc., receiving his lessons in the house of his teacher.

I have already described the prevalent practice of performing the time-honoured Maktab Ceremony among the Muslim Kings when their sons attained the age of 'four years, four months, and four days,' and when the infant princes were admitted into schools and commended to the care of their appointed preceptors for instruction in various arts and sciences, with due

10. Architecture at Bijapur, by Fergusson, p. 12.
11. Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law, p. 117.
ceremonies.\textsuperscript{12} Rev. Dr. Keay observes that this custom was followed by the nobility and the gentry as well.\textsuperscript{13} His view is endorsed by another modern writer, who, while writing about the "Life and Conditions of the People of Hindustan" during the early Muslim Period (1200—1550 A. C.), remarks that "the education of the child received particular attention. He was put to school or rather under a tutor with picturesque ceremonies." According to this writer, the Bismillah-Khāni, or otherwise the ceremony of putting a boy to school for the first time, also known as Maktab Ceremony, was performed amidst a showe of acclamations and good wishes for the novice when he attained the age of 'four years, four months, and four days,' when at an auspicious hour fixed in consultation with an expert astrologer, he received his first lesson from his tutor.\textsuperscript{14} The performance of this ceremony was seen by Mr. L. F. Smith in 1801 A. C. among the Musalmans of the North-Western Provinces. He described it

\textsuperscript{12} Vide Ancient Indian Education, by Rev. Dr. Keay, p. 130; and Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law, pp. 128 and 141.

\textsuperscript{13} Vide Ancient Indian Education by Rev. Dr. Keay, p. 132.

\textsuperscript{14} K. M. Ashraf's contribution on the Life and Conditions of the People of Hindustan, (1200—1550 A. D.)—(Based mainly on Islamic Sources) to J. A. S. B., Letters Vol 1. 1935, Article No. 3, p. 249
in a letter in the following words:

"When the boy is four years, four months, four days old, for him a silver slate is made and they write on it the Surah-i-Iqra, a chapter of the Qur'an, and make him repeat it; at this time, a master is kept for him."\(^{15}\)

Thus it is evident that the Maktab Ceremony, or Bismillah-Khani, was in vogue not only during the Mughal period, but existed even before and after it. It was in fact so deep-rooted that it has survived to our own times and is commonly found among the Musalmans of India in these days.

In view of the facts given above, I may conclude with reasonable certitude that a regular education was given to the Muslims as well as others in India during the Muslim Rule, and an examination of the modus operandi of the system adopted has made it amply clear that side by side with Court Patronage private individuals have borne no mean share of the onus of responsibility for the promotion of education in Muslim India. It does not matter whether they took a prominent part in the propagation of education only in order to please the ruling prince who happened to be

\(^{15}\) See L. F. Smith's Appendix to Chahār Darwish, p 253.
highly interested in the educational advance of his people, or 'followed and encouraged enlightened pursuits as a dogma dictated by fashion', or because they were really interested in the advancement of education. Taking the amount of educational work done by them and appraising it as it stands, regardless of their motives, it appears to have been wholly beneficial, and for this they amply deserve our esteem and admiration.
PROGRESS OF EDUCATION—III
CONNECTED TOPICS
CHAPTER XI

ROYAL EDUCATION

"Knowledge is life and wealth." 1
—Ali.

The emperors, who were so anxious about the education of their subjects, were no less interested in the education of their own sons. So, here it will not be out of place to have a glimpse of the education that was imparted to the imperial princes. It must, however, be acknowledged at the outset that a complete account of the education of every prince of the period is impossible, both on account of the paucity of material on the subject and the scarcity of space at my disposal. Nevertheless, the following account, however meagre and perfunctory, will throw sufficient light on the subject and on the principles and practices pertaining thereto.

Having no male issue of his own, Sultán Shahāb-ud-Din Ghori adopted his slaves as his sons and took great delight in their education. Apart from giving them a

sound literary education, he instructed them in the art of practical administration which was absolutely indispensable to prospective princes. That some of them, such as Aibak, Bakhtiyar and Qabaicha, rose to be the remarkable rulers of his dominions after his death, bears glowing testimony to the type of education he had given them. Minhaj-i-Siraj records that on one occasion when one of his courtiers reminded him of the faults and failures of his heirs, he told him with absolute indifference that he had many thousand sons, *vis.*, his Turkish slaves, who would be the heirs of his dominions after his death and who would preserve his name in the *khutba* throughout his territories. This was not an empty boast. The prognostication proved only too true and is fully illustrated by the story of the Slave Dynasty which ruled in India with success for about a century. Such was the kind of education he had imparted to his adopted sons.

Altamash (Iltutmish) spared no pains in so far as the education of his children was concerned. He gave a decent education to his daughter, Razia Begum, and there is no


doubt that many of her noble qualities she owed to her education. He made special arrangements for the instruction of his son, Mahmud, and fixed his residence at Loni, which was quite in keeping with his princely dignity. That the Prince was educated in a most befitting manner is borne out by the fact that he had become thoroughly conversant with various arts and sciences at an early age.  

Balban was also very keen and careful about the education of his sons: Muhammad, the pioneer of literary societies, and Kurra Khan Bughra, the founder of the first dramatic society in the kingdom. The literary as well as artistic attainments of these two princes have been recorded in a previous chapter of this book and there is no need to repeat them here. It may, however, be said here that Prince Muhammad was taught under the tuition of Amir Khusrau, the most prominent poet and scholar of the day.  


5. Siyyar-ul-Mutakabbirin, by M. Ghulam Hussain (Persian), Vol. i, p. 111. For an account of Prince Muhammad’s education, see History of India as told by its own Historians, Elliot and Dowson Vol. iii, p. 565.
Almost all the princes of the Tughluq Dynasty were carefully educated by their fathers in the arts of war as well as of peace. Sultān Ghiyās-ud-Din, the founder of the House, seems to have left no stone unturned in teaching his son, Juna Khān (Muhammad Tughluq), in every branch of knowledge. According to Ferishta the Prince was taught by Maulāna Azād-ud-Din and Kutlaq Khān. The same authority further informs us that the latter had instructed him in the Holy Qur’ān, in some Persian books as well as in the art of writing.

It is also reasonable to suppose that he had instructed the Prince in his military exercises, for he was as much a man of letters as of war. It was undoubtedly owing to his excellent education, received at an early age, that the Prince became ‘the Wonder of the Age’ and ‘the most learned man among the crowned heads of the Middle Ages.’ It is impossible to do full justice to his many-sided achievements in literary knowledge. Enough that he was endowed with such a versatility

of mind and intellect as is rarely met with in a mortal. 7

Himself a learned scholar, Muhammad Shāh ῥughlūq took upon himself to educate his cousin, Firoz Shāh Tughluq, whom he intended to be his successor. We are informed that Firoz was trained in the art of administration by both of his immediate predecessors, viz., Muhammad Shāh and Ghiyāṣ-ud-Din. 8 In his turn, Firoz also discharged his duty of educating the heir-apparent, which was, so to say, a family legacy, in a most befitting manner. According to Ferishta he appointed able ataligs (private tutors), atabaks (masters, specially in military sciences) and qaida-dāns (grammarians) for his son, Fath Khān, and assigned him a separate Bargah (palace). The Prince used to read and write in a maktab from early morn till breakfast time and from evening till late at night."

Sultan Sikandar Lodhi, who was a poet of some genius and a scholar of some ability, too appears

to have been efficiently educated. His teacher in the *Mizan* was Shaikh Baha-ud-Din, a very learned man of the day, and his preceptor in poetry was Shah Jalal, a prominent poet and author of his time.10

Sultan Ghiyas-ud-Din II of Bengal, who ruled there from 1367 to 1373 A.C., was a highly cultured prince. He must have received a good education, about which, unfortunately, we know only so much that his tutor was Hamid-ud-Din of Nagore, a most learned theologian of his time, and that the only fellow-student with whom he used to study, was the celebrated saint Qutb-ul-'Alam, to whose memory Sultan Hussain Shah established a most magnificent madrasah.11

The princes of the Bahmanid Kingdom also were given good education by their fathers. Muhammad Shah Bahmani, who wielded the sceptre of the Bahmanid Kingdom from A.C. 1463 to 1482, was, for instance, a highly educated prince. He received his early education under the supervision of one Khwaja-i-Jahan, who appointed a distinguished scholar of

10. Ibid., p. 211; and Law's *Promotion of Learning in India*, p. 73.

11. Stewart's *History of Bengal*, p. 111; and Law's *Promotion of Learning in India*, p. 108.
his time, called Sadr-i-Jahān Shustāri, as his teacher. Under the tuition of this learned teacher, the prince made so great a progress in his studies that he became, in course of time, the most learned king of the Bahmanid Kingdom, next only to Sulṭān Fīroz Shāh Bahmani."

Bābar must have received an excellent education during his early life, for we know that he had very little time, later on, to equip himself with the intellectual attainments he is unanimously believed to have possessed in abundance. Mr. Stanley Lane-Poole's remarks in this connection are worthy of a quotation. Says he:—

"At the age of five the child (Bābar) was taken on a visit to Samarqand. The next six years must have been spent in education and well spent, for he had little leisure (later on) to improve himself, and his remarkable attainments in the languages he wrote imply steady application. Of his early training we hear nothing, but it is reasonable to suppose that an important part of it was due to the women of his family."\(^1^3\)

13. Bābar, by Stanley Lane-Poole, p. 22.
Humayun's education and tastes, like those of his father, were almost entirely Persian. About his early education, no elaborate details are available. The little we know is that when he attained the age of 'four years, four months and four days', the *Maktab Ceremony* was performed for celebrating, according to the then existing custom, the occasion of his admission into a school for the first time. At that time he was seated in a *maktab* and entrusted to the care of his teachers in a formal manner. Endowed as he was with a wonderful memory, he soon acquired proficiency in all those arts and sciences which were taught to him.14

I might, with propriety, take this opportunity of throwing some light on Akbar's literary education. The concurrent testimony of historians has painted him illiterate. I do not subscribe to this view. On the other hand, I firmly believe that he was literate and well-read in various arts and sciences.

To begin with his early education. It can be gathered from contemporary accounts that his father, Humayun, was particularly keen about his

14. Law's *Promotion of Learning in India*, p. 128.
education. According to the prevalent custom, when he attained the age of ‘four years, four months and four days,’ he was admitted into a school and the *Maktab Ceremony* was gone through. This took place in the year 1547 A. C. At that time Maulāna Aziz-ud-Din was entrusted with the responsibility of teaching him. Aziz-ud-Din was superseded by Maulāna Bāyazid and he, in his turn, by many more. Then Mir Abdul Latif, the most consummate historian, philosopher and theologian of the day, was invited to instruct him in various arts and sciences. Moreover, with his own knowledge of astronomy, the fond father had himself fixed the fortunate moment of his son’s admission into the school. This attests the Emperor’s anxiety for educating his son. Again, it is not at all likely thats Khan Baba (Bairam Khan), a later *ata’īq* (guardian) of the young prince and a man of unmixed loyalty, would have neglected the education of his master’s son and his own future sovereign. The fact is that he acquitted himself creditably; he left no stone unturned to instruct him in the divers branches of knowledge. It was he who appointed Mir Abdul Latif as his teacher. We are informed that Mullāh Asām-ud-Din, Ibrāhim, Pir Muhammad and Hāji Muhammad Khan were also his instructors. Maulāna Muhammad
Hussain Āzād has mentioned in his *Darbār-i-Akbari*, Mālāna Abdul Qādir as another tutor to the young prince. Furthermore, it is distinctly recorded in the *Ain-i-Akbari* that Shaikh Abdun-Nabi and Abdullah Makhdum-ul-Mulk were his religious preceptors.\(^5\)

From the preceding paragraph it is quite clear that Akbar's literary education commenced in 1547 A. C., when the *Maktab Ceremony* was performed, and continued to the death of his father, which took place in 1556 A. C. During these eight years Humāyun was supremely solicitous about his son's education. The appointment of efficient teachers as well as the dismissal of mere mediocres testifies to his care in this direction. Further still, we have it from the *Darbār-i-Akbari* that in 963 A. H. (1585 A. C.) the Emperor (Akbar) himself began to read the *Diwan-i-Hafiz* with Mir Abdul Latif Qazwini.\(^6\)


16. *Ibid.*, p. 113. According to M. Zaka-Ullāh, Akbar was illiterate in his early life but acquired full proficiency in reading and writing in his mature age. The books he used to read, says the Mālāna, were preserved by his descendants as sacred relics. (*Vide* his *Tārikh-i-Hindūstān*, Vol. v, pp. 771-72.)
There is no denying the fact that Akbar was endowed with a singularly romantic and receptive mind. He could easily imbibe and assimilate knowledge that was imparted to him by his teachers. In this case one is apt to agree with the writer who says that 'a month snatched out for studies out of the whole period of training, or devoted to them under the fear of his teachers and guardians, could no doubt have enabled him to read and write the alphabet, which even the dullest boy does not take long to master.'\textsuperscript{17} That he was very fond of sports in his early life, is admitted on all hands, but I for one cannot understand how a boy, with a memory so marvellous and a mind so impressionable, could so systematically resist the efforts of his father for full eight years and those of his \textit{atâliq} for five years, and come out at the end of the period as blank as he is painted. And one finds it difficult to believe that a man like Humâyûn, who himself was a learned scholar, would have neglected the education of his beloved son; and a son, who rose to be the greatest sovereign of India, cannot be said to have been ignorant of the alphabet.

\textsuperscript{17} Vide Law's Promotion of Learning in India, pp. 207.
I may now quote direct evidence from the *Ain-i-Akbari* and other contemporary chronicles in support of my contention. It is recorded in the *Ain* that His Majesty (Akbar) used to hear the recitation of important books by court-scholars and paid them according to the number of pages they recited in his presence. On the last page of the book under perusal he would himself write in numerals, with his own pen, the total number of pages, and put down the date where the reader stopped.\(^\text{18}\)

This of course obviously ascribes to His Majesty a fair knowledge of numerical figures and their daily transcription by his own hand, with his own pen. Here then it must be remembered that in those days, as also in these days, there was a common custom of making a novice learn and write the numerals along with or even subsequent to the alphabet.

---

18. The original text is this:—“Wa har rūz ke badān já rasad bā shumār-i-ān hindisah baqalami-i-gauharbār naqsh kunad. Wa ba ṣādā-ṣād-ṣād-ṣād khwāna-rāh rā naqd az surkh wa sufaij bakhshish shwad.” Translation:—“Whatever place (of the book) the reader daily reached, he (Akbar) wrote with his own pearl-pouring pen, numerical figures according to the number of leaves (read). He paid the reader’s cash in gold or silver according to the number of leaves (read).” Here the word ‘hindisah’ means numerical figures. The translators of the original text have taken it to mean ‘sign which is wrong’. Likewise ‘qalam-i-gauharbār’ means ‘pearl-pouring pen or prolific pen and not ‘jewelled pen’, as translated by them. (Also see Gladwin’s *Ain*, p. 85.)
Evidently he could read and write, though his penmanship may not be pitched very high. His son, Jahāngir, informs us that he was competent enough to weigh and to express his opinion on any topic; that he understood the elegances of poetry and prose so thoroughly that there was hardly any one who could equal him in this respect.\(^{19}\) He was a poet himself and could spin verses of no mean merit. Some of his verses have been preserved by ‘Allāma Abul Fazal and other historians of his reign. He was a fastidious critic of poetry and could improve upon the verses of other poets.\(^{20}\) He was a great book-lover. Under his auspices, the Imperial Library was augmented with several important works, and under his direction was the entire system of education reformed. Some of the most important and interesting books were kept in the Imperial *Harem* for his own use. He loved and prized the society of *gens de lettres*, appreciated their learned discourses, enjoyed their abstruse controversies, understood the niceties and excellences of their compositions and himself took an active

---


20. Elliot and Dowson’s *History of India as told by its own Historians*, Vol. iv, p. 294; and Brigg’s Translation of *Tārikh-i-Ferishta*, Vol. ii, p. 280.
part in their discussions—All this lends support to my statement.

As to what is responsible for such a grave misreading of an historical fact, I have discovered four things: Those who maintain that Akbar was illiterate rely, first, upon a statement of the *Iqbalnamah*, which reads that the Emperor was ‘*ummi’*; secondly, upon a sentence of the *Waqiyat-i-Jahangiri*, which says that Akbar ‘had acquired such knowledge of the elegance of composition both in pros and verse that a person not acquainted with the circumstances of his elevated character and station might have set him down as profoundly learned in every branch of science’; thirdly, upon the evidence of the Portuguese Missionaries, which states that ‘he could neither read nor write’; and lastly upon a statement of Von Noer, which paints Akbar as ‘*uneducated’*.

---

Taking the first: ‘Ummi’ is an Arabic word and has more than one meaning. The translators of the original Persian text have taken it to mean illiterate, which meaning is accepted by almost all modern historians, who have little acquaintance with the original sources, at its face value, without thinking for a moment that it is capable of a different interpretation. I take it to mean taciturn, which is also one of its meanings, and is at once in accord with the information adduced above. The statement in the Waqiyat-i-Jahangiri does not say that the Emperor was absolutely illiterate; it only states that he was not ‘profoundly learned’. The statements of the Catholic Missionaries, who resided at the Imperial Court and wrote that the Emperor ‘could neither read nor write’, I make bold to challenge their veracity. The information that we derive from the accounts of Xavier and Monserrat deserve our respect and admiration for supplementing the history of the period under consideration (Mughal India) in certain details; but in case it is contradicted by the cumulative testimony of men like Abul Fazal, Faizi and others, its authenticity

must needs be called in question. Personally, I am inclined to think that to inquire into Akbar's literacy or illiteracy was well-nigh impossible for the foreign missionaries who always found themselves in the strange environments of suspicion at the Mughal Court, which would not at all entertain inquiries about the person of the Emperor, e.g. to inquire whether or not he was educated. Necessarily therefore their information must have been based on hearsay evidences and should therefore be appraised as such. Monserrat himself has confessed that the material stocked in his book is not first-hand. This will be evident from the following passage:—

“As to the particulars concerning Cingus-sican, Temurbeg, the Scythians and the Mongols (i.e., the Mughals), which I, so to say, borrowed and inserted after my narrative, at the end of the book, I learnt them, in the first place, from Zelaldin himself, then from a journal containing an account of the travels of a certain ambassador of Henry IV, King of Castile, to Temur; finally from writers of no mean merit.”

That the information we get from the accounts of the Portuguese Missionaries

is not always entirely correct, is true. For instance, Rev. H. Hosten has pointed out a number of inaccuracies in the accounts of Father Monserrrat. To these inaccuracies may be added the present one—Akbar's illiteracy.

Finally, it must be remembered that the information of Von Noer is based on the authority of a Goanese, i.e., a Portuguese missionary resident of Goa. As such it cannot be accepted as correct.

Thus there can be no doubt that if literacy means ability to read and write, Akbar was literate; and if the end of education is acquisition of knowledge and intellectual improvement, he was undoubtedly 'profoundly learned' and 'most highly educated'.

Akbar was vitally interested in the education of his sons. He displayed his wonted insight and acumen in the selection of their teachers, and appointed reputed scholars for superintending their studies. In 1579 A.C., when Quth-ud-Din Muhammad was engaged to educate his son Salim ( Jahângir), a grand levee was held and the teacher, in accordance

---

29. Law's Promotion of Learning in India, p. 139; and Noer's Akbar, Vol. ii, pp. 56 and 243.
with the custom of the day, presented valuable articles to the Emperor and received richer in return. Then amidst a shower of acclamations he took his ward, the young prince, on his shoulders and ordered dishfuls of jewels and gold mohars to be thrown among the people. At that time Salim was about five years old. His other tutors were Mirza Abdur Rahim, Shaikh Ahmad and Maulāna Mir Kalān Harvi, Muhaddis (traditionist) of Herāt. He was also put under the tuition of Christian missionaries to be instructed in western arts and sciences. The teachers of Murād and Dāniāl were Abul Faiz (Faizi) and Sa‘īd Khan Chaghtai, respectively. Hugh says that Murād was for some time placed under the instruction of Monserrat 'to be instructed in the sciences and religions of Europe'. According to Count Noer the Emperor appointed Abul Fazal and a Brāhmin for the education of one of his grandsons.30

Shah Jahān, too took a good care to provide for the education of his sons and grandsons. Of his four sons, Dāra and Aurangzeb were particularly noted for their literary

acquirements. Dāra, whose scholarly achievements have been summed up elsewhere, was taught by eminent teachers. Mullah Shah,31 whom Šāh Jahān honoured and respected more than any other person, was his Murshid or spiritual guide. His son, Sulaimān Shīkoh, was taught under the tuition of Kāzi Ibrāhīm Thāti, a very learned man of his time.32

Like all other Mughal Princes, Aurangzeb too received his education at an early age. His first tutor was Sa‘adullāh Khān, the most erudite scholar of his father’s reign. His other teachers were Mullah Sāleḥ and Mir Muḥammad Ḥāshim. He was not, however, satisfied with the kind of education imparted to him by his early teachers. This is evident from the reproof he is said to have administered to his old teacher,33 when the latter hastened

31. “Mullah Shāh, a native of Bādakhshān, was the Murshid or spiritual guide of Dāra Shīkoh and was highly respected by Šāh Jahan.....He may be Mullah Sāle of Bernier’s narrative, and have taught Aurangzeb also. I possess a very fine contemporary portrait, by a Delhi artist, of Dāra’s teacher who was one of the disciples of Mīr Šāh Mir of Lahore.....” (Vide Bernier’s Travels p. 154, note 2.)

32. See Siyyīr-ul-Mulâkhkhīrin, by Ghulām Hussain, Vol. i, pp. 290-91, where the author tells the story of one Shaikh Nazīr, who visited Qāzi Ibrāhīm in the maktāb, where he was teaching Prince Sulaimān Shīkoh.

33. According to Bernier and Manucci this teacher was Mullah Sāleḥ (vide Bernier’s Travels, Constable’s Edition, p. 154 and Storia do Mogor, by N. Manucci, Vol. ii, p. 30); but
to the Capital to congratulate his old pupil who now held the sceptre in his hand. Having taxed the venerable preceptor of his boyhood, who, with his utter ignorance of the history and geography of the world and the relative importance of European states, seems to have given him a meagre sort of education, the Emperor reprimanded him in these words:

"... Was it not incumbent upon my preceptor to make me acquainted with the distinguishing features of every nation of the earth; its resources and strength; its mode of warfare, its manners, religion, form of government, and wherein its interests principally consist; and by a regular course of historical reading, to render me familiar with the origin of states, their progress and decline; the events, accidents, or errors, owing to which such great changes and mighty revolutions have been effected? Far from having imparted to me a profound and comprehensive knowledge of the history of mankind, scarcely did I learn from you the names of my ancestors, the renowned founders of this empire. You kept me in total ignorance of their lives, of the events which preceded,

Sir Jadunath Sarkar does not accept this as correct, (vide his History of Aurangzeb, Vol. i, p. 4).
and the extraordinary talents that enabled them to achieve their extensive conquests. A familiarity with the languages of surrounding nations may be indispensable in a king; but you would teach me to read and write Arabic: doubtless conceiving that you placed me under an everlasting obligation for sacrificing so large a portion of time to the study of a language wherein no one can hope to become proficient without ten or twelve years of close application. Forgetting how many important subjects ought to be embraced in the education of a prince, you acted as if it were chiefly necessary that he should possess great skill in grammar, and such knowledge as belongs to a doctor of law; and thus did you waste the precious hour of my youth in the dry, unprofitable and never-ending task of learning words.”

Bernier, who is mainly responsible for the above information, further asserts that some of the scholars, either to court favour with the Emperor through flattery by adding energy to his speech, or actuated by jealousy of the Mullah, affirm that the reproof did not end there, but that when the Emperor had spoken for a while on different topics, he

34. Bernier’s Travels, (Constable), pp. 154-161.
resumed his speech as follows:

"Were you not aware that it is during the period of infancy when the memory is commonly so retentive that the mind may receive a thousand wise precepts; and be easily furnished with such valuable instructions as will elevate it with lofty conceptions, and render the individual capable of glorious deeds? Can we repeat our prayers, or acquire a knowledge of law and of the sciences only through the medium of Arabic? May not our devotions be offered up as acceptably, and solid information communicated as easily, in our mother tongue? You gave my father, Shāh Jahan, to understand that you instructed me in philosophy; and, indeed, I have a perfect remembrance of your having during several years, harassed my brain with idle and foolish propositions, the solution of which yields no satisfaction to the mind—propositions which seldom enter into the business of life; wild and extravagant reveries conceived with great labour and forgotten as soon as conceived; whose only effect is to fatigue and ruin the intellect, and to render a man headstrong and insufferable. O yes, you caused me to devote the most valuable years of my life to your favourite hypotheses, or systems, and when I left you, I
could boast of no greater attainment in the sciences than the use of many obscure and uncouth terms, calculated to discourage, confound, and appal a youth of the most masculine understanding; terms invented to cover the vanity and ignorance of pretenders to philosophy; of men who, like yourself, would impose the belief that they transcend others of their species in wisdom, and that dark and ambiguous jargon conceals many profound mysteries known only to themselves. If you had taught me that philosophy which adapts the mind to reason, and will not suffer it to rest satisfied with anything short of the most solid arguments; if you had inculcated lessons which elevate the soul and fortify it against the assaults of fortune, tending to produce the enviable equanimity which is neither insolently elated by prosperity, nor basely depressed by adversity, if you had made me acquainted with the nature of men; accustomed me always to refer to first principles, and given me a sublime and adequate conception of the universe, and of the order and regular motion of its parts; if such, I say, had been the nature of the philosophy imbised under your tuition, I should be more indebted to you than Alexander to Aristotle, and should consider it my duty to bestow a very different reward on you than Aristotle received from
that Prince. Answer me, sycophant, ought you not to have instructed me on one point at least, so essential to be known by a king; namely, on the reciprocal duties between the sovereign and his subjects? Ought you not also to have foreseen that I might, at some future period, be compelled to contend with my brothers, sword in hand, for the crown, and for my very existence? Such, as you must well know, has been the fate of the children of almost every king of Hindustan. Did you ever instruct me in the art of war, how to besiege a town, or draw up an army in battle array? Happy for me that I consulted wiser heads than thine on these subjects! Go. Withdraw to thy village. Henceforth let no person know either who thou art, or what is become of thee.”

Allowing for any exaggeration, addition or alteration, made consciously or unconsciously by Bernier, this lengthy discourse on the subject of education by a seventeenth century educationist is interesting as well as illuminating. It does not seem necessary to discuss whether part of it came from Alamgir’s advisers or not. Taking it, therefore, as it stands, we can get from it the view of Muslim education held by

35. Ibid.
the then educationists of India. As an able administrator and a sagacious statesman, Alamgir felt the necessity of a more satisfactory education than had been imparted to him by his teachers. He did not object to the theological basis of his education; what he did object to was the ‘pedantry and ‘formalism’ with which it was characterized. He did not at all like the mere memorizing of words and terms without understanding their meaning and knowing their proper use, and was all averse to the wasting of time and energy involved in acquiring skill in grammar. Whereas Akbar the Great attached immense importance to the teaching of scientific subjects in his schools and colleges, Alamgir emphasized a ‘broad humanism, wherein history, geography, languages of the neighbouring states, the art of war as well as of administration would occupy a prominent place. With Alamgir, education was a preparation for life; and the formation of lofty conceptions and development of such habits of thought and action as would enable the students to face all the dangers and difficulties of life with wisdom and valour are, therefore, set forth by him in his discourse as essentials of good education. What he desired, among other things, was to connect the education imparted with the vocation which the students
wanted to follow after completing their course of studies. All this is evidently quite modern and therefore of the highest interest and importance to the modern educationist who is anxious to introduce such educational reforms as are urgently needed in these days. 36

The discourse reproduced above, besides drawing the sketch of what the education of a royal prince ought to include, manifests the kind and quality of education which Alamgir acquired from various sources. ‘This theory of royal education’, says Stanley Lane-Poole, ‘thus expressed with some French *paraphrasis* would have done credit to Roger Ascham when he was training the vigorous intellect of the future Queen Elizabeth in her seclusion at Chestnut’. 37

It might be interesting for the reader to have a glimpse of the training given by Alamgir to his children. He taught them in accordance with his own theory of royal education as outlined above. It was an eminently practical education that he gave them, Muhammad Sultan, Shah ‘Alam and Muhammad Akbar were thoroughly accomplished in the essentials of

36 Keay’s *Ancient Indian Education*, pp. 136-37.
37 *Aurangzeb*, by Stanley Lane-Poole, p. 79
imperial education. Bernier’s observations in this respect are interesting and informative. Says he:—

“The Ethiopian embassy was still in Delhi, when Aurangzebe assembled his privy-council, together with the learned men of his court, for the purpose of selecting a suitable preceptor for his third son, Sultan Ekbar, whom he designs for his successor. He evinced upon this occasion the utmost solicitude that this young prince should receive such an education as might justify the hope of his becoming a great man. No person can be more alive than Aurangzebe to the necessity of storing the minds of Princes, destined to rule nations, with useful knowledge. As they surpass others in power and elevation, so ought they, he says, to be pre-eminent in wisdom and virtue.”

Niccolao Manucci informs us that according to a Mughal practice the princes were taught to read and write their mother-tongue when they reached the age of five. Thereafter they were put under the instruction

38. See Alamgir in M. Zaka Ullah’s Tārikh-i-Hindustān, Vol. viii, pp. 504-506.
39. Muhammad Akbar was in fact his fourth son, but the third then alive.
40. Vide Bernier’s Travels, Constable, p. 144.
of learned scholars and eunuchs, who were entrusted with the duty of giving them literary as well as military education. It was also part of their duty to regulate the amusements of the princes in such a way as to prevent their proclivities to indulgence in vicious habits, and thereby enable them to acquire a knowledge of the important affairs of the world. Catrou draws mainly upon Manucci and supplies us with the following information with regard to the education of the Mughal Princes:

"Whilst the princes remain in the harem, under the eye of their father, a eunuch is charged with their education. They are taught to read and sometimes to write in Arabic and in Persian. Their bodies are formed to military exercises, and they are instructed in the principles of equity. They are taught to decide rationally upon subjects of dispute which occur or on suppositious suits at law. Finally they are instructed in the Muhammadan religion, and in the interests of the nation, which they may be called one day to govern."

Thus there can be no doubt that the Mughal Princes were taught in a most efficient

42. *Catrou's History of the Mughal Dynasty*, p. 288.
manner. One cannot help pronouncing their education as excellent; for it embraced almost everything important for an imperial prince. It was a thoroughly liberal and essentially practical education. It was owing to this education that they became conquerors, rulers, reformers, peace-makers and law-givers, who, in point of literary knowledge, military skill, administrative genius and 'broad humanism', rank with the greatest sovereigns of the world. A passage in the *Annals and Antiquities of Rājasthān* by Col. Tod embodies in it an epitome of their attainments, and I think his words may be quoted in support of what is stated above. Says he:—

"Were we to contrast the literary acquirements of the Chughtai princes with those of their contemporaries of Europe, the balance of lore would be found on the side of the Asiatics, even though Elizabeth and Henry IV of France were in the scale. Among the princes from Jaxartes are historians, goets, astronomers, founders of systems of government and religion, warriors, and great captains, who claim our respect and admiration."[43]

In the light of the evidence adduced above it can be safely asserted that the education of the imperial princes engaged the utmost attention of the ruling sovereigns who had an earnest desire to leave behind worthy successors, capable of controlling the affairs of a vast and wonderful empire, and therefore sought to impart to their sons the best education that was then available. Their efforts fructified, and as a result India was furnished with a series of emperor-educationists who were immensely interested in the educational well-being of their subjects. The education received by the latter as princes found a fit expression in the foundation of innumerable educational institutions when they became kings. Now then it should not be difficult to explain and to account for the multiplication of maktabs and madrasahs, the growth of libraries and literary societies, and the educational richness which characterized that period.
CHAPTER XII

GIRLS’ EDUCATION

"Acquisition of knowledge is incumbent upon all the Faithful, men as well as women." 1

—Muhammad

The accepted standards of civilization differ at different times, in different climes, under different circumstances. By the pure and the pious of the Middle Ages it was regarded as unnecessary and even injurious to educate women; the puritan looked upon it as a crime. Few indeed in the past thought of teaching a young girl anything except domestic science, i.e. sewing, spinning and looking after the household affairs. If to-day the opinion is changed, it is because many things have changed. Notwithstanding this, the Musalmans of Mediæval India, as also their brothers elsewhere, who drew their inspiration from the Holy Qur‘ân and the noble Traditions of their Prophet, were sufficiently civilized to look after the intellectual welfare of the fair sex.

1. Saying 424 in The Sayings of the Prophet Muhammad, by M. Abdul Fadl.
An attempt to trace the history of women's education to those times, though replete with interest, will, it must be acknowledged at the outset, be handicapped by the paucity of material on the subject consequent upon the observance of Purdah. Whatever scanty material is available, it lies scattered over numerous Persian sources, some of which are still inaccessible. So, a discussion based on the scanty and scattered material is bound to be perfunctory, but the rays radiating from the accounts of contemporary chroniclers may be brought into focus in such a way as to present a credible picture of female education as it was imparted in those times. To elucidate the subject, as I take it up, it is necessary to deal with it piecemeal. For this purpose I have divided it into three sections,—the first, relating to direct evidence in the matter, refers to girls' schools extant in those times; the second and the third are indirect evidences: the second is about the prevalent customs and practices bearing upon the subject incidentally, the third gives some names of Muslim ladies well

2. It was no good manners for a Muslim to refer to womanfolk in the open, and whenever a contemporary Muslim chronicler broke through this convention, it was only incidentally and in connection with some other topic.
known in the annals of Islam for their learning and erudition,—a strong evidence in itself.

I

Some of the more enlightened and cultured Kings of Muslim India, whether in the Paramount Empire of Delhi or in its dependencies, were remarkable pioneers of female education. They founded and maintained schools for girls in their kingdoms and took care to promote their interests. The Sultan of Hinawr, who was an Arab descendant, seems to have been particularly keen about the education of his female subjects. Ibn Batutah, the famous globe-trotter who visited his kingdom during his world tour, informs us that there were as many as thirteen girls' schools in his capital, and that the women of that place were pretty, chaste and knew the Holy Qur'an by heart. 3 Sultan Ghiyas-ud-Din Khilji of Malwa was also very anxious about the education of young girls. Among the fifteen thousand women of his seraglio, we are given to know for certain, were school-mistresses, musicians, women to read prayers, and persons of all professions and trades'. 4 The presence of

---


school-mistresses in the Imperial Harem testifies to the fact that the ladies in the palace were taught by them. There is also evidence on record to show that in the reign of Akbar the Great regular education was given to the ladies of the Imperial Harem, who were not less than five thousand in number. The Emperor is reputed to have established a girls’ school in his palace at Fathpur Sikri. It serves as a cogent proof of Akbar’s solicitude for the education of women.

II

I may next take up customs and practices as described by Jāfar Sharif in his Qanun-i-Islam. In this interesting book of his, the learned author has given an excellent account of the system of female education then prevalent in Muslim India. He informs us that regular girls’ schools existed in those times and further adds that there was a common practice of writing an ʿIdi,—generally a verse relating to the most celebrated Muslim festival called ʿId,—or a blessing for the girl on a

5. Smith in his ‘Fathpur Sikri’ and Havel in his ‘Hand Book to Agra and the Taj’ have given a plan of this school each. Mr. N. N. Law has reproduced it in his Promotion of Learning in India from Smith’s Fathpur Sikri.

coloured paper, known as Zarfishāni, when she commenced her studies in a maktāb. At this time she was made to read the Zarfishāni to her parents, who made rich presents to the honoured ustād in an assemblage called for the purpose. This was known as the Maktāb Ceremony. The same authority is responsible for the information that whenever a girl began a new lesson of a new book, it was customary to entertain her tutor and to offer him money presents sent by her parents. He also refers to presents given to the teacher by the parents of the girl on finishing the Holy Qur’ān—an important education in itself. On such occasions, he concludes, half holiday was granted to the whole maktāb.

These customs and practices were by no means confined to the Sultanate of Delhi or the Mughal Empire, but were in evidence far more in the provincial kingdoms, independent of the Paramount Power enthroned at the centre, or subject to it. We also know that many a Muslim widow considered it her sacred duty to impart religious education to girls and to teach them

7. The same ceremony was performed in the case of boys as well. It appears to me that boys and girls of young age were often taught together in the same schools, though there were separate schools for girls also.

to read the Holy Qur'an. There were numerous schools kept in private houses for the instruction of girls. They have survived to our own times and are commonly found in the India of to-day.\textsuperscript{9}

III

Next in the treatment of the subject is an account of some learned ladies of the times. An early instance of an educated princess is to be found in Mah Malik, also called Jalāl-ud-Dunya-ud-Dīn, the grand-daughter of Alā-ud-Dīn Jahānsoz. Minhāj-i-Sirāj, the well-known historian of the reign of Sultan Nasir-ud-Din of the Slave Dynasty and author of the \textit{Tabqāt-i-Nāsirī}, speaks highly of her erudition and says that her handwriting was like 'royal pearls'.\textsuperscript{10}

Chand Sultāna, the most favourite heroine of the Deccan and a woman of extraordinary talents, also appears to have had an excellent education. In her person were combined great natural gifts with a rare variety of accomplishments. Skilled as she was in the arts of war, she was equally accomplished in

\textsuperscript{9} History of Indigenous Education in the Punjab, by Dr. Leitner, pp 97 and 98.
\textsuperscript{10} Raverty's Translation of Minhāj-i-Siraj's \textit{Tabqāt-i-Nāsirī}, p. 392.
the arts of peace. Almost all the people of her country believed that no minstrel could play half so beautifully on the lyre or sing half so sweetly as she did. With fluency she spoke Arabic, Persian, Turkish, Kanarese and Marathi. Painting flowers was one of her favourite hobbies.  

Gulbadan Bānu Begum, the talented daughter of Emperor Bābar, is the first literary gem of the Mughal Period that we come across in this survey. It is recorded in the Ḥumāyuṇ-Nāmāh, a literary product of her own productive pen, that she possessed a vast collection of important books in a library of her own.

Salima Sultāna, the niece of Emperor Humāyuṇ, was a well-read and thoroughly accomplished princess. She was well-versed in Persia literature and was also a good poetess. She composed elegant verses under the nom-de-plume of Ṣakhfi or ‘Concealed’. Her Diwān (collection of poems) is still famous among those interested in Persian.

11. Vide Mr Beveridge’s Foreword to Mr. N. N. Law’s Promotion of Learning in India.
12. Beveridge’s Translation of Gulbadan Bānu Begum’s Ḥumāyuṇ-Nāmāh, p 76
Maham Ankhāh, the wet-nurse of Emperor Akbar, was a highly learned lady of her time. She was not only a great lover of learning, but a remarkable promoter of education as well. She was one of those who believed that the greatest service to the people is to educate them. To achieve this object, she spent a large part of her fortune and laid the foundation of a college which has already been described elsewhere.¹⁴

Nur Jahan, the celebrated wife of Emperor Jahāngir, was a woman of unique talents. To her physical beauty were wedded her mental endowments; but far more than this, she was a highly cultured lady, thoroughly versed in Arabic and Persian literature. One of her charms, with which she captivated Jahāngir, was her facility in composing extempore verses.¹⁵ That she carried on the administration of the country most efficiently even during the lifetime of her husband, reveals her deep learning and vast knowledge which had made her wise and intelligent enough to

---


comprehend and control the intricate problems of the Mughal Government.¹⁶

Mumtāz Mahal, also known as Arjamand Bānu Begum, the Lady of the Tāj and the most beloved wife of Emperor Shāh Jahān, has been handed down to posterity by the story of her powerful beauty and commanding abilities as evinced in her literary tastes. She was an adept in Persian and could compose poems in that language.¹⁷

One of the noblest examples of female scholars of repute to be found in the history of Iṣlām in India is recorded of Jahan Ara Begum, celebrated in song, biography and history as the heroic, the witty, the generous, the beautiful, and above all, the learned daughter of Shāh Jahān. It was on account of her sound education that she was elevated to the rank of the First Lady of the Realm. Be it said to her credit that she fully justified the confidence reposed in her. Her knowledge enabled her to control the Imperial Harem in every detail, to regulate the social ceremonies of the

¹⁶. See my Mughal Empire, Ch. VII; Keay's Ancient Indian Education, p. 138; History of Jahangir, by Beni Prasad, pp. 182 and 183; and A Short History of Muslim Rule in India, by Ishwari Prasad, p. 496.

Court, and to preside over the Womens’ Society of the Capital. She had a genius for poetry too; she composed her verses in Persian. She wrote her own epitaph which is characterized by profound humility and simplicity. It reads:—‘Let not any person cover my tomb with anything other than earth and grass, for they are best fitted for the graves of the poor’.\(^\text{18}\)

Zebinda Begum, the fourth daughter of Shâh Jahân, was also an educated maiden. She was a gifted poetess, who composed a volume of mystical verses which are still read and admired by the learned of the Pûnjab and Hindustân. One of the most interesting relics in Lâhore is the gateway, called Chau-burji—once the entrance to the garden of this learned princess, who, in this retreat on the bank of the Râvi, composed her mystical poems.\(^\text{19}\)

Another remarkable woman belonging to the same time is Sati-un-Nisa, a very learned lady, who, on account of her sound education and profound literary knowledge, was made the tutoress of Jâhan Ara Begum. She was well-versed

\(^{18}\) Hearn’s *Seven Cities of Delhi*, p. 116.
\(^{19}\) *Land of the Five Rivers and Sind*, by David Ross, p. 125.
in Muslim Scriptures, was a poetess of no mean merit, was equally at home in Persian literature.\textsuperscript{20}

The daughters of Emperor Aurangzeb Alâmghir were one and all learned ladies. They were taught in accordance with their father's own theory of education. Of them all, the most cultured and erudite was Zeb-un-Nisa. This remarkable princess has left us a Diwan called "Diwân-i-Mâkhî" (literally 'Concealed') and an interesting book, called Zeb-ul-Manshât after her own name. So supreme was her love for learning that a number of learned scholars used to wait upon her for assistance, which was never grudged to them. No wonder that numerous compilations and original works were dedicated to her. It was at her instance that a most extensive commentary on the Holy Qur'ân, as written by Imam Fâkhr-ud-Din Râzi, was, for the first time, translated from Arabic into Persian by Mullâh Sâfî-ud-Din Ardbeli and renamed Zeb-ut-Tafsîr after her name. The Ma'âsîr-i-Alamgiri records that she had a vast library, containing voluminous works treating of diverse subjects.\textsuperscript{21}

\textsuperscript{20.} Anecdotes of Aurangzeb and Historical Essays, by Jadunâth Sarkar, pp. 151 and 173; and Promotion of Learning in India by N. N. Law, p. 204.

\textsuperscript{21.} Ma'âsîr-i-Alamgiri (Bib. Ind.), pp. 538 ff.
These and many more learned ladies, whose names do not find place for want of space, will live long in the hagiology of this country. The view of a modern writer that "the Muslim aristocracy and royalty did not neglect to give their daughters an excellent education and training" is amply substantiated by the evidence adduced above, and we should unhesitatingly join hands with Mr. N. N. Law when he says that 'these examples must have been followed by the nobility and the higher classes of Muhammadans', thus raising the percentage of educated ladies in India to a higher level.

I must now close my inquiry into the subject after presenting as much information as I could lay my hands upon to show that the education of the gentler sex was sufficiently provided for in the Islamic times. Though their attainments, generally speaking, could not have been very high, yet considering the conditions of the country and the circumstances of the times, the results are fairly creditable, and one can confidently say that the ladies of those days were no 'mere moths of peace'.

CHAPTER XIII

TECHNICAL EDUCATION

"At a time when the west of Europe, the birthplace of modern industrial system, was inhabited by uncivilized tribes, India was famous for the wealth of her rulers and for the high artistic skill of her craftsmen. And even at a much later period, when the merchant adventurers from the west made their first appearance in India, the industrial development of the country was, at any rate, not inferior to that of the more advanced European nations." 1

—Industrial Commission.

The view expressed by the Industrial Commission in the extract quoted above is shared, supported, supplemented and substantiated by many an eminent authority on the subject, e.g., "The skill of the Indians in the production of delicate woven fabrics, in the mixing of colours, the working of metals and precious stones and in all manner of technical arts has from very early times enjoyed a world-wide celebrity." 2—Professor Weber. "Industry not only supplied all local wants but also enabled India to export its finished products to foreign countries." 3—Ranade. "It was this trade and prosperity that attracted the European traders to India. Their rivalry to secure a footing in

2. Ibid, Minute of Dissent, p. 295.
India at that time was occasioned not by the raw materials of the country but by the value and variety of her manufactures and crafts."—Professors Jathar and Beri.

The rich efflorescence of fine arts and crafts and the conspicuous progress achieved in the equipment of the people of all classes, testify a good deal to the successful cultivation of artistic, vocational and technical knowledge. There were numerous manufactories, and articles, such as fine fabrics of cotton, silk handkerchiefs, embroidered caps, painted ware, cups, basins, steel guns, knives, scissors, white paper, and gold and silver ornaments, were made at different centres to meet internal as well as external demand. The beautiful shawls of Kashmir, the costly carpets of Agra and Lahore, and the matchless muslin of Dacca, bulked largely in India's international trade. They adorned the pompous courts of the greatest Caesars of the world and were rare luxuries in those days. The fact that arts and crafts flourished prodigiously in Muslim India and provided a vast scope for the native talent, unmistakably testifies to the existence of a regular system of technical education, and

s at once a tribute to the efficiency of the artisans of India.\textsuperscript{5}

There were innumerable \textit{karkhanas}, or manufacturing centres, which provided technical training to those who evinced special interest in and aptitude for handicraft. The Public Works Department, or the \textit{Shúhrat-i-\'Ám}, as it was technically called, was maintained by the State. It looked after the workshops in which industrial education was imparted by the system of apprenticeship,\textsuperscript{6} which is still widely in vogue in India. Boys were often apprenticed with the artisans to the trade. In this way the latter secured the services of the former who, in return, received the tips about the trade from their masters, and in course of time became perfect artisans. No regular fee was charged, but a small present was frequently made to the proprietor or foreman of the shop, and in some trades a religious ceremony was also performed at the time of commencing apprenticeship. The


\textsuperscript{6} \textit{Promotion of Learning in India}, by N. N. Law, p. 117.
boys began their work at an early age. At first they were expected to undertake the ordinary duties of the shop, such as the cleaning of tools, etc. Later they began to perform the simplest operations of the trade. Though there was evidently little definite instruction, they gradually acquired skill by handling the tools and watching the workmen at their task. As soon as they made a little progress, they were given small wages which went on increasing as they became more and more efficient and useful. Finally, when their training was finished, they either went out into the world and worked independently, or secured a permanent place on the roll of their masters' shops. To the poor artisans this system had an advantage in this that their sons began to earn their livelihood at an early age and ceased to be a burden on their parents.\(^7\)

These *karkhanas* were famous for the excellence of their output. They supplied the requirements of the most luxurious courts and absorbed the greatest number of the population, next only to agriculture. Their value as technological institutes cannot be over-estimated. They were the principal centres

\(^7\) See *Imperial Gazetteer of India*, Vol. iv, p. 436.
of technical instruction or vocational training. They trained and turned out numerous artisans and craftsmen, whose immortal achievements were admired even by those who were most accustomed to the pomp of Paris. They owed their origin as well as existence to court patronage, with the withdrawal of which, however, they began to die or decay, so much so that it is extremely difficult now to appreciate their importance as technical schools or to bring out their permanent place in the economic life of the community. 8

Technical instruction also found a suitable medium in the Domestic System of Education, which has already been described. As noted before, big institutions like schools and colleges did not always make provision for instruction in arts and crafts, and hence it was that those who wished to learn them, would go to the houses of their chosen ustads (teachers), who were skilled artisans and craftsmen. But skill in arts and crafts was mostly hereditary. The father was the teacher of his sons and the mother of her daughters. It was thus that training in particular arts and crafts was popularly imparted. 9

9. See Keay's Ancient Indian Education, pp. 77-78; Indian Economics, by Jathar and Beri, Vol. I, p. 132; and
The system had its merits as well as demerits. The greatest of its merits was that it preserved the art in a particular class and ensured its efficiency. Each father brought up his sons to the same trade which he himself plied, and it was in this way that the dexterity and skill of each particular craft were handed down from one generation to another. The standard of work was kept up because the father would train his sons as best as he could in his own workshop. Not only did there exist a most cordial relation between the master father and the apprentice sons, but the training was free from all the artificiality of a school-room. The boys learnt the art by observing the movements of their father at work, imitating him and handling the tools in the same way as he did. The father on his part would, from the very nature of the case, take a real delight in the progress of his sons, and proudly pass on to them the skill he himself possessed. The worst of its defects, as an off-spring of the caste system, was that the boys had practically no choice in chalking out their future programmes in everyday life.

If arts and industries throve abundantly in Muslim India—and there is ample evidence to show that they did—it was due mainly to

*Bernier's Travels in the Moghul Empire*, (Constable) p. 259.
the imperial patronage. The remarks of a foreign traveller, who visited India during the seventeenth century, are quite in consistence with the view presented above:—

"The arts in the Indies would long ago have lost their beauty and delicacy, if the Monarch and principal Omrahs did not keep in their pay a number of artists who work in their houses, teach the children, and are stimulated to exertion by the hope of reward and the fear of the korrah. The protection afforded by powerful patrons to rich merchants and tradesmen who pay the workmen rather higher wages, tends also to preserve the arts ....".  

Those who invented new things as well as those who made important mechanical works were encouraged by liberal bonuses and munificent allowances. Some of the early Muslim Kings and almost all the Great Mughal Emperors stand out most pre-eminently as promoters of technical knowledge. To the first category fall the names of Ala-ud-Din Khilji, Firoz Shah Tughluq, Sikandar Shah Lodhi and Sher Shah Suri, all of whom endeavoured to develop the

economic resources of the country under their control by a widespread diffusion of vocational knowledge. Firoz Shāh maintained a regular department of industries under his personal supervision, and took a keen interest in the technical training of his slaves, whom he placed under the tuition of master-craftsmen in their workshops for learning different arts. There were, in all, one hundred and eighty thousand slaves at his disposal, and it is recorded to his credit that he took good care to provide for their education in various arts and crafts. We are informed by Zia-ud-Din Barni, a contemporary chronicler who is neither an apologist nor a court minion, that at one time as many as twelve thousand slaves were turned into skilled artisans and traders under his benevolent care.¹¹

While dwelling upon the abundance of work-people in India Bābar says:—

“Another convenience of Hindustān is that the workmen of every profession and trade are innumerable and without end. For any work, or any employment, there is always a set ready, to whom the same

¹¹ Vide Tārikh-i-Hindustān, by M. Zaka Ullāh Khan, Vol. II, p. 208; History of India as told by its own Historians, Elliot and Dowson, Vol. III, pp. 340-41; and Promotion of Learning in India, by N. N. Law, pp. 55 and 117.
employment and trade have descended from father to son for ages...... In Agra alone, and of stone-cutters belonging to that place only, I every day employed on my palaces six hundred and eighty persons; and in Agra, Sikri, Bīāna, Dholpur, Gwalior, and Koel (Aligarh), there were every day employed on my works one thousand four hundred and ninety-nine stone-cutters. In the same way men of every trade and occupation are numberless and without stint in Hindustān.  

Here then it must be pointed out that there could not have been such an abundance of workmen of all professions and trades in India without there being some system of technical education.

Among those who fall to the second category stand out the names of Emperor Akbar and his son, Jahāngīr, as the most conspicuous. The former, besides being an inventor himself, was a remarkable patron of arts and an eminent promoter of technical education. He organized the Public Works Department anew and himself inspected the workshops occasionally. Under his fostering care, countless curious contrivances and many mechanical works were produced. The

ingenious works, which he is said to have rewarded, 'were such as would have done credit to the artisan of the twentieth century.'

With his encouragement private schools under individual instructors multiplied, and these provided for the teaching of arts and crafts not included in the curricula of schools and colleges. Dr. V. A. Smith, on the authority of Mr. Fitch, says that during the reign of Akbar carpets and other fine textiles were manufactured at Agra and Fathpur Sikri, good cotton cloth at Patan in Gujarāt and at Burhānpur in Khandesh, and that Sunargaon was famous for its fine fabrics, 'the best and finest cloth made of cotton in all India.'

Under Jahāngir and Shāh Jahān arts and crafts, industries and commerce thrrove as never before during the Muslim Period of Indian history. This is borne out by the cumulative testimony of native historians as well as of foreign travellers, who visited India during that period. Sir Thomas Roe, the English ambassador at the Mughal Court during the reign of Jahāngir, informs

13. Shaikh Nur-ul-Haq has given a highly interesting account of the marvellous mechanical contrivances produced during the reign of Akbar the Great in his Zubdat-ul-Tawārikh, for which vide History of India as told by its own Historians, Vol. VI, p. 192.

us that manual arts were in a flourishing state and that they were not confined to those peculiar to the country. One of his presents to the Emperor was a couch. Within a very short time several other couches were constructed, and they were very superior in materials and fully equal in workmanship. Roe also offered a picture as a present to His Imperial Majesty, and not long afterwards he was presented with a number of its copies which were so faithful that he could not make out the original from amongst the copies.\textsuperscript{15} Bernier, who visited India during the reigns of Shāh Jahān and Aurangzīb, was equally impressed by the affluence of fine arts and the height of workmanship displayed in them. He says:—

"There are ingenious men in every part of the Indies. Numerous are the instances of handsome pieces of workmanship made by persons destitute of tools, and who can scarcely be said to have received instruction from a master. Sometimes they imitate so perfectly articles of European manufacture that the difference between the original and copy can hardly be discerned. Among other things, the Indians make excellent muskets, and fowling-pieces,

\textsuperscript{15} Elphinstone's \textit{History of India}, p. 489.
and such beautiful gold ornaments that it may be doubted if the exquisite workmanship of those articles can be exceeded by any European goldsmith. I have often admired the beauty, softness, and delicacy of their paintings and miniatures, and was particularly struck with the exploits of Ekbar, painted on a shield by a celebrated artist, who is said to have been seven years in completing the picture. I thought it a wonderful performance."

Speaking about the achievements of the Kashmiris in arts and crafts, he says:—

"The workmanship and beauty of their palkeys, bedsteads, trunks, inkstands, boxes, spoons, and various other things are quite remarkable, and articles of their manufacture are in use in every part of the Indies. They perfectly understand the art of varnishing, and are eminently skilful in closely imitating the beautiful veins of a certain wood, by inlaying with gold threads so delicately wrought that I never saw anything more elegant or perfect. But what may be considered peculiar to Kachemire, and the staple commodity, that which particularly promotes the trade of the

country and fills it with wealth, is the pro-
digious quantity of shawls which they manu-
ufacture, and which gives occupation even to
the little children........... 17

His account does not end here. He goes
on to describe the manufacture of shawls in
Patna, Agra and Lahore, of chintzes in
Masulipatam, of silk and cotton cloth in
Bengal and gives a somewhat graphic picture
of the karkhanas, or workshops, where the
various arts and crafts were learnt and plied:—

"Large halls are seen in many places,
called Karkanays (Karkhā-
nās) or workshops for the
artisans. In one hall embroiderers are busily
employed, superintended by a master. In
another you see the goldsmiths; in a third,
painters; in a fourth, varnishers in lacquer-
work; in a fifth, joiners, turners, tailors, and
shoemakers; in a sixth, manufacturers of silk,
brocade, and those fine muslins of which are
made turbans, girdles with golden flowers, and
drawers, worn by females, so delicately fine
as frequently to wear out in one night. This
article of dress, which lasts only a few hours,

17. Ibid., pp. 402–04. The Āin-i-Akbari also contains
a valuable information on the subject of shawl manufacture,
from which the following is an extract:—

"His Majesty (Akbar) encourages in every possible way
the manufacture of shawls in Kashmir. In Lahore also there
are more than a thousand workshops."
may cost ten or twelve crowns, and even more, when beautifully embroidered with needlework." 18

In short the whole of the Mughal Period was characterised by a high tide of artistic development, rarely equalled, but never surpassed in the whole history of this country. 19 Could this be possible without technical training or industrial education? Is it not a testimony to the existence of a widespread system of such education?

Apart from the encouragement of the ruling princes, which was no doubt the mainstay of all arts and industries, technical training received a considerable impetus by a number of private bodies. There were many trade-guilds which provided education for particular professions and trades. Sometimes the trading classes maintained their own schools for the training of their children according to their own aims and objects. 20


20. Indian Administration, by V. G. Kale, p. 432.
To-day the machine has metamorphosed the entire outlook of Indian economic life and modified its structure. Many an important centre of arts and crafts has now been wiped out, so much so that it is extremely difficult to appreciate the importance of home manufactures in those times. Knitting, spinning and weaving were learnt and plied in houses, both by men, women and children. Charkha, or the spinning-wheel, has ceased to play the rôle it has once played. Hardly was there a house which was without it, and almost every house was, so to say, a factory on a small scale, where something or the other was manufactured.  

The Titans, who dug wells, made bridges, constructed canals, erected edifices, laid out gardens, planted roads, and, in short, achieved their laurels in engineering before the era of inventions had dawned, were not imported from outside. History tells us that they were taken to different countries and employed in the construction of important

edifices. Speaking about the magnificent monuments of Samarqand and the erection of the Sangin (stone) Mosque near the Iron-Gate, Bābar says that ‘a number of stone-cutters were brought from Hindustān to work on it.’

The quality of education which the Indian workmen received must, therefore, be pronounced as of a very high order, unless we are to make the presumption that they were all born geniuses. The degree of proficiency attained by them in art can only be conjectured by the works which they have left behind. And the skill and refinement with which they designed and constructed the most marvellous monuments of the Age; the dexterity as well as the delicacy displayed in the manufacture of woollen, silken and cotton fabrics; the height of workmanship shown in the technical treatment of wood, metal and stone; the astounding technique of dress and ornaments; and the constructive exactness manifested in preparing the products of peace as well as the weapons of war,—give one a fair idea of the kind and quality of technical training and vocational knowledge imparted in those days.

CHAPTER XIV

EVOLUTION OF URDU

'I have always looked upon Urdu both as a language and as a medium of culture,—as a common heritage of both the communities (Hindus and Muslims).'


Urdu is 'a language of polite intercourse. It is a heritage to whose present-day vitality and richness both Hindus and Muslims have contributed.'

—Hon. Sir G. S. Bajpai.

During the period under review the action and reaction of some forces on one another resulted in the rise of a common language, Urdu, to trace the history of whose development forms the subject-matter of the present chapter. Both as an achievement of the then-existing system of education and on account of the rôle it has played (and will play?) as a medium of expression as well as instruction, it merits a specific mention in this book on education.¹

The origins of Urdu² as a literary language are shrouded in a thick mist. There is no direct evidence as to

1. For an exhaustive account of the subject, vide Urdu Literature, by R. B. Saksena, Āb-i-Hayāt (Urdu), by M. Muhammad Hussain Āzād; S. Khuda Bakhsh's article on 'Urdu Literature' in M. U. J. (July, 1931) pp. 11 ff.; and 'Hindustani' in Encyclopædia Britannica.

2. Urdu (lit. camp or military bazar), the name of the new language, is derived from Urdu-i-Mu'alla or Royal Military Bazar, outside the Delhi Palace, where it took its
the exact date when it first sprang into life. In fact, of course, there cannot be such date, for the formation of a language takes a long course. It is equally difficult to say when the first foundation-stone was laid. Tradition assigns this to the time of Taimūr's invasion (1398 A. C.). There are some who fix a remoter date and say that Mas'ood bin Sa'ad wrote *Rekhta* in Ur 'u in the eleventh century. Others maintain that Amir Khusrau, who flourished in the thirteenth century, composed some of his poems in Urdu, not a few of which have come down to us to testify to his having used it as his medium in poetry. Scholarly opinion subscribes to the last view. In order to avoid controversy, I may roughly say that the soil was prepared and the seeds were sown during the early Muslim period and that the harvest was


3 Formerly when *Urdu* was employed for poetry, it was known as 'Rekhta' or scattered and crumbled from the manner in which Arabic, Persian, Turkish, Hindi and Sanskrit words are scattered through it; but afterwards it was used for both poetry and prose alike. (*Vide Āb-i-Hayāt*, p. 21; and *Imperial Gazetteer of India*, Vol. i, p. 365.)

4 While Amir Khusrau, who lived in the thirteenth century of the Christian era, composed some of his poems in *Rekhta*, Chānd and Kabir, who flourished in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, freely employed Persian words in their works which are admittedly in Hindi. (*Vide 'Hindustāni' in *Encyclopædia Britannica*; *Ab-i-Hayāt*, pp. 17 ff.; and S. Khuda Bakhsh's article in *M. U. J.*, p. 11.)
reaped during the Mughal Rule and the British Raj.

As to what gave rise to the new language, it is not difficult to say. Forces such as the System of Instruction,—Hindus and Muslims studying together in the same schools without any restrictions of race, rank or religion; compulsory education in Persian; translation of Sanskrit and Hindi books into Persian; mutual exchange, adoption and incorporation of words, thoughts and ideas; Hindu-Muslim social intercourse,—combined and collectively created Urdu, which, in course of time, superseded its parents—Persian and Hindi—and became the lingua franca of Northern India.⁵

Urdu drank its inspiration from the fountain of Persian, the Latin of the East, and of Hindi, the language of the land. Being poetical, it followed the rules of Persian prosody. It borrowed its forms and conventions of diction,—Qasida or laudatory ode, Ghazal or love-song, Masnavi or narrative poem, Marsiya or dirge, Rubai or quatrain, Hajv or satire,—from Persian. Though its

---

⁵ Imperial Gazetteer of India, Vol. ii, p. 429; and Khuda Bakhsh's article in M.U.J. p. 11.
forms and conventions of diction are Persian, the diction itself, or vocabulary, is mostly Hindi. Its grammatical structure is almost entirely Hindi. Most of its verbs are Indian and a large number of nouns are of Indian origin. Its alphabet consists not only of Arabic and Persian letters, but also teems with scores of sounds foreign to Arabic and Persian but peculiar to Hindi. It can thus give correct expression to all the various sounds and accents of Arabic, Persian and Hindi, none of which can approach Urdu, at least in this respect. There are many Arabic words for which Hindi has no equivalents. Urdu, on the other hand, has, and is, like other progressive languages of the world, capable of admitting and absorbing words and terms from all other languages. In it were incorporated a large number of Arabic, Persian and even Turkish words. 'Such words, however, in no wise altered or influenced the language itself, which, as regards its inflexional and phonetic elements, remains still a pure Aryan dialect, just as pure in the pages of Wali or Sauda as it is in those of Tulsi Das or Bihari Lal.' It must as well be pointed out here that 'the Musalmans had long been accustomed to speak pure Hindi and it was not they who introduced Persian words into the language, but the Hindus themselves,' who
had begun to learn Persian and become proficient in it. Though it is long since it ceased to assimilate Arabic and Persian words and phrases, the process of assimilation has, nevertheless, continued. Urdu is now adding to its stock of words by incorporating new words and names from other languages. At present English and other European languages are enriching its vocabulary. It is adopted as a medium of instruction in two leading Muslim universities of India, viz., Jāmīa Osmānia and Jāmīa Millia, where the various arts and sciences are taught through the medium of Urdu; and it is gratifying to note that there is a growing recognition of its value and work and an increasing importance attached to it even in provinces where provincial vernaculars are the media of expression. The mistaken view that Urdu is a foreign language—a view which is certainly the outcome of an utter ignorance of the origin and evolution of the language—is fast losing ground, though recently an extensive and yet unsuccessful propaganda has been launched against it. The following passage embodies in it the opinion of a fair-minded Hindu

scholar about the origin of Urdu and its place in the culture of our country:—

"Almost every work in Indo-Persian literature contains a large number of words of Indian origin, and thousands of Persian words became naturalized in every Indian vernacular language. The mingling of Persian, Arabic and Turkish words and ideas with languages and concepts of Sanskritic origin is extremely interesting from the philological point of view, and this co-ordination of unknowns resulted in the origin of the beautiful Urdu language. That language in itself symbolized the reconciliation of the hitherto irreconcilable and mutually hostile types of civilization represented by Hinduism and Islam." 7

The Encyclopaedia Britannica also contains some information on the subject and from it the following is an extract apropos of this topic:—

"Peculiarities of composition, such as reversing the positions of the governing and the governed word (e.g., bāp mera for mera bāp), or the adjective and the substantative it qualifies, or such as the use of Persian phrases with the preposition ba instead of the Hindi postposition of the ablative case (e.g., ba

---

7. See Sir Abdul Qadir's article in J. R. S. A., 10th January, 1936.
khushi instead of khushi se, or ba hukm sarkar ke instead of sarkar ke hukm se) are no doubt to be met with in many writings, and these, perhaps, combined with the too free indulgence on the part of some authors in the use of high-flown and pedantic Persian and Arabic words in place of common and yet chaste Hindi words, and the general use of Persian instead of Nagri character have induced some to regard Hindustani or Urdu a language distinct from Hindi. But such a view betrays a radical misunderstanding of the whole question."

8. Is it not then the height of absurdity to call Urdu a foreign language? Granted that the script employed in writing Urdu is not Indian, but if everything that is not Indian is to be discarded, then not only the Urdu script but numerous other things of outside extraction, which have gone far in the making of India, and with them the Hindi script too, will have to be discarded. If the outside invention of script is a disqualification in the case of Urdu, it is equally so in the case of Hindi, for the Devnagri script too is generally admitted not to be of indigenous invention. 9

8. See 'Hindustani' in Encyclopædia Britannica.
9. Ibid.
Curiously enough, the provenance of Urdu poetry was the Deccan. The first spur which it received was given not by Delhi, as may be expected, but by the Muslim Courts of Bijāpur and Golconda, whose rulers were its great exponents. Themselves poets of remarkable ability and distinction, they relished Urdu poetry, which made marvellous progress under their patronage. They had at their courts such prominent poets as Ibn Nīshātī and Nusrat, who are justly held as ‘the heralds and pioneers’ of Urdu poetry.10

Born in the Deccan towards the close of the sixteenth century, Urdu poetry received a definite standard of form, a century later, at the hands of Wali,11 significantly called ‘the father of Rekhta’. It is to him that Urdu poetry owes its introduction into Northern India. His example was followed at Delhi, where a new school of poets sprang up. Of

10. For the lives and works of these and numerous other poets and scholars, vide Urdu Literature, by R. B. Saksena; Āb-i-Hayūt, by M. Muhammad Hussain Azād; and ‘Hindustani’ in Encyclopædia Britannica.

11. Shams Wali Allāh, commonly known as Wali, was a resident of Aurangābād and a contemporary and townsmen of Sirāj, who too was a great scholar and poet. Wali has left a Diwān, which, when first appeared at Delhi, set the whole literary city ablaze. (Vide Āb-i-Hayūt and Khuda Bakhsh’s article in M. U. J. (July, 1931), p. 13).
this school, the most distinguished members were Hātim, Nāji, Mazmūn, Abrū, Khān Ārzū, Sauda, Mir Taqi, Zauq and Ghālib. It was in the last quarter of the nineteenth century that the last-named realized the limitations of Ghazal and the shortcomings of Urdu poetry, but it fell to the share of his promising pupil, Iltāf Hussain Hāli, who inaugurated the reform that was so urgently required.\(^\text{12}\)

About the middle of the eighteenth century the literary centre of gravity shifted from Delhi to Lucknow, where a new school of poets came into being. "There", says S. Khuda Bakhsh, "Urdu poetry put forth fresh blossom and bloom." Ārzū, Sauda and Mir made it their home. Their efforts in raising the poetical prestige of Lucknow were seconded and reinforced by those of Mir Hassan, Mir Anis, Mirza Dabir, Mir Soz and many others. Among the later poets of renown belonging to the Lucknow School, Ātish and Nāsīkh hold a high place. Mir Anis and Mirza Dabir, it may be mentioned here, made a departure from the ordinary style of Urdu poetry and

---

12. Āb-i-Hayāt, pp. 88 ff.; Sir Abdul Qadir’s article in J. R. S. A., 10th January, 1936; and Khuda Bakhsh’s article in M. U. J. (July, 1931), pp. 13 and 14. For the lives and literature of these poets and others, see Urdu Literature, by R. B. Saksena; Āb-i-Hayāt, by M. Muhammad Hussain Āzād; and 'Hindustani' in Encyclopædia Britannica.
greatly polished and refined the Urdu language. They composed *marsiyas*, or elegies on the martyrdom of Imām Hussain, the grandson of the Prophet of Islām, and vastly enriched the store of Urdu literature and made it popular in the country. Their style has been very effectively employed by Munshi Jawāla Pershād 'Bārq' and Pandit Brij Narān 'Chakbast', who are well-known in Hindu as well as Muslim literary circles.

This brief account of the Lucknow School will not be complete without a short reference to the late Pandit Ratan Nath Sarshār, who holds a unique position among the writers of Urdu prose. He was a great writer of fiction and his *Fasāna-i-Āzād* is one of the master-pieces of Urdu literature. In this beautiful book of his, he has beautifully mirrored the life of the rich and the poor in Lucknow. Besides this book of great bulk and beauty, he wrote many others which are noted for his treatment and style.\(^{13}\)

I pass on to Rāmpur, which after the decline of the Lucknow School of Poets, became the nucleus of poetical eminence, capable of expansion

\(^{13}\) Sir Abdul Qadir's article in *J. R. S. A.*, 10th January, 1936; and Khuda Bakhsh's article in *M. U. J.* (July, 1931), p, 45.
and assimilation. It was there that the former two schools of poetry were merged into one. There they met to revise and modify their poetical standard and to make necessary improvements. Artificiality, verbosity and extravagance were ruled out; archaic expressions and verbal inaccuracies were done away with; unnecessary ornamentation and the use of exuberant phrases were put an end to. Simplicity, fidelity to life and naturalness became their watchwords. Of this wholesome scheme, Dagh was the principal exponent.¹⁴

Patna, the El Dorado of learning, has retained its ‘challenging greatness’ throughout its existence, despite its fluctuating fortune. In the reign of Emperor Alamgir, it supplied the Delhi Princes with a distinguished teacher in the person of Mirza Bedil, who has been rightly called her ‘literary crown’ on account of his learning and scholarship. Among other poets of the Patna School, Fitrat and Rasikh stand out pre-eminent.¹⁵

I can infinitely add to the list of poets and their productions; but, for want of space, I am

---

¹⁵. Ibid., pp. 16 and 17.
constrained to pass on to the development of Urdu prose. A beginning was made in A. C. 1781, when the Madrasah of Fort William was founded at Calcutta and oriental scholars of eminence were invited from all over the country to prepare Urdu text-books for Government officials. Momentous as this step was, equally far-reaching were its consequences. The introduction of lithography in 1832 A. C. put vernacular books at the disposal of the educated at extremely low prices. Again the replacement of Persian by Urdu as the official language of the Court in 1832 A. C.; the establishment of a vernacular press, despite its vacillating freedom; and the introduction and popularization of western light and liberalism,—have all contributed very materially to our language by enriching its vocabulary and broadening its outlook on life and letters. Furthermore, such remarkable institutions as the Anjuman-i-Taraqqi-i-Urdu with its head-quarters at Aurangabad, the Translation Bureau of the Osmania University at Hyderabad Deccan, the Dar-ul-Musannifin at Azamgarh, the Madrasat-ul-Waizin at Lucknow, and the Jamiia Millia at Delhi, have been rendering valuable services and are indispensable for the life and literature of our language. Other similar institutions are nascent, but unanimously supported, they will
become a great asset to the language.\textsuperscript{16}

I am not out to make a case for Urdu in this book, but as a well-wisher of India and a son of the soil, I must take this opportunity of drawing the attention of our educationists to the necessity for a \textit{lingua franca} and of suggesting a language which would best serve the purpose. Urdu, as we have seen, is Indian, quite as much as the Indian Musalmāns themselves. It had its birth not in Arabia, Irān or Afghānistān, but in India, in the intermingling of races and the resultant intermixture of languages, in the action and reaction of two civilizations on each other. The share of Hindi and Hindus in the making of Urdu is, as we have seen, not less than that of Persian and Musalmāns. But for the difference of script, the spoken Hindi and the spoken Urdu are the same.\textsuperscript{17} The question that confronts us here is: which of the two scripts—Urdu and Devnāgri—should be adopted in writing? It is not difficult to chose between the two. The script employed in writing Urdu has been the script of the Court language for centuries. The Mughals, the Sikhs and the British kept it on without discouraging or discarding it. Even at present it is employed

\textsuperscript{16} \textit{Ibid.}, p. 21.

\textsuperscript{17} See ‘Hindustani’ in \textit{Encyclopædia Britannica}. 
in the governments of some of the provinces of this country. Again, the script used in a huge bulk of the periodical literature of the Hindus and others is neither Hindi nor any other, but Urdu, which shows that the Urdu script is most widely used in India. Its widespread prevalence and popularity indicate that it is indispensable. Moreover, unlike Devnāgri, which is confined to a limited number of the population of India, the Urdu script is common to many other countries of Asia and is apt to bring India nearer to other nations of the world if it is universally adopted. When such is the case, why not join hands and make Urdu our lingua franca,¹⁸ for is it not a common heritage of both Hindus and Muslims? Is it not a living link between them? Call it Hindustāni, the language of Hindustān, if the word ‘Urdu’ is Turkish and hence repugnant. This, however, does not mean that I would discourage or disparage provincial vernaculars, or allow them to be replaced by Urdu, or even encourage

¹⁸. This view is shared and supported by no less a statesman and scholar than the Rt. Hon. Dr. Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru, who while expressing his inability to preside over a recent Mushāira held at Simla, said:—

"It is, however, a deep conviction with me that the only bond which can unite one section of the community with the other is a common culture and possibly also common economic interest. I am afraid in the circumstances in which we are placed we cannot look to any other bond. It has, therefore, been a matter of great regret to me that
E VOLUTION O F U R D U

Urdu at their cost. My point is that there must be one all-India language, capable of uniting all the peoples and provinces of India, and that Urdu (or Hindustāni, as some would prefer to call it) can best serve this purpose, because at present it enjoys greater vogue than any other language of India. Let the provincial vernaculars develop in their own provinces and contribute what they can to the common cause of Indian culture and nationalism. Make them *media* of expression and instruction in their own provinces if they are most widely spoken and understood there; but at the same time, make Urdu (or Hindustāni) a second language where it is not the general medium of expression and instruction. This will unite India linguistically, and once linguistic unification is accomplished, unification in other directions will follow.

specially in Northern India, by which I mean the Punjab and the United Provinces, we should have been dissipating our energies in pursuing divergent lines of progress. I do not look and have never looked upon Urdu being peculiarly Muslim or a peculiarly Hindu language. I have always looked upon Urdu both as a language and a medium of culture, as a common heritage of both the communities. I am old enough to remember the times when both Hindus and Muhammadans were devoted to this culture and indulged in mutual but generous rivalries. But old times are changed and old manners gone.” 

*(Tribune, dated 4th October, 1935.)*

The Hon ble Sir Girja Shankar Bajpai, Education Member to the Government of India, also stressed this point while delivering the Convocation Address of the Aligarh Muslim University, for which *vide Eastern Times. dated 10th November, 1935*. 
Enough, I hope, has been recorded to convey to the reader a clear and correct idea about the origin of Urdu and its development,—enough to dispel doubts about it, to demonstrate its beauty and to illustrate its importance in the existing atmosphere. It is highly gratifying to find that it has found friends in the camps of both the communities—Muslims as well as Hindus; and there is no doubt that under the influence and guidance of such distinguished scholars and statesmen as the Rt. Hon. Dr. Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru, the Hon. Sir Girja Shankar Bajpai, the Rt. Hon. Sir Akbar Hyderi and the Hon. Sir Abdul Qadir it will receive the recognition which it so richly deserves in the educational system of our country.
CHAPTER XV
RETROSPECT
GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

There is no doubt that principal educational institutions were schools and colleges, as must have become clear from the preceding account; but it will be wrong to suppose that all that educational advance which characterized the Muslim Period was entirely due to them, for there were other institutions which too had much to do with the same work. No book on Education in Muslim India can ever claim to be complete without a short account of each of them. While summing up the subject, it seems necessary to deal with them in brief and to bring out their permanent place in the life of the people.

"The libraries which came into existence in India as a result of the love of learning of many of its Muslim rulers were", says Sir Abdul Qadir, "a great help to the cause of learning. It was not only kings and princes who collected rich stores of literature for then enlightenment, but noblemen of all classes vied with one another in owning such collections." Often these libraries
were availed of by persons other than their owners, and at times they were thrown open to the public in general. It may, moreover, be noted that ‘in those days every well-to-do lover of books had enough for his requirements in his own house’ and that ‘people also used to borrow books from one another and prepared copies of them for their own collections.’ Most of this literary wealth was destroyed during the Mutiny of 1857 but the remnants are still in existence and are the proud possession of some ancient families and Indian Princes, who have carefully treasured them as their heirlooms. Some of them, when escaped, found their way westward and are to be seen in some of the libraries of Europe. They include some of those manuscripts which bear the seals and signatures of Muslim Emperors and noblemen who owned them. “They furnish,” says Sir Abdul Qadir, “a silent but eloquent testimony to the culture of days gone by when in the absence of modern facilities for the propagation of literature and the multiplication of books human patience endured great hardships to preserve for posterity the best thoughts of the learned men of antiquity.”

1. The Hon’ble Sir Abdul Qadir has contributed a highly interesting article on ‘The Cultural Influences of Islam
Like libraries, literary societies also were founded in India during the Muslim Period. Here again the lead was given by the Royal House and was followed by the nobility and other classes with such zeal that, as noted before, there sprang up numerous other similar societies in different parts of Muslim India and became a valuable aid to education in general.\(^2\)

Another important institution, which was popularized in India by the Musalmāns and to which a short reference has already been made in the Introductory Chapter, is known as mushāira, which means a symposium or poetical contest. mushāirās were frequently convened and poets from different parts of the country joined together with their poetical compositions and recited them in the presence of large gatherings amidst loud applauses and expressions of approbation, such as Khūb, Marhaba and Muqarrar. A mushāira always afforded a pleasure and pastime, and had great educative value and moral effect. “This institution, though not enjoying the vogue which it did in the days gone by, is,” according to Sir Abdul Qadir, “still fairly popular

\(^{in\;India}\) to J. R. S. A., 10th January, 1936, to which I am indebted for the above information

\(^2\) See pp. 42 and 43 of this book.
and often brings together people of different classes and communities, who manage to forget their differences for the time being, in their admiration for a common literature.'

Education was diffused not only through these institutions, but also through mosques which were founded by both kings and others, and monasteries which were started by the heads of religious orders and other pious persons, throughout the length and breadth of the Muslim Empire. Many of the mosques and monasteries which are to be seen all over India were founded and endowed during the Muslim Period. They have continued to our own times, because, from the very nature of their being the places of divine worship, they were permanent—at least more permanent than purely educational institutions, such as schools and colleges. It is not, therefore, too much to say that they immensely added to the volume of work done in the domain of education by maktabs and madrasahs, libraries and literary societies. It may also be noted that they were numerous—too numerous to be enumerated here in the short space at my disposal, for the subject is very vast and requires a

separate volume to itself. I am, therefore, constrained to close this phase of my inquiry into the subject with the remark that they played a prominent part in the propagation of Muslim culture and erudition under the influence of such saints and scholars as Shaikh Ali Hajveri (famous as Dāta Sāhib), Sayyad Hussain Zanjāni, Khwājah Mu'in-ud-Din Chisti, Hazrat Māhbūb-i-Ilāhi, Bāwa Farid Ganj Shakar, Khwāja Bahā-ud-Din Multāni and Hazrat Mujaddad Alī Sānī, who were loved and respected by all for the simplicity of their lives, the purity of their thoughts and the divinity of their ideals.4

While maktabs and madrasahs, libraries and literary societies, mushā-irās and other literary institutions diffused only cultural education, technical training was imparted in karkhānas, or workshops, which were scattered all over the country and had the support of the State as well as private individuals. So superior was the training given in them through the system of apprenticeship that Indian artisans

and craftsmen became proverbial for their skill and workmanship.

Pressed further home, the meaning conveyed in the above account resolves itself into this that education,—both cultural and technical,—was a systematic affair in the best periods of Muslim ascendancy, though it did fall into decay during the days of anarchy and confusion. Such educational richness must necessarily present a large selection of ideas to the modern educationist in the educational reconstruction of to-day. Discipline and devotion to learning; social life which fosters fellow-feelings and strengthens the bonds of brotherhood; comprehensive curricula, with a suitable standard of class work; spiritual atmosphere in schools and colleges, with an intellectual flame capable of kindling the moral emotions and the inner-nature of the student; 'a broad humanism', in which general knowledge, i.e., knowledge of all the important affairs of the world, occupies a most important place; co-ordination of education imparted with the profession to be followed in after-life; the injunction that 'no one should be allowed

to neglect those things which the present time requires'; the principle that the poor should be educated free and the doors of all educational institutions should be flung wide open to all indiscriminately; and that education is a preparation for life and for life after death,—are some of the special features of the Muslim System of Education, which, to my mind, are the essential ingredients of good liberal education, but which are, unfortunately, woefully wanting in the Modern System of Education. Regarded as ideals of education, they are a most valuable contribution to Indian educational thought and practice, and their importance lies in the fact that they produced great scholars, savants and seekers after truth, whose output on the intellectual side has few parallels in the whole history of Indian education.

The panacea for all the ailments from which India is suffering is education and it is for her

Some Suggestions.

6. It may be pointed out here that no tuition fee was charged in the schools and colleges founded and maintained by the State during the Muslim Period. Often students were provided with board and lodging free and it is in this sense that the phrase 'free education' has been used.

7. Some of the indictments drawn against the Modern System of Education are:—

"....It implies that the schools have no spiritual life which touches the boy's inner nature no corporate unit which appeals to and can sustain his affectionate loyalty, no
educationists to rise to the height of the occasion. It is for them to detect the defects and to apply their remedies, to lead the stream of learning to the seemingly barren but otherwise fertile fields of illiteracy, to irrigate the lifeless minds of the masses through the channel of their own mother-tongue, and to galvanize them into a life of efflorescence by their indefatigable efforts and industry. The growing desire for education and the pressing demand for reform are highly hopeful signs, indicating that the soil is quite prepared and only the seeds are to be sown. So there is no reason why the present system of education should not prove profitable if it is reconstructed on the foundation of the principles and practices of the past, enriched with the experiences of later times. In other words, a moral or intellectual flame which may kindle his emotions.” It “is soul-destroying” It “does not equip those who undergo it for citizenship.” It “is top-heavy.” Dr. Tagore describes the present system of education as a ‘two-storied structure without a staircase’ and deplores the lack of inter-communication between the upper and lower stories. He recommends vernaculars as media of instruction and remarks that ‘mother-tongue is to a student what mother’s milk is to a baby.’ The Calcutta University Commission pointed out some of the worst defects and drawbacks of the Modern System of Education and suggested their remedies. Unfortunately, however, their recommendations fell through and their proposals were turned down for one reason or the other. (For the extracts quoted above, vide India, 1919, pp. 136 ff.; India, 1920, pp. 170 ff., and pp. 29-30 f. n. 11 of this book).
systematic study of Asiatic cultures is as essential for a complete education for life as the study of western arts and sciences, and the one should not be pursued to the exclusion of the other. The vast stores of Arabic and Sanskrit, Persian and Pāli must be explored and the richest treasures of thought and literature contained in English and other Western languages must be exploited. In their combination lies the secret of success. The synthesis of the different cultures of the country and the encouragement of such educational institutions as the Jāmīa Millīa and the Shāntiniketan, which stand for such synthesis and in which ancient traditional practice is combined with the most modern scientific thought; the division of the country into linguistic units and the establishment of an independent university in each, with its own language as the medium of instruction, will go a long way in solving the present-day problems of our country. But this presupposes the preparation of text-books in different vernaculars, because the existing vernacular literature is very meagre and the heavy structure of a responsible university cannot be raised on such flimsy materials. For this reason books on various arts and sciences, books on citizenship, civic rights, and other similar subjects, will have to be written and
translated from other languages and put within the reach of students. It is on such a foundation that Japan has constructed its towering educational edifice. We may imitate Japan, or nearer home, the lead given by the Osmānia University in this respect may be followed with advantage. Translation bureaus of the type of one at the Osmānia University may be established and the task of translating books into vernaculars may be taken in hand. The greatest service that can be rendered to India at present is to impart education to her ignorant masses and to enable them thereby to enjoy the gifts of life in a wholesome measure. It is high time that the Indian educationists should address themselves earnestly to this task and those in power and position should help them in accomplishing it. The vernacularization recommended above is full of beneficial results, but it is apprehended that it may add energy to the increasing provincialism. To counteract this as well as to nip the growth of provincialism in the bud, it is necessary to chose an all-India medium of expression and to make it a second language in every university thus established. The curriculum should be recast and care must be taken to

8. *I.e.* provincialism as a barrier to national unity.
make it as comprehensive and catholic as possible. Literary education should be combined with religious instruction and facilities must also be provided for technical training and vocational knowledge. Having imparted elementary knowledge to the student, he should be allowed to have his own choice in the selection of his subjects of study. No subject should be forcibly thrust on any student, but at the same time 'none should be allowed to neglect those things which the present time requires'. Finally, failing a return to the old Indian System, 'the soul-destroying system of examination', which hypnotizes the Indian mind so much, must be mended so as to make it simple and free

9. It is generally admitted that 'Indians still possess great capacity and great genius', but they require education and encouragement. Highly appreciating 'the patronage by the Moghal Emperors of the arts and crafts of the people over whom they ruled', and commending 'to those in high places in India to follow the example which the Moghal Emperors have set them in this respect', Lord Zetland observed at a meeting of the Royal Society of Arts: 'There is an ample store of artistic genius still to be found in India, and it only requires the patronage of the ruling princes of the States (who are indeed great patrons) and the leading residents of British India, to bring that genius once more to fruition' (Vide J. R. S. A., 10th January, 1936, pp. 240-41.)

10. I am opposed to the abolition of examinations, as desired by many, and am of opinion that as a test of efficiency they are necessary. (Those interested in the subject will find some useful information in An Examination of Examinations by Sir Philip Hartog and Dr. E.C. Rhodes; and Systems of Examinations, by Dr. Zia-ud-Din Ahmad.)
from the element of uncertainty which dominates it. "Let us watch scientifically what is going on," says Sir Michael Sadler "record what we find and analyse the water that is flowing under the buildings of education. It is the water of human life. Scientific enquiry and report is what the present state of affairs requires." Sir Sadler is right, but mere enquiries and reports will not do; something practical must be done. By careful investigation and systematic experiment, suitable methods must be devised for making the examination a test of ability and intelligence rather than of cramming capacity, which is the case at present. Better means must be adopted for valuing the worth of answer-books and assessing their excellence—means which must be less liable to the distressing doubts and appalling uncertainties of the present system. The individual examiner must be made as infallible in his task as possible; and efforts must be made to eliminate, or at least to minimize, the element of chance. In short, the virtues of the old Indian System must be revived and from their matrix a new system of examination must be carved in the mould of the most modern scientific thought.

END
BIBLIOGRAPHY

Ab-i-Hayāt, M. Muhammad Hussain Azād (Urdu).
Āin-i-Akbari, Abul Fazal (Persian, B.I.S.).
Āin-i-Akbari, translation, Blochmann and Jarret;—
Gladwin.
Akbarnamāh, Abul Fazal (Persian, N. K. T.).
Akbarnamāh, translation, H. Beveridge.
Akbar the Great Mughal, V. A. Smith.
Ālamgirnāmāh, Maulvi Munshi Muhammad Kāzim
(Persian B. I. S.).
Alberuni's India, translation, Sachau.
Āmīl-i-Sāleh or Shāh Jahān Nāmāh, Mohammad Sāleh
Kambo (Persian, B. I. S.).
Anecdotes of Aurangzeb and Historical Essays, J N. Sarkar.
Annals and Antiquities of Rajasthan, Col. James Tod.
Archaeological Survey of Eastern India, Burgess.
Archaeological Survey of India, Fuhrer.
Archaeology of Delhi, Carr Stephen.
Architecture at Bijapur, Fergusson.
Architecture at Fathpur Sikri, V. A Smith.
Aryan Rule in India, The History of, E. B. Havell.
Āsār-us-Sanādīd, Sir Sayyad Ahmad Khan (Urdu).
Aurangzeb, Stanley-Lane-Poole.
Aurangzeb, Maulāna Shibli No'mān (Urdu).
Aurangzeb, M. Elphinstone, edited by Sri Ram Sharma.
Babar, Stanley Lane-Poole.
Būdshāhnāmāh, Abdul Hamid Lāhorī (Persian).
BIBLIOGRAPHY

Brief History of the Indian Peoples, A, W. W. Hunter.
Chronicles of the Pathan Kings of Delhi, The, E. Thomas.
Comparative Grammar of the Modern Aryan Languages, Beames.
Darbār-i-Akbari, M. Muḥammad Hussain Āzād (Urdu).
Delhi Past and Present, Fanshawe.
Emperor Akbar, Von Noer, translation, A. S. Beveridge
Essays on Indian Economics, Ranade.
Fatūḥāt-i-Fīroz Shāhī, Fīroz Shāh Tughluq (Persian).
From Akbar to Aurangzehb, W. H. Moreland.
Hand-Book to Agra and the Taj, E. B. Havell.
Hindustān in Miniature, Shoberl.
History of Bengali Literature, Dinesh Chandra Sen.
History of Arabic Literature, Huart.
History of Bengal, Stewart.
History of Jahangir, Beni Prasad.
History of India, A, E. W. Thomson.
History of India, Meadows Taylor.
History of India as told by its own Historians, The, (in six volumes), Elliot and Dowson.
History of India, H. G. Keene.
History of Indigenous Education in the Punjab, Dr. Leitner.
History of Mediæval India, Ishwari Prasad.
History of the Great Mughals, Kennedy.
History of the Mughal Dynasty, Catrou, Aryan Bannerji.
History of the Punjab, Latif.
History of Shah Jahan of Delhi, B. P. Saksena.
Humāyūn-Nāmāh, Gulbadan Bānū Begum (Persian).
Imperial Gazetteer of India, W.W. Hunter.
India, Impressions and Suggestions, J. H. Hardie.
India and Her People, Swami Abhedananda.
India at the death of Akbar, W. H. Moreland.
Indian Economics, Jathar and Beri.
Iqbałnāmāh, Itimād-ud-Daulah. (Persian, B. I. S.).
Jāma-ut-Twārikh, Faqir Muhammad (Persian).
Journals of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.
Journals of the Royal Asiatic Society.
Journals of the Royal Society of Arts.
Land of the Five Rivers and Sindh, David Ross
Literary History of Persia, E. G. Brown.
Life and Times of Sultan Mahmud of Ghaznin, M. Kazim.
Ma‘āṣir-i-Ruhimi, Mullah Abdul Baqi (Persian B. I. S.).
Ma‘āṣir-i-Alamgiri, (Persian B. I. S.).
Madāris wa Dār-ul-Ulūm, Maulāna Shibli No‘māni.
Malfuzāt-i-Taimūr, Taimūr, translation, Stewart.
Medieval India, The, S. M. Jaffar.
Medieval India, Stanley-Lane-Poole.
Memoirs of Babar, translation, Erskine.
Mughal Empire, Fall of the, Keene.
Mughal Empire, S. M. Jaffar.
Mughal Kingship and Nobility, Ram Prasad Khosla.
Muntakhib-ut-Twārikh, translation, Ranking ;—Lowe.
Muslim University Journals.
Oriental Biographical Dictionary, Beale.
Oxford History of India, V. A. Smith.
Promotion of Learning in India, N. N. Law.
Qānūn-i-Islām, Jāfar Sharif (Persian).
Salātin-i-Bahmani, Maulāna Shibli No'māni (Udu).
Sayings of the Prophet Mohammad, M. Abul Fadl.
Seven Cities of Delhi, Hearn.
Shīr-ul-Ajam, Maulāna Shibli No'māni (Urdu).
Short History of Muslim Rule in India, A, Ishwari Prasad.
Short History of the Saracens, A, Syed Amir Ali
Siyyar-ul-Mutaakhkhīrin, S. Ghulam Hussān (Persian).
Some Cultural Aspects of Muslim Rule in India, S.M. Jaffar.
Splendour that was Ind., The, K. T. Shah.
Storia do Mogor, Niccolao Munucci.
Sultān Māhmūd of Ghaznīn, Muhammad Habib.
Tabqāt-i-Akbāri, Nizām-ud-Dīn Ahmad (Persian).
Tabqāt-i-Nāsiri, Minhāj-i-Sirāj (Persian).
Tārikh-i-Ferishta, translation, Briggs.
Tārikh-i-Ferishta, (Urdu, N. K. T.).
Tārikh-i-Firuz Shāhī, Zia-ud-Dīn Barni (Persian).
Tārikh-i-Hindustān (in ten volumes), M. Zaka-Ullah (Urdu).
Tārikh-i-Rashīd, Mirza Muhammad Haidar Dughlat translation, Ross and Elias.
Tārikh-i-Shir Shāhī, Abbas Khān (Persian).
Tazkira-i-Ullāma, M. Muhammad Hussain Azād (Urdu).
Tazkirat-ul-Ullama, translation Sama Ullah Khan.
Tazkīrat-us-Sultān-i-Chaghtāta, Kāmwar Khān (Persian).
Travels of Ibn Batūtā, translation, H. A. R. Gibb.
Tazkīrat-tā Bābar, Bābar (Persian).
Tazkīrat-Jahangīrī, Jahāngir (Persian).
Urdu Literature, R. B. Sakhausen.
Voyages d' Ibn Batūtāh, translation, Defremery.
Waqqāt-ul-Alangir, Ch. Nabi Ahmad Sandelvi (Urdu).
Waqqāt-i-Jahangīrī, translation, Major Price.
Waqqāt-i-Dīr-ul-Hukūmat Dehli, M. Bashir-ud-Dīn Ahmad (Urdu).
Waqqāt-i-Mamlikat-ul-Bījāpur, M. Bashir-ud-Dīn Ahmad.
Zia-ud-Dīn Barni, by S. H. Barna (Urdu), etc., etc.
INDEX

[Abbreviations. — M.=Maulāna, P.=Prīnce, Q.=Qāzi, S.=Sayyad, and Sh.=Shaikh.]

A
Abdul Aziz, 102
Abdul Hakim, Mir, 138
Abdul Hakim Siālkoṭī, 96
Abdul Haq Dehlawi, 92
Abdul Hassan Kamboon, Sh., 80
Abdul Karīm, 102
Abdullāh, 102
Abdullāh of Barbhūm, 143
Abdullāh, Maulvi, 138
Abdullāh Makhdūm-ul-Mulk, 165
Abdullāh Qutb Shāh, 73
Abdullāh Sultānpuri, Sh., 80
Abdul Latif, Mir, 79, 165, 167
Abdul Qādir, Q., 49
Abdul Qādir Badāoni, 81, 83, 84, 147, 148, 166
Abdul Wāhid Khānābādī, 143
Abdun-Nabi, Sh., 165
Abdur Rahīm, Mirza, 174
Abdur Rahīm Khān-i-Khānān, 81, 84, 156
Abdur Rāhmān Jāmī, M., 61, 120, 121, 122
Abdur Rāhmān of Sīkri, Miyān, 54

Àbrū, 223
Abul Faiz (Faiz), 81, 85, 148, 171-74
Abul Fateh, 84
Abul Fazal, Allāma, 20, 81, 83, 88, 148, 169, 171, 174
Accounts, 13, 21, 22, 88
Adab-ul-Murīd, 119
Afghanistān, 18, 38, 227
Agra, 18, 57, 58, 81, 99, 133, 148, 200, 207-8
Agriculture, 21, 22, 38
Ahadith, 1, 2
Ahmadābād, 71, 100, 101, 138, 143
Ahmadnagar, 72
Ahmad Shāh, P., 119, 120
Ahmad Shāh, Sultān of Gujarat, 71
Ahmad Tḥahāh, Mullāh, 84
Ain-i-Akbarī, 81, 83
Ajālī, S., 109
Ajmere, 19, 38
Ajmeri Gate, 140
Akbar, the Great Mughal, 19, 20, 29, 80 ff., 147, 164 ff., 181, 190, 194, 207-8
Akbar-Nāmāh, 83
Akram-ud-Dīn, 138
<p>| Alāi Darwāza, 46                     | Aqāid-i-Akbari, 120                  |
| 'Alamgir, see Aurangzeb             | Arabia, 227                          |
| Alā-ud-Din Jahanoz, 192              | Arabic, 15,20,34,51,184,218          |
| Alā-ud-Dins Khilji, Sultān, 19,45 ff., 108-9,205 | Arithmetic, 21,22,88                |
| Alā-ud-Din Kark, M., 111             | Arjamand Bānu Begum, See Mumtāz Mahal |
| Alā-ud-Din Māqri, 110                | Art of administration, 21,22,28      |
| Alā-ud-Din Sadr-ul-Shariah, M., 111   | Arts and crafts, 22,199 ff.          |
| Alā-ud-Din Salori, M., 111            | Arthāshāstrās, 22                    |
| Alā-ud-Din Tājar, M., 111             | Asām-ud-Din, Mullāh, 65              |
| Algebra, 21                           | Asārī Mahal, 73                      |
| Ali, Jajjar, 109                      | Aṣmār-ul-Asar, 119                   |
| Ali Ahmad, M., 62                     | Asthipura, 67                        |
| Ali Hajveri, Sh., 234                 | Astronomy, 21,88                     |
| Alim-ud-Din, Maulvi, 141              | Asvamedha Parva, 70                  |
| Alim-ud-Din, M., 110                  | Atābaks, 161                         |
| Alim-ud-Din Anandāpati, M., 49        | Atāliqs, 161,165,167                 |
| Al-Kalleyyeh, 7                       | Atharvaveda, 84                      |
| Allāhabād, 40                         | Ātish, 223                           |
| Allāhdād Jaunpuri, Sh., 62            | Aurangābād, 226                      |
| Altamash, Slave King, 40              | Aurangzeb, 74,99 ff., 126,138,39,175 ff., 197,225 |
| Ambar, 142                            | Āzād-ud-Din, M., 160                 |
| Amin Qazwini, 96                      | Āzamgarh, 226                        |
| Amir Arslān, 44,110                   | Aziz-ud-Din, M., 165                 |
| Amir Hassan, 42,46,110                | Aziz-ud-Din Khalid Khāni, 49         |
| Amir Khusrau, 40,42,43,45 ff., 159    | Aziz-ullah of Sambhal, Miyān, 54     |
| Amir Kohāni, 40                       | B                                   |
| Anjuman-i-Taraqqi-i-Urdu, 226         | Bābar, first Mughal Emperor, 76 ff., 115,116,163,193,206 |
| Anwari, 147                           | Badāon, 53                           |
| Apprenticeship, 12,13,201, 202,234    | Badi-o-Bayān, 111                    |
|                                         | Badr-ud-Din 'Arif, Sh., 42          |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Badr-ud-Din Damishqi, M.</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bādshāhnāmāh</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baghdād</td>
<td>3,64,113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahādur Shāh I, Mughal Emperor</td>
<td>102,103,140-42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahādur Shah II, Mughal Emperor</td>
<td>102,103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahā-ud-Din</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahā-ud-Din Multāni, Khwājah</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahlol Lodhi, Sultān</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahmanid Kingdom</td>
<td>72,120 ff., 162-63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bairam Khān</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bakhṭiyār, lieutenant of Sultān Ghiyās-ud-Din Ghori</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balban, Slave King</td>
<td>41 ff., 108,159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balwant-Nāmāh</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banda Nawāz Gesū Darāz</td>
<td>119-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barbhūm</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bāwa Farid Gang Shakar</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bāyazid, M.</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bāz Bahādur, King of Mālwa</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bedil, Mirza</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belles lettres</td>
<td>8,55, 110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benāres</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bengāl</td>
<td>66, ff., 129,150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bengāli literature</td>
<td>68,129,130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bernier</td>
<td>96-98, 101,177,180 ff.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhagvata Gīta</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhagvata Purāṇa</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biānāh</td>
<td>109,138,207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bibi Raji</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bidār</td>
<td>72,121,126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bihāri Lāl</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bijāpur</td>
<td>72,74,222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bismillāh Khāni</td>
<td>152-53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bohrās of Gujarāt</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bokhāra</td>
<td>18, 113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brāhmins</td>
<td>13, ff., 129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brij Narāin Chakbust, Pandit</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Būrhanpur</td>
<td>208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Būrhan-ud-Din of Khāndesh</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burhān-ud-Din Bhakri, M.</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cairo</td>
<td>3, 64, 113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calcutta</td>
<td>226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caliphate</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calligraphy</td>
<td>12,151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catrou</td>
<td>184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chandar Bhuan</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chānd Sultāna</td>
<td>192-93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charkha</td>
<td>213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chauburji</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chhajju, S.</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chhuti Khān</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>139,149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chingez Khān</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cordova</td>
<td>3,64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum</td>
<td>18,21,28,88,89, 215 ff.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cuttair, 53
Dacca, 200
Damascus, 3, 64, 113
Da'īl, P., s/o Emperor Jahāngir, 174
Dānishmand Khān, 102
Dārā Shikoh, P., 96, 174, 175
Dārgāhs, 18
Dār-ul-Musannifin, 226
Dāta Sāhib, see Ali Hajveri
Dāud Shāh's son, 127, 128
Daulatābād, 73, 74
Delhi, 10, 99, 108, 109, 113, 114,
133, 135, 136, 140 ff. 183,
222 ff.
Dholpur, 57, 207
Dibal, 73
Din-i-Ilāhi, 83
Divinity, 21, 89
Dīwān-i-Ashar, 120
Dīwān-i-Hāfiz, 166
Dīwān-i-Khāqāni, 43
Dīwāni-Makhfi, 193, 197
Dīwān-i-Senāi, 43
Doctors of literature, 20
Domestic maktabs, 147
Domestic System of Industrial Education 203-4
E
Economics, 22, 88
Education:—
Aims of—, 26 ff.
Commercial,—10, 11
Domestic System of—,
145 ff., 203-4
Extent of—, 31-32
Girls'—, 7, 8, 187 ff.
Gratuitous—10, 11
Higher—, 17, 18
Hindus'—, 13, 14, 58, 89
Ideals of—, 235
Military—, 55, 160, 181, 184
Primary—, 20
Quality of—, 30-31
Results of—, 33, 34
Royal—, 157 ff.
Secondary—18, 19
System of—, 16 ff.
Technical—12, 13, 199 ff.
Theory of Royal—, 182
Elizabeth, 182, 185
Ellichpur, 73
Etāwa, 57
Ethics, 21, 88
Euclid, 127
Europe 18, 149
Examinations, 23-25, 241-2
F
Faizi, see Abul Faiz
Fakhr-ud-Din Hansūli, M., 111
Fakhr-ud-Din Naqlah, Q., 112
Fakhr-ud-Din Rāzi, Imām, 197
Fakhr-ud-Din Shaqāqīl, M., 111
INDEX

Fakhr-ul-Mulk Usâmi, 40
Fakhr-ul-Murrâbî, 141
Farhâl-ul-Nâzîrin, 102
Farrukhâbâd, 143
Fâsâna-i-Āzâd, 224
Fasûni Kâshîf, 93
Fatâwa-i-Ālamgiri, 101
Fath Khân, P., 52, 161
Fathpur Sikri, 82-3, 86, 208
Fâtima, Bibi, 7
Fatûhât-i-Firozshâhi, 49
Fazal Khân, 101
Fiqah, 110
Firozâbâd, 49
Firoz Jang, 141
Firoz Shâh Bahmani, 72, 163
Firoz Shâh Tughluq, Sultân, 49 ff., 161, 205-6
Fitrat, 225
France, 26-27

G
Gardez, 109
Gaur, 68, 113
Geomancy, 88
Geometry, 21, 88
Germany, 27
Ghâlib, 223
Ghâzal, 217, 223
Ghâzi Khân, 115
Ghâzi-ud-Dîn, 140
Ghaznin, 19, 37, 60
Ghiyâs Beg, Mirza, 82
Ghiyâs-ud-Dîn I, Sultân of Bengâl, 66
Ghiyâs-ud-Dîn II of Bengâl, 66, 69, 162
Ghiyâs ud-Dîn Khîlji of Mâlwa, 189
Ghiyâs-ud-Dîn Muhammad Khudâmir, 77.
Ghiyâs-ud-Dîn Tughluq, 47, 160, 161
Ghor, 60.
Girls' education, 7, 8, 187 ff.
Girls' schools, 75, 189, 190
Golconda, 73, 222
Gopâmâu, 17
Grammar, 18, 111
Gujarat, 70, 71, 93, 94, 100, 136, 208
Gulbadan Bânû Begum, 193
Gwâlior, 57, 129, 207
Gwâlior Nâmâh, 144

H
Haftâni, 7
Haibat Khân of Samna, 92
Haider Khâsâli, Mullâh, 93
Haiva 217.
Hamda, 7
Hamid, M., 110
Hamid-ud-Dîn Manîâni, M., 111
Hamid-ud-Dîn Mukhâlis, M., 111
Hamid-ud-Dîn of Nâgore, 162
Harvi, Sh., 102
Hasan Raza Khân, 142
Hasnat-ud-Ārifîn, 96
Hassan Baqshi, M., 162
Harsan Mirza, 61
Hassan-ud-Din ibn Shādi, Ibrāhim (Akbar's teacher), 165
Hātim, 223
Hayāti Gilānī, Mullāh, 93
Hayāt-ul-Haiwān, 84
Henry IV of France, 185
Hinawr, 74, 75, 189
Hindi, 33, 34, 217-18
Hindus, 13, 14, 58, 86, 89, 217-18
227-8
Hindustānī, see Urdu
History, 21, 89, 111
Hujjat Multāni Qādim, M., 111
Humāyūn, Mughal Emperor, 78, 79, 115, 134, 164 ft., 193
Humāyūn-Nāmāh, 193
Hushang Shah, Sultān of Multān, 65
Hussain, Imām, 224
Hussain Shāh, Sultān of Bengāl, 67, ff., 162
Hussain Shāh, Sultān of Kashmir, 71
Hussain Shāh Lāṅgu, 69
Hussain Zanjāni, S., 234
Hyderābād Deccan, 226

Jāfar Sharīf, 190-91
Jāgirs, 62
Jahān Ārā Begum, 195-96
Jahāngir, Mughal Emperor, 92, ff., 169, 173-74, 195, 207, 208
Jaipur, 142
Jai Singh, Rāja, 142
INDEX

Jalāl, Jajar, 109
Jalāl Khān, see Islām Shāh Sūrī.
Jalāl-ud-Din Ahsān Shāh, Sultan of Hinawr, 74,75, 189.
Jalāl-ud-Din Khilji, Sultan, 44,45
Jalāl-ud-Din Rūmi, M., 49
Jalāl-ud-Dunya-ud-Din, see Māh Malik.
Jāma-i-Rashidi, 84
Jāmīa-i-Millia, 18 f.n.1,219,226
Jāmīa Osmānia, 18, f. n. 219
Jamāl-ud-Din Shatbi, 110
Jāpan, 27
Jauhar (Humāyūn's servant), 79
Jaunpur, 18,61, ff., 128
Jaunpur-Nūmah, 144
Jawaini Tabib, 110
Jawāla Parshād Barq, Munshi, 224
Jaxartes, 185
Jūna Khān, see Muhammad Shāh Tughluq.
Jurisprudence, 18,110

K
Kabir-ud-Din, 110
Kānis, Rājāh of Bengāl, 67
Kairowān, 3,64
Kamāl-ud-Din Koli, M., 111
Kāmṛān, P., s/o Bābar, 135
Kanauj, 141
Karim-ud-Din Jauhar, M ,111
Kārkhānās, 13, 201, 202, 206, 234-5
Karra Bughra Khān, P., 43 44,159
Kashf-ul-Asrār, 235, f. n. 4
Kashf-ul-Māhjūb, 113, 235, f. n. 4
Kashmir, 71,72,200
Khairābād, 17
Khair-ud-Din Muhammad Allāhābādi, 143
Khālida Edib Khānum, 7, f. n. 13
Khān Arzū, 223
Khān Bāba. see Bairam Khān.
Khāndesh, 74, 208
Khānqāhs, 18,19,32, 234-5
Khāqānī, 147
Khizr Khān, S., 52
Khudāmir, 79
Khurāsān, 55
Khwājah Jāhān, 162
Khwājah Hassan, 44
Khwājī, M., 49
Khwās Khān, 55,121
Knowledge, 1, ff.
Koel (Aligarh), 57,207
Kora, 144, 205
Korah, 26, 205
Kulbarga, 73,119
Kutlaq Khān, 160
L

Lāhore, 82,102,196,200
Lakhnauti, see Gaur.
Lāla Beg, 78
Latif, 110
Law, 21,101,184
Libraries, 9,12,231-32
Library (ies), Imperial:—
under Akbar, 85,169
under Aurangzeb, 101
at Bijāpur, 73,74.
under Jahāngir, 93,94
under Jalāl-ud-Din
Khilji, 44
under Humāyūn, 78
under Shāh Jahān.99, f.n.12
Library (ies), Private:—
of Abdur Rahim, 137
of Gulbadan Bānu Begum, 193
of Ghāzi Khān, 115
of Māhmūd Gāwān, 122
of Shaikh Usmān, 112-13
of Zeb-un-Nisa, 197

Lingua franca, 217 ff., 227 ff.
Literary Societies, 233
Logic, 9,12,89,111
Longimetry, 88
Loni, 159
Lucknow, 223-24,226

M

Maʿāsir-i-ʿĀlamgiri, 197
Macca, 143

Madrasah (s):—
of Abdul Hakim, 138
of Ahmad Shāh Bahmani, 120
of Akbar the Great, 81,86
of Akram-ud-Din, 138
of Alā-ud-Din Khilji, 46
of Altamash, 40
of Aurangzeb, 100,101
of Bahlol Lodhi, 54
of Bibi Rāji, 128
of Firoz Jang, 141
of Firoz Shāh Bahmani, 72
of Firoz Shāh Tughluq 50 ff.
of Ghāzi-ud-Din, 140
of Ghaznavides, 38
of Ghiyās-ud-Din I and —,
II of Bengāl, 66
of Ghiyās-ud-Din Tughluq, 48
of Hasan Rāza Khān, 143
of Humāyūn, 79
in his tomb, 133-34
of Hussain Shāh of Ben-
gāl,67-68
of Hussain Shāh of Kashmīr, 72
of Hussain Shāh Langha
of Multān, 60
of Isa Dehlawi, 4
of Ibrāhīm Sharki of
Jaunpur, 62
of Jahāngir, 93
of Khair-ud-Din, 143, 44
INDEX

of Khwajah Mu'in, 136
of Maham Anka, 134-35
194
of Mahmud Gawain, 121 ff.
of Muhammad Safi, 136
of Munim Khan, 128
of Nasir-ud-Din Mahmud, 41
of Nur-ud-Din, 143
of Nusrat Shah of Bengal, 67, 68
of Rafi-ud-Din, 138
of Rahim Dado of Gwalior 129
of Raushan-ud-Daulah, 142
of Razia's reign, 40-41
of Sadr-ud-Din, 137
of Sayif Khan, 136
of Sayyad Maula, 108
of Sayyad Sultan in Badagon and Cuttair, 53
of Sayyads in Sind, 117
of Sharaf-ud-Daulah, 142
of Shah Jahan, 99
of Sher Shah Suri, 80
of Sikandar Lodhi, 54-55
of Zain-ud-Din, Sh., 133

Madrasah of Fort William, 226
Madrasah-Tila, 66, 67,
Madrasat-ul-Aitom, 123
Madrasat-ul-Waizin, 226
Mahabharata, 68, 70, 82, 84
Maham Anka, 134-36, 194
Mahants, 14

Mabhub-i-Ilahi, Hazrat, 234
Mah Malik, 192
Mahmud, P., s/o Altamash, 159
Mahmud, Sultan, of Ghaznin, 37-38
Mahmud Bigharha, 71
Mahmud Gawain, Khwajah, 120 ff.
Mahmud Shiah of Jaunpur, 128

Majma-ul-Bahrain, 96
Maktabs, see Schools.
Maktab Ceremony, 151, 152, 164, ff.
Maladharn Basu, 69
Malak-ush-Shu'ara, 25
Malwa, 65
Manuscripts, 94, 95
Maria, 6
Marsiya, 224
Masnavi, 217
Mas'ood bin Sa'ad, 216
Mathematics, 89
Mathura, 142
Mazmun, 223
Medicine, 21
Medina, 143

Medium of instruction, 20, 21, 219, 239
Mehr Ali Beg, 148
Metaphysics, 18
Method of teaching, 20, 87, 88
Minhaj-i-Siraj, 41
EDUCATION IN MUSLIM INDIA

Minhâj-ud-Din Qabni, M., 111
Mir Anis, 223
Mirân Mariklah, M., 111
Mir Hassan, 223
Mir Kalân Harvi, 174
Mir Kâsim Koshi, 93
Mir Soz, 223
Mir Taqi, 223
Mirza Dabir, 223
Miyân Budh, 55
Mizân, 162
Monasteries, 18, 31, 32, 233-34
Monitors, 5, 6
Monserrat, Fr., 171-73
Mosques, 17, 18, 31, 32, 39, 40,
234, 235
Mu‘ajam-ul-Buldân. 84
Mubârik, Sh., 148
Mubârik Shâh Khilji, 46, 47
Mubârik Shâh, S., 52
Muftis Samarqandi, Mirza,
136
Mughis of Jhânsi, Q., 44
Mughis-ud-Din, S., 110
Mughis-ud-Din Biânah, Q.,
112
Muhammad, the Prophet, 6
Muhammad, P., s/o Balban,
42, 43, 159
Muhammad Akbar, P., s/o
King Ahmad Shâh, 120
Muhammad Akbar, P., s/o
Emperor Aurangzeb, 182
Muhammad Hâshim, Mir, 75
Muhammad Jalâl-ud-Din
Davvani, M., 123
Muhammad Khân, Hâji, 165
Muhammad Nâsir Khân of
Khândesh, 74
Muhammad Qâsim Ferishta,
73
Muhammad Sâfî, 136
Muhammad Shâfi Mazand-
râni, Mullah, 73
Muhammad Shâh, Mughal
Emperor, 64, 141
Muhammad Shâh Bahmani,
162
Muhammad Shâh of Gujarât,
71
Muhammad Shâh Tughlaq,
Sultân, 48, 49, 160, 161
Muhammad Sultân, P. s/o
Aurangzeb, 182
Muhammad Wali-Allâh, 141
Mu‘in, Khwâjâ, 136
Mu‘in-ud-Din Chishti, 19, 235
Mu‘in-ud-Din Jâjar, 109
Mu‘in-ud-Din Loni, 111
Mu‘in-ud-Din Andehni, M.,
111
Mujaddad Alf Sâni, Hazrat,
235
Multân, 60, 61, 118
Mumtâz Mahal, 195
Munawwar, Sh., 84
Munim Khân of Jaunpur,
128
Munshiâ of Abu Fateh, 84
EDUCATION IN MUSLIM INDIA

Public Works Department, see Shuhrat-i-'Am
Punishments, 26
Punjāb, 139,196
Pupils, 5,21,149
Purdah, 188
Q
Qabāicha, Nasir-ud-Din, 158
Qadam Sharif, 52
Qāida-Dīns, 161
Qānūn-i-Islān 190-91
Qasida, 217
Qāsim Beg, 84
Qāzioni-ki-Masjid, 138
Quli Qutb Shāh, 73
Qur‘ān, Holy, 1,2,20,21,95,110,
125,153,160,189,191-92,197
Qutb-ud-Din Aibak, Slave
King, 39,40,158
Qutb-ud-Din Bakhtiyār, 42
Qutb-ud-Din Muhammad, 173
Qutb-ul-ʿĀlam, 162
Qutb Shāh, 113
R
Rafī-ud-Dīn, Q. 138
Rōjtarangī, 82,84
Rahim Dād, 129
Rāmāyana, 68,69
Rampur, 224-25
Rāsikh, 225
Ratan Nāth Setshār, Pandit, 224
Raušān-ud-Daulah, 142
Rauzat ul-Aḥbāb, 94
Rauzat-ul-İnsa, 120
Razia, Sultāna, 40,41,157
Rekhta, 216,222
Rhetoric, 18,21
Risāla-i-Haqnuma, 96
Risāla-i-Qusherī, 113
Ritual, 21
Roe, Sir Thomas, 208,209
Rubāi, 217
Rohri, 118
Rukn-ud-Din, S., 110
Rukn-ud-Din Sunnami, M., 111
Sa’ada-i-Gīlānī, 93
Sa’adi Shirāzi, 147
Sa’adullāh Lāhori, 61
Sa’adullāh Khān, 175
Sadīq Khān, 136
Sadr-i-Jahān Shustari, 163
Sadr-ud Din, M., 110
Sadr-ud-Din Khān Bahādur, M., 99, 137
Sadr-ud-Din of Kanauj, S., 54
Sadr-ud-Din Gandhak, M., 111
Sadr-ud-Din Muhammad Husaini, 119-20
Sadr-ud-Din Tawi, M., 112
Safia, 7
Safrat-ul-Auliya, 96
Safi-ud-Din Ardbeli, Mullah, 197
Sahā-ud-Din Multāni, M., 112
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sa'id Khan Chaghtai</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sakina-ul-Auliya</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salam-ud-Din Sattrki, M.</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saleh, Mullah</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sali, see Jahangir</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salima Sultan</td>
<td>193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salim Chishti</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samarkand</td>
<td>139,163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sami, Mullah</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanads (certificates)</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sangasan Bittisi</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sangin (stone) Mosque</td>
<td>214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanskrit</td>
<td>15,33,34,148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sarmad</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sati-un-Nisa</td>
<td>196-97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudia</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sayif Khan</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sayyad Maula</td>
<td>42,106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School(s), 8,11,13,17,31,231</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of Akbar</td>
<td>37,58,81 ff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of Aurangzeb</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of Bahmanid Kings</td>
<td>72,73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of Daud-Shah's son</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of Firoz Shah Bahmani</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of Ghaznavides</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of Jalal-ud-Din Ahsan Shah</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of Jahangir</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of the Khiljis in Malwa</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of the Sharkis in Jaunpur</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of Shahab-ud Din Ghor in Ajmere</td>
<td>38,39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of Shah Jahan</td>
<td>99-100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of Zain-ud-Din</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schoolmistresses</td>
<td>8,189-90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>23,142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seville</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shahab-ud-Din</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shahab-ud-Din Daulatabadi, Q.</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shahab-ud-Din Ghor, Sultan</td>
<td>39-40,157 58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shahab-ud-Din Khalil, M.</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shahit Alam, I, Mughal King</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shah Alam II, Mughal King</td>
<td>102,142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shah Beg Arghun</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shah Jahan, Mughal Emperor</td>
<td>95 ff, 137,174-75-195-96,207 ff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shajahanabad</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shah Jalal</td>
<td>54, 162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shahnamah</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shaida</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheik Ahmad</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheik Hassan</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shaikh</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shakar Ganj</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shams Tabrez, Shah</td>
<td>118, 119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shams-ud-Din Bahi, M.</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shams-ud-Din Ghazruni, Q.</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shams-ud-Din Tum M</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shams-ul-Mulk</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shantiniketan</td>
<td>239</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sharaf-ud-Din Sarbahi, Q., Surat, 101
112
Sharaf-ud-Daulah, 142
Sharh-i-Maqasid, 128
Sharh-i-Tarif, 113
Sharh-i-Tazkirah, 128
Sher Mandal, 78
Sher Shah Suri, 78, 80, 205
Shiraz, 123
Shrines, see Khanaqahs
Shuhrat-i-Am, (Public Works Department) 77, 201, 207
Shuja-ud-Daulah, Nawab, 144
Siolkot, 138-39
Siha (a village), 138
Sikandar Shah Lodhi, Sultan, 54 ff., 161, 62, 205
Sikandar Shah, Sultan of Kashmir, 71
Sikhs, 227
Silapur, 150
Sil Chand, 82
Sind, 60, 117, 118
Siraj-i-Arif, 149
Stiyar-ul-Arifin, 54
Slaves, 52, 206
Spain, 14
Sri Karna Handa, 69
Sri Parva, 69
Students, 9-11, 19, 21-22, 136
Sulaiman Shikoh, P., 175
Sunda (a village), 138
Surah-i-Iqra, 1, 2, 153

T
Tabqat-i-Akbari, 82, 84
Tabqat-i-Nasiri, 41, 192
Tabrez, 113
Tafsir, 111
Tafsir-i-Hussaini, 94
Tafsir-ul-Kashshaf, 94
Tahir Uqidas, 128
Taimur, 62
Taj-ud-Din, S., 110
Taj-ud-Din Iraki, 44
Taj-ud-Din Kalahi, M., 111
Taj-ud-Din Maqдум, M., 111
Talib-i-Amla, 93
Talib-i-Isfahani, Baba, 93
Tamghas (medals) 24, 62
Tarikh-i-Alfi, 82-83
Tarikh-i-Badaoni, 83, 147
Tarikh-i-Farrukhhabandi, 141
Tarikh-i-Tahir, 147
Tazkirat-ul-Ulama, 143-44
Tazkirs, 110
Teachers, 4-6, 11, 12, 21, 24, 102, 190-91, 203
Theology, 18, 110, 113
Tibb-i-Sikandari, 55, 56
Todar Mall, Raja, 82, 86
Tughlaqabad, 48
Tulsi Dass, 218
Tutinamo, 73
Tuzk-i-Babari, 116
Tuzk-i-Jahangiri, 92
INDEX

U

Uhid ud-Din Mulhū, M., 112
Ujiya-ud-Din Paili, Q., 112
Ujiya-ud-Din Rāzi, Q., 112
Ujjain, 142
University (ies), 9,31,38
  of Agra, 56-58
  of Alā-ud-Din Khilji's reign, 46
  of Delhi, 114
  of Jaunpur, 61 ff.
  of Sultān Māhmūd at Ghaznin, 37-38
Urdū, 34,215 ff.
Urdū poetry, 222 ff.
Urdū prose, 224,226 ff.
Usmān Tirmizi, Sh., 42,112-13
Ustāds, see teachers
Usūl-i-Din, 110
Usūl-i-Fiqah, 111

V

Vedās, 96
Vernaculars, 68 ff., 129
  228-29
Villages, 150-51
Village schools, 149 ff.
Village school-master, 149
Von Noer, 171 ff.

W

Wajih-ud-Din, Sh., 136
Wajūd-ul-'Āshiqīn, 119

Wali-Allah, Shams, 218, 222
Wāqiyyāt-i-Bābarī, 84
Wāqiyyāt-i-Jahāngīrī, 170
Workshops, see Kārkīnās.

X

Xavier, Fr., 171

Y

Yūsaf ʿĀdil Shāh, King of Bijāpur, 72

Z

Zāhidīd, 128
Zahir Dilāwari, 62
Zahir-ud-Din Bhakri, M., 111
Zahir-ud-Din Lang, M., 111
Zainab, 7
Zain-ud-Dīn of Khāndesh. Sh., 74
Zain-ud-Dīn Haft, Sh. 133
Zain-ul-ʿAbidin, Sultān of Kashmir, 71
Zarfishīnī, 191
Zauq, 223
Zebinda Begum, 196
Zeb-un-Nisa, 197
Zeb-ul-Manshāt, 197
Zeb-ul-Tafsīr, 197
Zia-ud-Din Barni, 49
Zia-ud-Din Sunnavi. M., 110
Zikki, Khwājah, 110