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THE FOUNDATION OF CAIRO

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Origin of the Fățimid Dynasty. — Establishment at Qairawan. — Astrological reasons for an attack on Egypt. — Göhar, the General of al-Mu'izz, the fourth Fatimid Khalif, invades Egypt. — Fall of Fustat. — Foundation of al-Qahira (Cairo). — The Walls and Gates.

ORIGIN OF THE FATIMID DYNASTY.

The Fāṭimids (1) traced the origin of their dynasty to 'Ubaydallāh the Mahdī, whom they claimed to be the brother of the twelfth Īmām who had mysteriously vanished at Sāmarrā. There are other versions (2) and, according to one of them, he was the son of one of the hidden n Īmāms who succeeded to the direction of the sect after the death of the seventh Īmām. However, in spite of De Gæje's learned and ingenious study (3), Becker (4) and Reitemeyer (5) both agree that the origin of the Fāṭimids is still involved in obscurity. The opponents of the Fāṭimids attributed the origin of the dynasty to Ma'mun al-Qaddāh, an oculist who founded

⁽¹⁾ So called, as the author of the Jāmi at-Tamārikh says, because they based their claims to spiritual and temporal authority con the nobility of their descent from Fātima, the Prophet's daughter; see Browse (E.G.), Literary History of Persia, II, p. 195.

dynastie des Khalifes Fâtimides, Journal asiatique, 3° série, t. II. p. 97 ff.

Mémoire sur les Carmathes du Bahrein et les Fatimides (Le 1886).

⁽¹⁾ Beiträge zur Geschichte Ägyptens unter dem Islam, I, p. 2.

⁽⁵⁾ Die Städtegrundungen der Araber im Islam. D. 112.

an extreme Shi'a sect (1). He died A.D. 875 and his son 'Abdullāh carried on his teachings, established seven stages of initiation and claimed to be an İmām of the family of Muhammad, the son of Ja'far aṣ-Ṣādiq. He acquired a great reputation at Aḥwāz, but eventually had to flee to Baṣra and then to Salamīya where a son named Aḥmad was born to him.

At his death, Ahmad succeeded him and sent a Dāī (2) to Irāq. The latter met Hamdan ibn al-Ash'ath, known under the name of Qarmat, who was converted, and became the founder of the Qarmathians. These in turn became the forerunners of the Faṭimids. Ahmad had two sons, Husayn and Muḥammad, known as Abū ash-Shalaghlagh. Husayn succeeded his father and he, on his death, was succeeded, not by his son Sa'id, but by his brother Abū ash-Shalaghlagh, who sent two dā'īs to Morocco, viz: — Abū 'Abdallah and his brother Abū l-'Abbās. They established themselves among the Berbers with extraordinary success and soon acquired an enormous following of armed men, by means of whom the last Aghlabid prince, Ziyādat-Allah, was driven out of the country in 909 A.D. (5)

A son of Husayn named Sa'id had meanwhile been brought up by his uncle Abū ash-Shalaghlagh. He became celebrated at Salamīya (15 miles east of Ḥamā) after the death of the latter, but later on had to flee to Morocco by way of Egypt, where he narrowly escaped arrest, a fate which actually overtook him at Sigilmāsa. He was rescued by the victorious Abū 'Abdallāh, who humbly prostrated himself before him and hailed him as the expected Maḥdī and, in Rabī' II, 297 (January, 910), he was prayed for in the Mosque of Qairawān as «the Īmām Tbaydallāh al-

⁽¹⁾ E. g. 'Abd al-'Azīz ibn Shaddād Himyarī, in Ibn al-Athīr, VIII. p. 20 ff., translated by Fagnan. Annales du Maghreb, p. 276 ff. The following version is taken from Magrīzī, Khitat, I, p. 348; Casanova's trans., IV, pp. 2-4; also translated in Silvestre de Sacy's, Chrestomathie, 2' éd., II, p. 88. See also Quatremère, loc. cit., p. 115 ff.

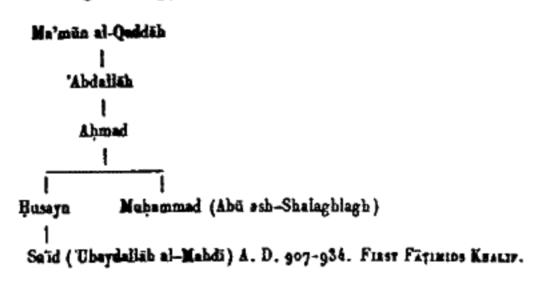
The title means amissionary, literally abe who calls. It was the fifth in the scale of dignitaries in the sect; see Carra de Vaux's article aDalle in the Encyclopædia of Islam, I, p. 895.

⁽³⁾ See IBN AL-ATHIR, VIII, pp. 30-36; translated by Fagnan, Annales du Maghreb, pp. 290-99.

Mahdī, Commander of the Faithful 2 (1). Abū 'Abdallāh soon found himself ignored and, becoming jealous, began to cast doubts on the genuineness of the Mahdī, saying that he ought to work miracles and so give proofs of his mission. The Mahdī nipped the danger in the bud by having him murdered (2), and to be for twenty five years, establishing his authority from Fez to the frontiers of Taypt, against which he had sent three expeditions, in 301 H. (913) (3) 302 H. (914) (4) and 306 H. (918) (5). He founded al-Mahdīya in Dhu'l-qāda 303 (7th May 916) (6) and died there in Rabī I 322. Until then he had resided at Raqqāda (7) four miles from Qairawān.

He was succeeded by his son Abu'l-Qasim, who took the title of al-Qaim. He sent an army against Egypt and took Alexandria, but was driven out by the brother of the Ikhshid and sustained a crushing defeat

(1) I give below his genealogy in tabular form for the sake of clearness : -



⁽³⁾ His murderers sarcastically replied to his protests saying "He whom thou has told us to obey, has told us to kill thee". 'Anīb ibn Sa'īd al-Qurtubī, transl. by Nicholson. An Account of the Fatemite Dynasty in Africa (Bristol, 1840), p. 126; lbn al-Athīr, p. VIII, p. 41 (Fagnan's transl., Annales, p. 307); and Magrīzī, Khitat, I, p. 351, l. 5 (Casanova's transl., IV, p. 12).

⁽³⁾ IBN AL-ATHIR, VII, p. 63.

⁽⁴⁾ Ibid., p. 66.

⁽b) Ibid., p. 83-4.

⁽⁶⁾ Magrīzī, op. cit., I, p. 351, l. 14 (transl., IV, p. 12). AL-Barrī, a much earlier authority, for he wrote in the eleventh century A. D., gives fuller details, saying that 'Ubaydallāh first inspected the place in 300 (912/3), that the walls were finished in 305 (917/8) and that the Prince made his entry into the new town in Shauwāl 308 (Feb./March. 921). Description de l'Afrique septentrionale, trad. par Mac Guckin de Slane (1913, ed.), p. 68; also given in Reiteneyer's, Stätdtegründungen, p. 138.

⁽⁷⁾ AL-BAKRI, p. 28, transl., p. 69 [63]; and IBN AL-ATHIR, VIII, p. 38.

during his retreat⁽¹⁾. He died 13 Shauwāl 334 (18th May 946) after a reign of twelve years, and was succeeded by his son al-Manṣūr, who, in 337 (948/9) founded Manṣūrīya, the fourth royal suburb built in the neighbourhood of Qairawān (2). He reigned until his death in Shauwāl 341, and was succeeded by his son al-Mu'izz who was then twenty-four years of age. Al-Mu'izz was a highly educated and cultivated man as well as an energetic ruler. With the assistance of his Prime-Minister and Commander-in-Chief Gōhar, a Byzantine Greek, he soon brought order and tranquillity to his kingdom. This however, was merely a prelude to the conquest of Egypt, the aim of his life, for which purpose he had amassed a fortune of twenty-four million dinars, and spent two years in digging wells and building rest houses on the road to Alexandria (5).

Astrological reasons for attack on Egypt. — De Gæje suggests that al-Mu'izz was led to meditate this attack on Egypt on account of the conjunction of Jupiter and Saturn in the sign of the Ram in 356 (967). In support of this view he shows by numerous examples the enormous part astrology played in the daily life of the medieval East, especially among the Fatimids. He mentions the books on astrology and the occult sciences of which 'Ubaydallāh (later the Mahdī) was robbed near Tahūna when he was a fugitive in Africa. These books, which were recovered by al-Qāim during his otherwise profitless campaign against Egypt, are supposed to have contained the prediction, current at that time, that the rule of the Arabs in the west would cease at the end of the third century of the Hijra (4). This prediction, according to de Gæje, was undoubtedly

⁽¹⁾ IBN AL-ATBIR, VIII, p. 213.

^(*) AL-BAKRT, transl., de Slane, p. 64 [58]; and REITEMETER, op. cit., p. 129.

⁽³⁾ For the above see MAGRIZI, Khitat, I, pp. 349-353 (Casanova's transl., IV, pp. 7-17), and LANE POOLE, History of Egypt, pp. 92-101.

⁽b) Compare the similar prediction as to the duration of Cairo in Mining [Khitat, I., p. 372, transl., IV, pp. 69-70] and his statement that whenever is as entered Gemini, famine has afflicted Egypt. Equally fatal to the country, according to him, is the conjunction of Saturn and Mars in Cancer. The prediction as to the duration of Cairo being 460 years is also referred to by las Khalden. Prolégoficon., in Notices et Extraits, XX, p. 231.

connected with the conjunction of Saturn and Jupiter in the sign of the Ram, due in 296 (908), a year which actually did witness the fall of the Aghlabids and the inauguration of Fatimid rule at Qairawān. It is known that the Fāṭimids expected that a new era, the era of the true religion, would commence with a state of the heavens due in 316 H. (928). The origin of his dynasty dating from 296 (908), de Gæje suggests, with great probability, that al-Musizz, who is known to have been well versed in astrology (1), was prompted by a similar conjunction in 356 (967), to commence in this year the equipment of his great expedition against Egypt (2). He reminds us that even Hūlāgū Khān in 656 (1258) at the summit of his power, did not dare to attack Baghdad until his astrologer, the celebrated at-Ṭūsī, had reassured him (3).

The invasion of Egypt. — As a result of internal disorders, famine caused by a low Nile and plague, Egypt lay helpless and open to an invader, and its precarious position was fully reported to al-Mu'izz by the refugee Yā'qūb ibn Killis, a renegade Jew and former favourite of Kāfūr. The Arab tribes were accordingly summoned, and Gōhar at the head of 100,000 men, with ample stores and equipment ou pack animals, marched from Qairawān 14 Rabī' I, 358 (5th Feb. 969) (4). He arrived at Gīza in 17th Sha'bān 358 (6th July 969) (5), forced the passage of the river and, falling upon the army drawn up on the east bank, totally

⁽¹⁾ Quatremère, Vie du Khalife Moezz, Journal asiatique, 3° série, t. II, p. 207. quoting Ibn al-Athīr, Haidar-Razī and an-Nowayrī.

⁽²⁾ Mémoire sur les Carmathes du Bahrein (1886), pp. 115-128, and especially. pp. 121-124.

⁽³⁾ Ibid., p. 128.

⁽⁴⁾ QUATREMERE, Vie du Khalife Moezz, loc. cit., t. II, pp. 425-435; LANE POOLE, op. cit., pp. 101-2; and MANN (J.), The Jews in Egypt under the Fāṭimid Caliphs. I, p. 17.

⁽⁵⁾ IBN AL-Атнів, VIII, p. 435; Fagnan's transl., Annales, pp. 366-7; IBN AL-Атнів, Bayān, I, p. 229; Fagnan's transl., I, p. 321; Abu'l-Fidā, Taqwīm, p. 108; Reinaud's transl., I, p. 148; and his Ta'rīkh, II, p. 498; Ibn Duqmāq, V, p. 35. Il. 16-17 and 20; Qalqashandi, p. 349; Wüstenfeld's transl., p. 68 (gives date as 12th Sha'bān); Maqrīzī, Khiṭaṭ, I, p. 361, l. 20; Casanova's transl., IV, p. 42 (also transl., in Reitemeyer, Beschreibung Ägyptens, p. 190).

defeated it (1). The City then surrendered; the Fāṭimid Army passed through Fusṭāṭ in triumph (2) and camped on the great sandy plain lying to the north (3) a plain which was bounded on the east by the Muqaṭṭam (4), and on the west by the Khalīg, a canal which he Nile to the north of Fusṭāṭ, passed by the ancient Heliopolis and finally entered the sea at Suez. This plain was free from buildings except those belonging to the Garden of Kāfūr, a Coptic monastery called Dayr al-Idam, which occupied the site of the Mosque of al-Aqmar, and a little castle called Qaṣr ash-Shauk, the name of which still survives, as the name of a quarter (5).

FOUNDATION OF AL-QARIBA (CAIRO). — That very night Göhar marked out (ikhtaṭa) the site of the palace destined for the reception of

⁽¹⁾ Within less than a century the story of this conquest had become surrounded with legend, and a fantastic account of it is given by Nāṣir-i-Khusrau, who says that the troops of al-Mu'izz, consisting of 30,000 mounted slaves, swam accross the Nile, led by a black dog, whilst the Khalif himself came by sea, sailed up the Nile and beached his ships. Nāṣir claims to have seen seven of them in 439 (1046/7). He omits all reference to Göhar and attributes the foundation of Cairo to the Khalif himself; see Scheren's, Nassiri Khusrau, pp. 125-6.

^(*) Yāqūt makes the extraordinary statement that the inhabitants of Fustāt had made an agreement with him that he should not settle down in the town. Reitemeyer rejects this account as very improbable (Stādtegrūndungen, p. 113) and also points out that Maqrīzī's statement that the Khalif had designated the site beforehand in contradicted by another statement of his (and of Ibn Duquāq, V, p. 36, ll. 8-11) that the Khalif on his arrival at the end of 361 (972) was not satisfied with the site chosen by Gōhar, and would have preferred the neighbouring heights (i. e. the high ground south of Fustāt, to-day dotted with the remains of Napoleon's windmills), or one on the banks of the Nile (op. cit., p. 113).

⁽³⁾ This area to-day is either covered with houses or mounds of debris, and no sand is visible until one comes to Abbassiya. However, excavations at the Burg az-Zafar (the north-eastern angle of Saladin's enclosure) have shown that there is fine yellow sand at a depth of about 7 metres below the present ground level. The foundations of the Burg az-Zafar rest on this stratum.

That part of this canal which passed through Cairo was filled up at the end of the nineteenth century, and its place taken by the tram line which runs from the Tue of Sayeda Zenab to adh-Dhāhir. This street bears the name of Sharia Khalig al-Maṣrī.

⁽⁵⁾ For a discussion of this topography see RAVAISSE, Essai sur l'histoire et sur la Topographie du Caire, M. M. A. F. C., I, pp. 415-419.

al-Muizz, and when the notables of Fustat came next morning to congratulate him, they found that the foundations had already been excavated. He made an enclosure, about 1200 years square, of sun-dried bricks (tūb) (1). Magrīzī says that in his day a long section of this wall; still existed "50 cubits behind the present wall " (i. e. Saladin's), between the Bab al-Barqiya and the Darb Batūt, until it was destroyed in 803 (1400/1). He remarks on the astonishing size of the bricks — 1 cubit long and 2,3 of a cubit wide --- and says that the wall was thick enough for two horsemen to ride abreast (2). It is curious to find that Yāqūt (3) uses the very same expression when speaking of the thickness of the walls of the Qasr of al-Mahdiva, the first capital of the Fatimids. The reason for broad ramparts is sufficiently obvious. It is to enable the body of men defending the wall being rapidly rushed to any spot threatened by escalade or otherwise. As early as Roman times it was the practice of the besiegers to construct great towers of wood, moveable and higher than the walls to be attacked. These, when brought up to the walls, commanded the ramparts and, by means of flying bridges, allowed a storming party to be thrown upon them. Unless the ramparts were broad the besieged would only be able to oppose a single line of men to a deep column of attack (4). It was to be a fortified enclosure containing , two palaces (5) for the Khalif, Government Offices, and quarters for the garrison. There were also many other buildings, such as the Treasury. Mint, Library, the Imperial Mausoleum, Arsenal, Stables, etc.

⁽¹⁾ IBN DUQMÃQ. V, p. 36. l. 6; MAQRĨZĨ, Khitāt, I, p. 377, l. 13 (Casanova's transl., IV, p. 81). See also IBN lyãs, Ta'rīkh Miṣr, l, p. 45, l. 12; and VAN BERCHEM, Notes, p. 38.

⁽Notes, p. 39, n. 1) that the cubit spoken of by Maqrizi is the dhirá baladi, the base of the whole Egyptian system of measurement. It measures .578 m., which gives 58×38.5 cm. $\frac{1}{100} = \frac{1}{100} = \frac{1}$

⁽³⁾ IV, p. 694, l. 20, quoted by Reitenever, Städtegründungen, p. 139.

⁽⁴⁾ See Viollet-Le-Dec, y Architecture, Macdermott's, transl. 2 ded., pp. 24-25.

⁽⁵⁾ The Eastern or Creat Palace and the Western or Lesser Palace.

The intention of Gohar is very clearly expressed by Ibn Duqmāq (1) who says that he "built palaces for his master so that he and his friends and their armies were separate from the general public, as [later on] was the custom with the kings who were sons of 'Abd al-Mumīn, and who did so in Marrākesh and Tlemcen and other places."

It was first named al-Mansūrīya, The Victorious, evidently after the palace-city al-Manşūrīya, founded outside Qairawan by al-Manşūr billah, the father of al-Mu'izz. This coincidence in names struck Kay, who remarks (2) that the foundation of an isolated and fortified palace-city appears to have been simply in accordance with the already established custom of the Fātimid Court (3), and that al-Mansūrīya, which neither became the nucleus of a new city nor superseded Qairawan, the ancient capital, was doubtless the prototype of al-Qahira. It is pretty evident, as Reitemeyer has pointed out (4) that Göhar must have had orders to build a palace-city which should stand in the same relationship to Fustat as Mansūrīya did to Qairawān, and in this connection it is interesting to note that two of the gates of Mansūrīya, according to al-Bakrī (5) were named Bāb Zuwayla and Bāb al-Futūḥ, names which we shall see adopted for two of the gates of Cairo. It recalls in many of its aspects the arrangement at Pekin, of the Chinese City, the Tartar City and the «Forbidden City, as laid out by Kubilai Qāān three centuries later (6). As Kay has pointed out, there is nothing to show that either Gohar or his master intended to found a new city in the ordinary sense of the word,

⁽¹⁾ V, p. 36, Il. 7-8. Maqrīzī, however (I, p. 364, I. 26; Casanova's transl., IV, p. 49; also translated in Restricter, Beschreibung Ägyptens, p. 193) is not so specific.

⁽²⁾ Al-Kāhirah and its Gates, J. R. A. S., 1882, p. 233.

⁽³⁾ And of the Aghlabids before them. The first act of Ibrāhīm, the founder of the dynasty, was to build al-'Abbāsīya, a royal enclosure, three miles to the south of Qairawān. to which it bore the same relationship as al-Manṣūrīya did later on; see Balādhurī, p. 234; Hitti's transl., p. 371; Al-Bakrī, p. 28; de Slane's transl., pp. [70-71] 64; IBN Al-Athīr, VI, p. 107; IBN Al-'Adhārī, l, p. 84; Fagnan's transl., l, p. 112; etc.

⁽⁴⁾ Städtegründungen, p. 114.

⁽⁵⁾ P. 25; de Slane's transl., p. 64 [58].

⁽⁶⁾ See YULE's Marco Polo (3rd ed.), I, pp. 392-378.

or foresaw what afterwards happened, viz: — that the population of the triple city Fustāt-al-Askar-al-Qatai would gradually move to the immediate vicinity of the Imperial stronghold and, eventually, on the extinction of the dynasty by Saladin in 567 (1171), would overflow into the repidly decaying pavilions. Until then no person was allowed to enter the walls of al-Qahira but the soldiers of the garrison and the highest officials of the State (1).

As for its site, Maqrīzī says (2) that Göhar wished it to become a fortress placed between the Qarmathians and the town of Misr, so as to protect the approaches to the latter.

Under a dynasty like the Fāṭimids, who stood for mysticism, such an important operation as the foundation of a city could not be undertaken without the assistance of astrologers (3). Gōhar, therefore, had them summoned and told them to choose a propitious moment for the foundation of the town, so that the Fāṭimid dynasty would never be dispossessed of it. All along the line of trenches, dug to receive the foundations of the walls, were fixed posts, connected by cords on which where hung bells, so that when the exact moment arrived the astrologers could send a signal down the line. They told the workmen to stand by, ready to throw into the trenches the stones and mortar which were placed within their reach, but before the right moment arrived, a crow alighted on the cord, the bells tinkled and the workmen, thinking that the signal had been given by the astrologers, set to work. At this moment the planet Mars

⁽¹⁾ Op. cit., J. R. A. S., 1882, pp. 230-231. He adds that both Ibn Khallikan and Abu'l Maḥāsin ibn Taghrī Bardī refer to Göhar's foundation as al-Qaṣr.

⁽²⁾ Op. cit., I, p. 361, I. 3 (transl., IV, p. 42); and KAY, ibid., p. 230).

⁽³⁾ The same idea prevailed at the foundation of Baghdād, the first brick being placed in position on a day and at an hour which had been fixed beforehand by the astrologer Naubakht (al-Khatīb, Salmon's text, p. 1; transl., p. 76 and Ya'qūbi, p. 238. l. 15, who says that he was assisted by the Jewish astrologer Māshā Allāh ibn Sarīya): and at the foundation of Dīn Panāh, one of the Seven Cities of Dehli, by Humāyūn, "In the middle of the sacred Muḥarram 940 (August 1533) at an hour which was prescribed by the most clever astrologers and the greatest astronomers," Humāyūn put a brick on the earth and then all his court did the same, and on the same date work was commenced on the palace; see Carr Stephen, Archaeology of Delhi, p. 185.

was in the ascendant; this planet was for them Qāhir al-Falak, the Ruler of the Sky, and this they considered an evil omen (1). It would appear from the somewhat disjointed account of Maqrīzī (2) that the new city was first named al-Manṣūrīya, evidently after the palace-city founded outside Qairawān by the third Faṭimid Khalif, al-Manṣūr billah, and that it was only when al-Mu'izz came to Egypt four years later and, from his own

We have another instance of this method in his account of the enclosure of Saladin. He first describes the works executed by him in 566 H. (I, p. 379), apparently getting his date from Ibn Abi Tay, and in his second volume, coming back to the subject, gives a quotation from Imād ad-Dīn which refers to the more ambitious scheme commenced by Saladin in 572 H. (II, p. 233, l. 22). It is obvious that he does not realise that these two accounts refer to two distinct phases of Saladin's work; the insight of Casanova (Citadelle, M. M. A. F. C., VI, pp. 535-538), however, has made this clear, and my own archæological examination of the walls has confirmed it; see my Archæological Researches at the Citadel of Cairo, B. I. F. A. O., XXIII.

This complete lack of method observable in Maqrīzi, is of course chiefly due to his "Scissors and paste" method of compilation, the works of many authors being drawn upon but not digested. Nevertheless as many (three-quarters according to Guest) of these works no longer exist, Magrīzī's Khitat derives enormous value from this fact, and, in spite of the above criticism. It is easy to with Guest that "the diligence and learning of the writer of El Khitat cannot but command admiration. He has accumulated and reduced to a certain amount of order a large quantity of information that would but for him have passed into oblivion." If Writers, Books and other Authorities mentioned by El Magrīzī in this Khitat; J. It. A. S., 1902, p. 106.

⁽¹⁾ MAQRĪZĪ, I, p. 377, l. 19 ff.

⁽¹⁾ Khitat, I, p. 377 (Casanova's transl., IV, p. 81-82); Anon. Gotha M.S., transl. by Reitemever, Beschreibung Agyptens, p. 189; Ravaisse, Essai, loc. cit., I, p. 420. Many examples of the complete lack of system in Magrizi's Khitat might be given, even if one confined oneself to his account of the Fāṭimids. In this he describes twice over the flight of Sa'id (later 'Ubaydallāh) to Egypt and Morocco and his arrest and imprisonment at Sigilmāsa, then he gives the history of each of the Fāṭimid Khalifs from al-Mahdī to the extinction of the dynasty by Saladin. After this he comes back and describes the site chosen for Cairo, the extent of that city, and then the victorious arrival of Gōhar and the foundation of the city, together with a certain amount of information about the Fāṭimid Palace. He then relates its fate under the Ayyūbids, after which comes a chapter full of extracts and verses collected from many authors. He then describes the main arteries of medieval Cairo as they were in his day, and finally takes us right back to the building of its first wall by Gōhar and the story about the astrologers.

reading of the horoscope, saw a good omen in this fact, that the name of al-Qähira — athe Subjugator are the Triumphant — was given to the town. Maqrīzī says that they made the walls of brick and called the town al-Mansūrīya until al-Mu'izz, on his arrival four years later (7 Ramadān 362 = 11th June 973)(1), changed its name to al-Qāḥira, although, about seven lines later, he tells the story of the astrologers in such a way that one might think the name of al-Qāḥira had been given to it there and then. It is Ravaisse (2) who has made this last point clear, a point that Lane-Poole appears to have missed (3). Becker, in his article on Cairo in the Encyclopædia of Islam (1, p. 821) adopts Ravaisse's view.

The story about the astrologer and the crow is so clear and circumstantial that none of the writers who have discussed the foundation of Cairo have thought of doubting its authenticity (4). It appears to have escaped their notice that a nearly similar story is told by Mas ūdī (A. D. 943) in his obviously legendary account of the founding of Alexandria by Alexander the Great. He says that the workmen, by order of Alexander, placed themselves along the lines marked out for the new town. Stakes were fixed in the ground at intervals along these lines, and a cord was attached to them, one end of which was fixed to a marble pillar in front of the King's tent. Bells were attached to the cord and the workmen waited for a signal to be given, on hearing which they were all at the same moment to stark work on the foundations. Alexander hoped by this means to ensure that a fortunate hour and horoscope should

⁽¹⁾ Івх Намийо, р. 44, transl., р. 68; and Івх ал-'Арийві, І, р. 237; transl., І. р. 333. Magrīzī (Khiṭaṭ, I, р. 277, ll. 18-19) says 5th or 7th Ramaḍān.

⁽²⁾ Essai, loc. cit., I, p. 420, n. 2.

⁽³⁾ History of Egypt, p. 103.

⁽⁴⁾ E.g. Vansleb, Nouvelle relation, pp. 117-19; Granger, Relation du Voyage, 2' éd., pp. 136-8; Fourmort, Description des plaines d'Héliopolis et de Memphis, pp. 19-21; Marcel, Égypte, p. 100; Curzon (R), Visits to Monasteries of the Levant, pp. 24-5; Mrs. Poole, Englishwoman in Egypt, p. 135: Quive, an Cuive, pp. 55-6; Vaujany, Le Caire, pp. 98-100; Abbatte, B. I. É., 5 serie, 100-1, p. 17: Lane-Poole, Cairo Fifty Years Ago, pp. 24-5; his History of Egypt in the Middle Ages, p. 105; and his Cairo (in the Mediæval Towns Series) pp. 118- Becker's, art. Cairo in the Encyclopædia of Islam, 1, p. 821; Todd. Banks of the Nile, pp. 55-56; and O'Leary, Short History of the Fâtimid Khalipers.

prevail at the foundation of the town. But alas! when the day and moment chosen had arrived, his head felt heavy and he slept, and a crow at a chance moment alighted on the line, set the bells ringing, and the workmen set to work. Alexander awoke and, when he realised what had happened, said all had wished one thing, but God wished otherwise = [1].

Thus it would appear that the story related by Maqrizi had been in circulation twenty six years before the foundation of Cairo, the town to which he applies it. This puts the matter in quite a new light; Maqrizi's account can no longer be accepted without great reserve, in fact, I consider that the foregoing fully entitles us to regard it as a legend.

The walls and gates. — The outline of the enclosure of Göhar can be traced throughout the greater part of its circuit with considerable accuracy, thanks to the information given by Maqrīzī, except that part between the Bāb an-Naṣr and Bāb al-Barqīya for which we have no details. Owing to the fact that the preliminary work was done at night in great haste, it was observed on the following morning that there were irregularities in the lay-out of the palace, the lines not being straight (2). No doubt this was the case with the city walls also. Nevertheless it formed a fairly regular square, oriented approximately to the four cardinal points. The south side faced Fustāt, the west ran along the canal, the east faced the Muqattam, and the north the open country.

There were seven gates, as follows: — in the south wall the double arched Bāb Zuwayla (3); in the west wall the Bāb al-Farag and the Bāb

⁽¹⁾ Mas toi, Prairies, II, pp. 423-5.

Is Dequaq. V, p. 36. l. 18; Qalqashandī, p. 349; Wüstenfeld's transl., p. 68; and Maqaīzī, op. cit., I, p. 361; l. 28; (Casanova's transl., IV. p. 52). See also Ravaisse. Essai, loc. cit., 1, pp. 420-21, and III, p. 112.

Magaīzī, op. cit., I, p. 380, Il. 25-9 (Casanova's transl., IV, p. 39) says ethis gate, when the Qa'id Göhar founded Cairo, consisted of two doors, side by side, near the masgid known under the name of Sām, son of Nūh. It was by one of these that al-Mu'izz entered when he came to Cairo, and it was this one which was next the mosque, of which there remains to-day a vault, whence the name of Bāb al-Qūs (Gate of the Arch) given to it. It was preferred by the public: they entered and left by it, while the other gate was not used; it was a common saying that whoever

Să'ada; on the north the Bāb al-Futūḥ and the Bāb an-Naṣr; and on the east the Bāb Barqīya and the Bāb al-Qarrāṭīn (later re-named Bāb al-Maḥrūq). None of these gates exists to-day, but the site of many of them can be fixed with great accuracy, as Ravaisse and Casanova have shown.

The first Bab Zuwayla. — The site of the first Bab Zuwayla is fixed by the statement of Qalqashandī and Maqrīzī that a fragment of it, which still existed in his day, was near the Mosque of Sam ibn Nūḥ. If one enters by the present Bab Zuwayla and walks on, leaving the Mosque of al-Muayyad on the left, one comes almost immediately to a late Turkish sebīl (called the Aqqadīn School on the 1/5000 map of the Survey). At the corner nearest the Bab Zuwayla is a little door leading to the Mosque of Sām ibn Nūḥ, which gives us our fixed point (1).

The Bab al-Farag. — The site of the Bab al-Farag is not so clearly indicated, but Casanova (2) has collected all the passages in Maqrizi relating to it, as follows: —

- (1) "There were in the west side of Cairo, that is to say the side which faces the Grand Canal, two gates; one, the Bab as-Sa'āda, the other, Bāb al-Farag " (3). Other passages also place this gate in the west side (4).
- (2) "The rab" of the sultan outside the Bab Zuwayla between the Bab Zuwayla and the Bab al-Farag. This region is known to-day under this

passed through the other never succeeded in any affair. This gate (i. e. the unlucky one) has disappeared without leaving any trace. A similar account is given by QALQASHANDI, p. 353; Wüstenfeld's transl., p. 69. The Bäb Zuwayla took its name from a tribe who occupied a suburb of al-Mahdiya. This tribe had provided a contingent to Göhar's army and, on the foundation of the city, had been allotted a quarter near this gate.

⁽i) See Ravaisse, Essai, loc. cit., I, pp. 421, n. 3, and 440-441. He says that it is also known as the Mosque of Ibn al-Banā, and that it was formerly a synagogue called the Synagogue of Sām ibn Nūḥ, which the Khalif al-Ḥākim had turned into a mosque. The present building, however, is modern.

⁽³⁾ Citadelle, loc. cit., pp. 526-7.

^{(3) 1,} p. 362, 1. 8.

^{(4) 1,} p. 364, l. 11; I, p. 380, l. 23; II, p. 24, l. 3.

name: they call it Taht ar-Rab' " (1). Taht ar-Rab' still exists.

(3) «In the middle of Gumāda II, 8:8 they commenced to destroy the stone wall between the Bāb Zuwayla and the Bāb al-Farag » (2).

Casanova adds that a street — Sikket el-Cheykh Farag — which may well be a souvenir of this gate, is shown on Napoleon's map of 1798, at the side of Sharia Taht ar-Rab' near the Khalig.

I therefore conclude that it was at the south end of the west side, and not at the west end of the south side, as Casanova places it on his map (see his pl. II), contrary to the express statement of Maqrīzī, four times repeated, that it was in the west side.

We must now try to fix the site of this angle of the wall. If we draw an imaginary line westwards from the Mosque of Sām ibn Nūḥ, we have, just south of it, a street the west part of which is called Sikket an-Nabawīya and the east part Sharia al-Ashrāqīya. To the north of this imaginary line we have innumerable little streets, each of which ends in a cul-de-sac, instead of opening into the Sikket an-Nabawīya. Why do all these twisted alleys stop dead in this way? I suggest that they all stopped short at the wall of Gōhar, which ran just south of them, and that the street plan has survived to this day. We have another instance of a similar thing in the fact that there is not a single opening on the north side of the Sharia Taḥt ar-Rab', which we know ran along outside the south wall of Badr al-Gamālī, although this wall was removed by al-Muayyad 500 years ago. If my suggestion is correct, the south wall must have joined the west wall on the site of the present Egyptian Court of Appeal, and it is therefore here that I place the Bāb al-Farag.

The Bib as-Sa'ada. — Ravaisse (3) puts both the Bab al-Farag and Bab as-Sa'ada on the west side, put places the latter nearest the south-west angle of the city. As Maqrizi speaks of the rab' of the Sultan outside the Bab Zuwayla between the Bab Zuwayla and the Bab al-Farage, it surely follows that these two gates were neighbours, and that the Bab as-Sa'ada was beyond, i. e. further north than, the Bab al-Farage.

The Bab as-Sa'ada is placed close to the south end of the west wall be

^{(1) 1,} p. 379, l. 32. — (2) 1, p. 379, l. 32. — (3) Loc. cit., p. 421 and pl. 2.

Casanova, because of the passage in Maqrizi (1) according to which it took its name from Sa'ādat ibn Ḥayyān, who came from Morocco after Göhar had built Cairo, and installed himself at Gīza. Göhar went to meet him, whereupon he struck camp and entered Cairo by this gate in Ragab 360 (May 971), Casanova (2) concludes that he must have crossed to Fustat by the Bridge of Boats and marched on Cairo from the south, and as he entered by the Bab Sa'ada, which we know was in the west side, he concludes that it must have been very near the south end of that side. If Sa'ādat ibn Ḥayyān had been intent on entering Cairo by the first gate he came to, this argument might have weight, but as we have seen that he must have refrained from entering by the Bab al-Farag, the first gate he would come to, this cannot have been the case. He evidently chose the Bab Sa'ada as being the most convenient route of access to the palace or other buildings to which duty called him. A street called Darb Sa'āda preserves the memory of this gate, but as this street runs parallel to the Khalig from Bāb al-Khalq to the Mosque of Sultan Gaqmāq, it is possible that the Bab Sa'ada stood as far north as the latter.

The first Bab al-Futup. — Maqrīzī says (3) that, of the first Bab al-Futup, there still existed in his day a fragment of the vault and the left pier, together with some lines of Kufic inscription, and that this fragment was at the head of the Haret Baha ad-Din to the south, beneath the wall of the Mosque of al-Hākim. This mosque was commenced in Ramaḍān 380 (November December, 990) and was outside the walls of that day so the first Bāb al-Futup must have stood quite near its western corner.

The first Bib an-Nasr. — The first Bab an-Nasr likewise occupied a site well within that of the present one. Maqrīzī (4) speaks of having seen a fragment of one side of it opposite the west corner of the Madrasat al-Qāṣid, where there was a raḥaba (open square) which separated this madrasa from the two southern doors of the Mosque of al-Ḥakim. This

⁽¹⁾ Op. cit., I, p. 383, l. 4; and Casanova's transl., IV, p. 95.

⁽¹⁾ Citadelle, loc. cit., pp. 526-7.

⁽³⁾ I, p. 363, l. 2 and p. 381, l. 28-30 (Casanova's transl., IV, pp. 43 and 92. also in van Berchen, Notes, p. 58).

⁽⁴⁾ I, p. 361, L 38 and p. 381, I. 20-21 (Gasanova's transl., IV, pp. 43 and 91).

madrasa no longer exists, but a Mosquée du Cheikh Kased appears on Napoleon's plan of 1798. I therefore place it near the southern corner of the Mosque of al-Hākim, and astride the Sharia Bāb an-Naṣr, as it seems probable that the alignment of this street has not altered (1).

The Bab al-Barqiya. — The site of the Bab al-Barqiza vtremely difficult to fix, for Maqrizi's chapter on the Gates of Cairo stops short after the heading a Bab al-Barqiya. Casanova adds that this paragraph remains blank in all the Paris MSS. of Maqrizi that he has consulted, and that in some of them even the heading Bab al-Barqiya is lacking (2). No gate of this name exists to-day; it is even absent from the map of 1798. Nor do we know in any precise manner the position of the northern part of the eastern wall.

The Bib al-Qarratin. — The site of the Bāb al-Qarrātīn may be fixed with comparative accuracy, as the site of the gate which replaced it is still known, under the name Bāb al-Maḥrūq or a Burnt Gate z. This name was given to it owing to the action of a party of 700 Mamlūks who fled from Cairo on learning of the execution of the Emīr Aqtaī on 21" Sha-bān 652 (6th October 1254). During the night they left their houses and proceeded towards this gate, which they found closed, it being the custom at that time to close all the gates of Cairo at night. They therefore set fire to the great door, and escaped through the breach made by the flames; henceforth this gate was known as the Bāb al-Maḥrūq (3). As Maqrīzī tells us that there existed until 803 (1400/1) a great fragment of the brick wall of Gōhar between the Bāb al-Barqīya and the Darb Batūt, and that this wall was 50 cubits behind the wall of Saladin (4), we may place the site of the first Bāb al-Qarrātīn at that distance within the present Bāb al-Maḥrūq.

⁴⁵ At the Bab al-Qantara, for example, the alignment has remained true.

See his translation, loc. cit., IV, p. 97, n. 4.

his Kirāb as-Sulāq, translated by Quatremère under the title Histoire des Sultans Mamloyles, 1a, pp. 47-49, where the date, however, is given as 3rd Shaban.

⁵⁵⁰ cubits — a misprint for 50).

If we draw a line eastwards from the Mosque of Sam Ibn Nuh to a point immediately alongside the site indicated above for the first Bab al-Qarratin, we shall probably be very nearly on the line of the wall of Gohar, and it is interesting to note that this line can be drawn between the ends of a number of blind alleys, which stop on either side of it, just as we found when we drew a line westwards from the same mosque. It is only crossed by one zig-zag street, the Sharia Hidan al-Most, in which stands the Mosque of the Emīr Sūdūn al-Qaṣrawī.

The Bab al-Qantara. — Two years after the foundation of Cairo, Gohar added another gate, the Bab al-Qantara, which took its name from the bridge (qantara) which he threw across the Grand Canal, so as to put the town in communication with the port of al-Maqs during the advance of the Qarmathians, in Shauwal 360 (July/Aug. 971)(1). I should add that a bridge, the Qantarat al-Gedid, existed here until the Canal was filled up at the end of the xixth Century. It is Casanova again who has collected the passages in Maqrizi which refer to this gate (2). I have altered the order of them so as to improve the logical sequence and clearness of the demonstration.

- (1) The Khatt (quarter) of the Bab al-Qantara was known under the name of al-Muratāḥia and al-Faraḥia (3). This latter quarter according to Maqrīzī (4) is the same as the Sūq al-Amīr al-Guyūsh ».
- (2) "The Suq al-Amir al-Guyush leads to the Bab al-Qantara " [5]. Abu'l-Maḥāsin tells us that the name of Amīr al-Guyūsh was changed to Margush (6). We must therefore conclude that the Bab al-Qantara was at the point where this street, which still exists under the latter name, crosses the Khalig.
 - (3) "Close to the Bab al-Futüh is a road which goes to the quarter

⁽¹⁾ Magrizī, I, p. 382, l. 38 (Casanova's transl., IV, p. 95 and Qalqashandi. p. 354; Wüstenfeld's transl., p. 70.

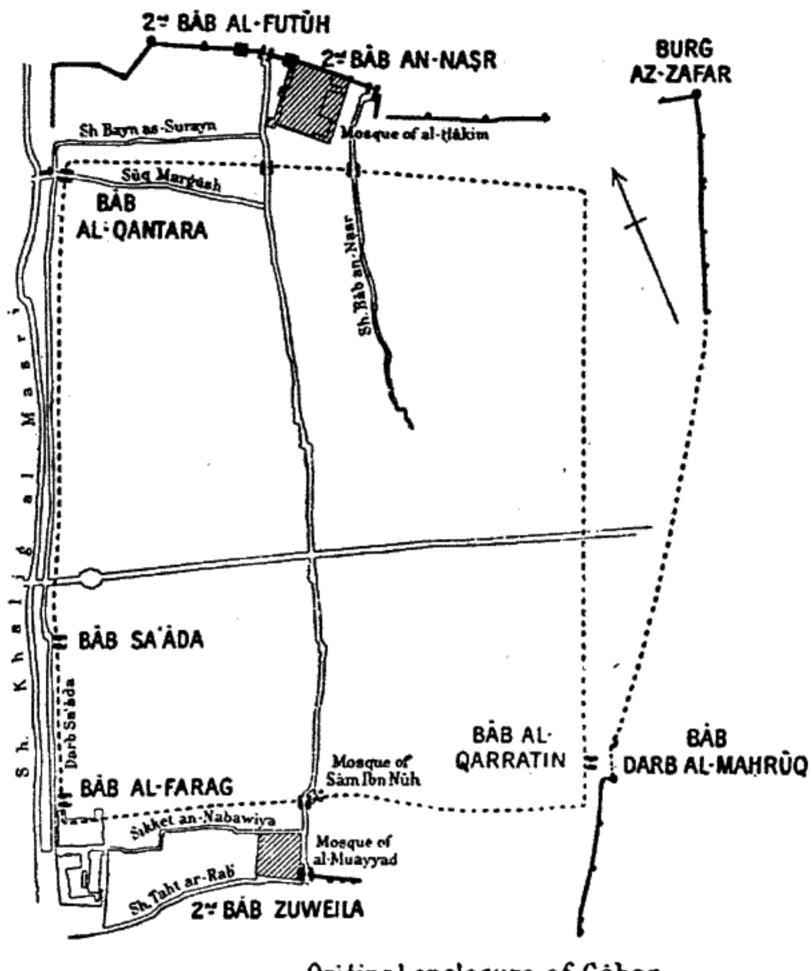
⁽²⁾ Citadelle, loc. cit., pp. 528-9.

⁽⁴⁾ II, p. 36, l. 1.

⁽⁵⁾ I, p. 385, I. 34.

⁽⁶⁾ Ed. Juynboil, II. p. 420. quoted in va: also Ravaisse, op. cit., 2' partie p. 39, n. 2.

of Bahā ad-Din and the Bāb al-Qantara » (1). This quarter according to Maqrizī (2), lay between the old and the new Bāb al-Futūḥ, and therefore



..... Original enclosure of Göhar

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between the old and new enclosure. As a matter of fact a street, called Sharia Beyn as-Sureyn («Between the two walls») goes westwards from the south-west corner of the Mosque of al-Hākim, where we have placed

⁽¹⁾ I, p. 376, l. 7. - (2) II, p. 2.

the first Bāb al-Futüh and, more remarkable still, makes a right-angled turn at its west end to join the Sūq Margūsh at the very point which we have suggested as the site of the Bāb al-Qanṭara.

At this very point on the north side of the junction of the roadway with the Patricolo, during excavations about twelve years ago, found the base of the north tower of a gateway, with a half round front similar to the towers flanking the Bab al-Futuh and Bab Zuwayla, in that the plan shows that the curved front portion was decorated with a sunk panel curved on plan.

The lower part of a spiral staircase is visible in the hinder part of the tower and, to the north of it, far below the present surface of the ground, is the lower part of a stone wall which runs north parallel to the Sharia Khalīg al-Maṣrī, that is to say, the line of the old Canal.

AN IRON GATE TRANSFERRED FROM FUSȚĂŢ. — Reitemeyer remarks that just as the Arabs, when founding new towns in 'Irāq, were fond of transferring the doors of old towns to the new ones (1) so Göhar, when founding Cairo, transferred thither an iron door from the Palace of the Emīrate at Fusṭāṭ (2), but we are not told exactly where he placed it (3). He was probably anxious to emulate al-Mahdīya, which, according to al-Bakrī, had two doors entirely of iron (4). Perhaps the most remarkable instance of

⁽¹⁾ For example the gate of the old Persian town of Zendaward was transferred to Waşit, and afterwards from Waşit to Baghdad shortly after its foundation; Tabari, III, p. 321, l. 5.

⁽a) Ibid., pp. 114-115 (quoting IBN Dronzo, IV, p. 10). Also recorded by Qalqashandi (Wüstenfeld's transl., p. 57), who says that this door had been added to the Palace by the Ikshid in 331 (942/3). There may have been others also, for Muqaddasi says that the town was fortified and had iron gates (p. 200, and Ranking's transl., in the Bibliotheca Indica. No. 1258, p. 328).

⁽³⁾ Qalqashandi merely says it was transferred to the Qaşr. Lane-Poole, speaking of the attack made by the Qarmathians in 971 A.D., says that the Khandaq, or great dyke, (see below) had only one entrance which was closed by an iron gate (History of Egypt, p. 106). As usual he does not state his authority. This may have been the same gate, transferred once more.

^(*) P. 29; de Slane's transl; p. [74] 66 the Kitāb al-Istibsar, p. 8; Fagnan's transl., p. 14; and the Rud al-Qartās, Beaumier's transl., p. 329. Muqaddasī, when speaking of the Ribāṭ Āb-i-Shuturān, says that it was the most beautiful ribāṭ in Persia,

this practice is the following: 'Ammūrīya (Amorium in Phrygia) (1) was captured by the Khalif al-Mu'taṣim in 223 (838), after a siege of 55 days, and levelled to the ground, the town gate being taken to Sāmarrā (2). After Sāmarrā was abandoned it was taken to Raqqa (3) but in 353 (964) it was sent to the Qarmathians by Saif ad-Dawla to help in satisfying their demands for iron (4). We next hear of its being employed at Aleppo by al-Malik an-Nāṣir Yūsuf in 654 (1256) in his restoration of the Bāb Qinnasrīn. When the Mongols took Aleppo in 1258 it was the first thing that they looted, but Baybars recaptured it when he took the city, tore off the plates of iron with which it was faced, and transported them, together with the great nails, to Cairo (5).

THE KHANDAQ OR TRENCH. — We have seen that the site of al-Qahira was chosen for the express purpose of covering the approaches to the triple city of Fustāt-al-Askar-al-Qatai, and of defending it against attacks by the Qarmathians who devastated the plain and threatened Fustāt. As part of this scheme of defence, Göhar ordered the digging of a great trench, ten cubits in depth and width, which ran west from the Muqattam to

and had a door of iron. It had been built by a Governor of Sistān under the Samānids, c. 315 (927); see Herzfeld, Khurasan, in Der Islam, XI, p. 166. The only gateway of Mayyāfarīqin (the Greek Martyropolis) in Nāṣir-i-Khusrau's day (1046) had a solid iron door, into whose construction no wood entered; Schefer's transl., p. 25; and Le Strange, Lands of the Eastern Caliphate, p. 111-112. He also tells us that at Diyārbekr, there was an inner and outer circle of fortifications each with four gates entirely of iron; ibid., p. 27. Two pairs of fine doors entirely of iron still exist in the great iron gateway of the Citadel at Aleppo, one in the outer entrance tower, the other at the inner end of the main gateway. Both bear inscriptions of Malik az-Zāhir Ghāzī; the former dated 608 (1211/2) the latter 606 (1209/10); see Van Berchem, Inschriften aus Syrien, pp. 39-40; and van Berchem and Fatio, Voyage en Syrie, I, pp. 211-213; also mentioned by H. Cowper Swainson, Through Turkish Arabia, p. 91.

⁽¹⁾ The modern Assar Qal'a; Hamilton, Researches in Asia Minor, I. p. 451 ff.

Description of Aleppo, MS. ar. 162 deque nationale, extract translated by Blocher in R. O. L., VI, p. 31, and the article Amorium. in the Encyc. of Islam, I, p. 334.

⁽³⁾ Вьосиет, ibid., р. 237.

⁽⁴⁾ DE GOEJE, op. cit., p. 181.

⁽⁵⁾ BLOCHET, ibid., p. 237-238.

Miniet al-Asbagh. It was commenced Shaban 360 (June 971) and very quickly finished (1). Two attacks by the Qarmathians are recorded shortly after this, one in Rabi I, 361 (Dec. 971) and the other in 363 (974); the dyke was crossed on the second occasion, but Cairo held out (2).

Sun-baked bricks employed for walls and gates. — Unfortunately we have not a single architectural detail on the walls and gates built by Göhar, except the statement of Maqrīzī, quoted above, that the sun-baked bricks of the fragment seen by him near the Bab Barqiya measured a cubit by two-thirds of a cubit. Large bricks are a characteristic of early work in Persia and Mesopotamia. Usher (3) says that the bricks composing the ancient wall at Kuyunjik (Nineveh), averaged 15 inches square by 5 thick. When speaking of the Ateshgar near Isfahan, where a wall was shewn him as all that remained of the ancient fire temple, he comments again on the great size of the bricks (4). Ferrier saw kiln-baked bricks measuring 20 inches by 15 in the ruins of Balkh (5), and even larger ones «nearly three feet long and four inches thick » scattered about in the Citadel at Farah in Sīstān (6). He also mentions bricks a yard square at Rūdbār and Pulkar on the Helmund (7). Colonel C. E. Yate mentions large flat bricks a say a foot square by two to three inches thick a in a series of mounds and ruins in Sīstān, between Margan and Jalālabād on the Hamun (8) and also in a ruined bridge of two arches called Takhti-Pūl, near Pulgī (9). At Gumish Teppé (Silver Hill) a mound on the

⁽¹⁾ See KAY, ibid., p. 230, and RAVAISSE, Essai, loc. cit., I, pp. 421-2, quoting MAQRIZI, Khitat, II, pp. 136-9.

Quatremère, Vie du Khalife Moëzz, loc. cit., III, pp. 83 and 177-180; also Lane-Poole, History of Egypt (2 ed.) pp. 106 and 113; and Kay, op. cit., p. 230.

⁽³⁾ London to Persepolis, p. 394.

⁽¹⁾ Ibid., p. 596.

⁽³⁾ Caravan Journeys, pp. 206-7.

⁽⁶⁾ Ibid., pp. 393-4. He says that they bore coneiform inscriptions, which nished his editor, Captain W. Jesse. I do not know whether this discovery has been confirmed.

⁽⁷⁾ Ibid., pp. 410-1.

^(*) Khurasan and Sistan, p. 122.

^(*) Ibid., pp. 117-18.

shores of the Caspian, about twenty feet in height and full of broken bricks, he saw some averaging 14 inches square by 3 1/2 thick 11. Colonel A. C. Yate 12 mentions four bridges, the Pûl-i-Khātūn, Maruchak, Tirpūl and Pūl-i-Khishtī (at the junction of the Khuskh and Murghab rivers) as being built of rarb. Tat kiln-baked bricks about a foot square. Euan Smith mentions kiln-baked bricks 11 inches square in the ruins of Qala'i-Fath in Sīstān 13, he also speaks of a reservoir at Nād Alī a with enormous bricks 14. Lady Shiel 15 says that the rampart at Veramīn, about half a mile square and strengthened with bastions at short intervals, is constructed of unbaked bricks of large size.

Although there is no doubt as to the antiquity of the above examples, they cannot be exactly dated, nevertheless they serve to show that the use of large bricks was widely spread. We will now consider more exactly dated examples. At Ctesiphon the inner city wall is built on a foundation course of three layers of burnt bricks, stamped with the name of Nebuchadnezzar (604-561 B.C.), which had been pillaged from the ruins of Babylon. They measure from 31 to 33 cm. square and vary from 6-7 1/2 cm. in thickness. The bricks of the outer wall and the rest of the inner wall, due to Seleukos Nikator, c. 300 B.C., are about 36 cm. square and 13 cm. thick (6). The bricks used for the great Iwan of Ctesiphon, which Herzfeld has shown to be the work of Shapur I (A. D. 241-272), measure 30-32 cm. square and 8-9 cm. thick (7). At Tell Mismai, about two hours ride away, Commander Jones found sun baked bricks 14 inches square, and large kiln baked bricks also 8). Near Dastagird

^{(1:} Khurasan and Sistan, pp. 272-3.

⁽¹⁾ Afghan Boundary Commission, pp. 149 and 189.

⁽³⁾ Eastern Persia, I, p. 293.

⁽ Ibid., 1, p. 299.

⁽b) Glimpses of Life and Manners in Persia, p. 187.

Sabre and Herzfeld, Archaologische Reise, II, pp. 53-55. — The excavations of Andreae and Koldewey have shown that the bricks used in Assyria and Babylonia from the earliest times were always large. For details see Sarre and Herzfeld, op. cit., II, p. 110, n. 2 (quoting W. Andreae, Festungswerke von Assur, p. 14; Anuund Adad-Tempel, p. 3; and Koldewey, Tempel von Babylon).

^{(7:} Ibid., pp. 75-76 and 62.

⁽⁸⁾ Selections from the Records of the Bombay Government, N. S., Vol. XLIII, p. 81.

Herzfeld found a town wall with bricks 42 cm. square and 13 1/3 cm. (1) thick.

The walls of the round city of Baghdād, founded by al-Manṣūr in 145 (762), were built with sun-dried bricks, some of which were square, measuring a cubit each way and weighing 200 others were a cubit long but only half a cubit wide ⁽²⁾. The enclosing wall of the Mosque at Raqqa c. 154 (770) is built of mud bricks 43 cm. square and 11 cm. thick ⁽³⁾. The latest example known to me occurs at Shurgaz, in the so-called Mīl-i-Nadiri, a minaret dating from the xith or xiith Century A. D. The kiln-burnt bricks of which it is built measure 14×12×2 inches ⁽⁴⁾.

We may therefore assert that the enclosure of Gohar, judging from the single architectural fact known about it, exhibited Persian influence, for the bricks hitherto used in Egypt were of quite moderate size.

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^{1321...} Abu't-Fida, Taquim, p. 108; Reinaud's transl., I, pp. 148-9.

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d. 1406. IBN Dugmag, V, pp. 35-6.

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^{1427...} MAQRĪZĪ. Khitat. 1, pp. 361-77.

¹⁾ Iransche Felsreliefs, p. 237. Between each course was a layer of reed matting. Le Strange, Baghdad during the Abbasid Caliphate, p. 19, and Sarre-Herzfeld, op. cit., II, p. 108, n° 3.

³ SARRE-HERZFELD, op. cit., 11, p. 359-361.

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