ARAM

THE MAMLUKS AND THE EARLY OTTOMAN PERIOD IN BILAD AL-SHAM: HISTORY AND ARCHAEOLOGY



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THE CREATION OF OTTOMAN DAMASCUS

Architecture and Urban Development of Damascus in the 16th and 17th centuries

STEFAN WEBER

INTRODUCTION1

Modern-day urban landscapes in the Near East are contemporary witnesses to their history. Thus, four hundred years of Ottoman presence (1516-1918) and cultural concepts left a distinctive imprint on urban centres in Syria. The cityscapes of both Aleppo and Damascus, for example, were largely modified by important trade centres and mosques during the first one hundred years after their incorporation into the Ottoman Empire. The urban skyline of both cities is marked by wide-span domes and variations on the typical Ottoman 'pencil shaped minarets', as well as by a series of civil foundations situated in the sūq and bearing the names of a number of Ottoman civil servants. The Ottoman presence is evident for the visitor to these cities.

To what extent can we talk of the 'Ottomanization' of the cityscape? Is the import of imperial art obvious, or do local modifications of the Ottoman principles of form dominate? The character of Ottoman constructions in the Ottoman provinces will be studied here using the city of Damascus as an example. The development of Ottoman architecture in Damascus in the 16th and 17th centuries can be divided into three stages.

- a) A surprising continuity marks the preliminary phase of Ottoman rule in Damascus. Local traditions of construction remain almost unchanged at the beginning, even if one can already find interpretations of Ottoman architectural design in 932/1525-26, for the first time.
- b) By the mid-16th century at the latest, more and more concepts of construction, design, and technique, which still cannot be considered genuine imperial art, are imported from the capital. A specific expression of cultural self-awareness, as a part of the Ottoman cultural sphere, derives from the adaptation of Ottoman forms of expression and structure and their merger with local traditions. This is how the Ottoman city of Damascus emerged. Hence,

¹ I would like to thank Jens-Peter Hanssen, Rafah Maduar and especially Simone Bass for their immense help in writing the English version of the text. Furthermore, I must express my thanks to Nazih Kawakibi, Akram Ulabi, Astrid Meier, Jean-Paul Pascual and Sarab Atassi for their help in enabling me to find my way around 16th century Damascus.

one can speak of the 'Ottomanization' of the urban skyline. The term 'Ottomanization' is used here in the sense of an integration of Ottoman architectural vocabulary, clearly distinguishing a building as Ottoman, without standardising its architecture as such. The city presents to every visitor an unmistakable Ottoman character, with its new city centre and the development of a commercial centre bearing Ottoman forms and structure. We will see how this occurred on the basis of local traditions.

c) The specific Damascene symbiosis of local and Ottoman forms and techniques finally leads to the canonisation of a local style based as much in the Ottoman concept of structure as in the local tradition of Damascus. It will be demonstrated that there is no contradiction between the emphasis on local traditions and their further use, and the simultaneous extensive integration of Ottoman forms and structures. The Ottoman conception of culture (Kulturverständnis) makes the expression of particular local forms straying from those of the capital possible, while still demonstrating their attachment to the cultural sphere of the Ottomans.

I. CONTINUITY

Is it commonly known that Ottoman rule in the Bilād aš-Šām was initially characterised by a remarkable continuity and relative tolerance on the political level. In Damascus, the Governor Ğānbirdī al-Ġazālī (924/1518 until 927/1521) was confirmed in his office and served until his rebellion, while the governor of the Mamluks in Aleppo, Ḥayrbak, was transferred to the same post in Cairo. The Mamluk Qāḍī al-Quḍā', Walī ad-Dīn ibn al-Farfūr, who had held the post of the highest Qāḍī of Damascus right up to the Ottoman conquest, regained his office in 924/1518.² The outstanding feature of the establishment of Ottoman institutions in Damascus was continuity.

The same is true of architecture. Sultan Selim I (1512-20) kept Šihāb ad-Dīn Aḥmad Ibn al-'Aṭṭār as the Damascene chief architect, commissioning him to design new buildings. Buildings in Damascus seemed initially to inherit the Mamluk architectural tradition, as already demonstrated by Michael Meinecke.³ With a few notable exceptions, the continuity in the local building traditions of the first decades is striking.

³ See: M. Meinecke, "Die osmanische Architektur des 16. Jahrhunderts in Damaskus", in: G. Fehér (ed.), Fifth International Congress of Turkish Art, Budapest 1975, (Budapest, 1978),

² Terms of office of Ibn al-Farfür (895/1490-937/1530): 924/1518-926/1520, 927/1520, 930/1524-936/1530. See: M. Ibn Ğum'a, al-Bāšawāt wa-'l-Quḍāt fī Dimašq, in: Ş. al-Munağğid, Wulāt Dimašq fī 'l-'Ahd al-'Uṭnānī, (Damascus, 1949), pp. 1-10 and Š. Ibn Ṭūlūn, Quḍāt Dimašq, aṭ-Taġr al-Bassām fī Dikr man wullīya Qaḍā' aš-Šām, (cdited by Ş. al-Munağğid), (Damascus, 1956), pp. 182-184, 309-10, 312-15. See for the political history of the time: M. A. Bakhit, The Ottoman Province of Damascus in the Sixteenth Century, (Beirut, 1982), and 'A. Rāfiq, al-'Arab wa-'l-'Uṭmānīyūn, 1516-1916, (Damascus, 1993), pp. 55-226.

The lay-out of the early Ottoman prayer-halls clearly demonstrates a Mamluk conception of space. This is true of the prayer-hall of the famous Ğāmi' as-Salīm of Selim I in aṣ-Ṣāliḥīya (924/1518, fig. 1). This mosque originally had only two aisles perpendicular to the qibla wall⁴ which recalled the prayer-hall of the Mamluk Sibā'īya mosque (fig. 2). The central domechamber construction of the Ottomans was not yet introduced.

If one compares the Turbat Lutfī Bāšā (ca. 1534, fig. 3)⁵ with the façade of the Masǧid as-Saqīfa (1411-12, fig. 4), one can find a more-or-less similar shaping of the façades. Wide rectangular areas of decor are inserted in the typical Mamlukian ablaq stripes, and are framed with protruding bands. The medallions fitted into a frame and defined by knotted ribbons are typical. Only by taking a close look can one detect very subtle shifts in the decoration, for example, twisted ribbons running along the façade.

The continuity seems to be interrupted by the violent suppression of al-Gazăli's rebellion in 927/1521 and the subsequent demolition of Mamluk structures, unlike those in Cairo and Baghdad. The province came under al-

pp. 575-595. For the city's architectural development of the time, also see: J.-P. Pascual, Damas a la Fin du XVI Siècle d'après trois Actes de Waqf Ottomans, (Damascus, 1983), and N. al-Kawākibī, "al-Ḥayāt al-'Umrānīya fī Dimašq fī-'l-'Ahd al-'Umānī', at-Turāt al-'Arabī, 'Adad Ḥāṣṣ: Dimašq wa-'t-Tārlḥ, 55/56 (1994), pp. 177-195. For a wider context: A. Raymond, "The Ottoman Conquest and the Development of the Great Arab Towns", IJTS, 1, (1979/80), pp. 84-101 and A. Raymond, al-'Awāṣim al-'Arabīya, 'Imāratuhā wa-'I-'Umrānuhā fī-'l-Fatra al-'Umānīya, (Damascus, 1986), (Arabic translation from Grand Villes Arabes à l'Epoque Ottomane 1985 / The Great Arab Cities in the 16th-18th Centuries, An Introduction. 1984).

In the beginning of this century, the prayer-hall of the Ğāmi' as-Salīmī was enlarged by adding 2 aisles to give a total of four. For this building, see: Bakhit, Damascus, pp. 15-16, fn. 79, 115-116; Ibn Gum'a, al-Bāšawāt wa-'l-Qudāt, pp. 3-4; Š. Ibn Tūlūn, Histoire des Gouverneurs Tures de Damas, in: H. Laoust, Les Gouverneurs de Damas sous les Mamlouks et les premiers Ottomans (658-1156), traduction des Annales d'Ibn Tūlūn et d'Ibn Gum'a, (Damascus, 1952), p. 148; Š. Ibn Tūlūn, Mufākahat al-Ḥillān fi Ḥawādiṭ az-Zamān, Tārīh Maṣr wa-'š-Šām, 2nd Volume, edited by M. Muṣṭafā, (Cairo, 1964), p. 68; Pascual, XVI Siècle, tab.1; Meinecke, "osmanische Architektur", pp. 577, 582; M. Meinecke, "Der Survey des Damaszener Altstadtviertels as-Ṣālihīya", Damaszener Mitteilungen, 1, (1983), No. 50; M. Meinecke, Die mamlukische Architektur in Ägypten und Syrien 648/1250 bis 923/1517, (Glückstadt, 1992), vol. 1, p. 206; 'A. ar-Rīḥāwī and E. Ouechek, "Les deux Takiya de Damas – La Takiya et la Madrasa Sulaymāniyya du Marg et la Takiya as-Salīmiyya de Şaliḥiyya", BEO, 27, (1975), pp. 217-226; J. Sauvaget, Les monuments historiques de Damas, (Beirut, 1932), No. 109; M. A. Talas, Appendix in Y. Ibn 'Abd al-Ḥādī, Timār al-Maqāṣid fī Dikr al-Masāṣid, edited by M. A. Talas, (Beirut, 1975), No. 181; K. Wulzinger and C. Watzinger, Damaskus, die islamische Stadt, (Berlin, 1924), DN VII.

³ For this building, see: Ibn Gum'a, al-Bāšawāt wa-'l-Qudāt, p. 12; Ibn Tūlūn, Gouverneurs Turcs, p. 166; al-Kawākibī, "al-Ḥayāt al-'Umrānīya", p. 185; A. von Kremer, Topographie von Damaskus II (Denkschriften der philosophisch-historischen Classe der kaiserlichen Akademie der Wissenschaft, V, Wien, 1855), p. 16; Pascual, XVI Siècle, tab.1; Meinecke, "osmanische Architektur", p. 579; D. Sack, Damaskus, Entwicklung und Strukturen einer orientalisch-islamischen Stadt, (Mainz, 1989), No. 4.8; St. Weber, "Der Marga-Platz in Damaskus – Die Entstehung eines modernen Stadtzentrums unter den Osmanen als Ausdruck strukturellen Wandels (1808-1918)", Damaszener Mitteilungen, 10, (1998), No. 70; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, B/3-8.

most direct administration by Istanbul.6 Mamluk architectural principles are still used as late as 1534 in the turba of Lutfī Bāšā, but already the Zāwīya aş-Samādīya, erected in 934/1527, makes use of a central dome covering a square room. This is the Ottoman concept of the central dome-chamber (fig. 5, 6)7. It was most probably the patron of the building, Muhammad ibn Halīl aş-Samādī (d. 948/1541-42)8, who instructed the local craftsman to build a central dome. He had been to Istanbul for an audience with Sultan Selim I, who gave him a fief, and it seems certain that he was deeply impressed by the Ottoman use of space in their mosques. Aş-Şamādī's craftsmen resorted to a known construction method, since the construction technique of an Ottoman central dome with its low pendentives was not yet known in Damascus. The inner space of the mosque appears to be a gigantic Mamluk turba. Squinchs constitute the zone of transition to the polygonal two-storied drum on which a high rising cupola rests (fig. 6). Ten years after the Ottoman conquest, we already find in the Zāwīya aṣ-Ṣamādīya a typical Ottoman feature of construction - the central dome for a larger mosque executed in the style of the local tradition of construction. This indicates the direction of further development in Damascus. It is nevertheless not possible at this stage to speak of an Ottomanization of the urban architecture. This was soon to change.

II. THE CREATION OF OTTOMAN DAMASCUS

II.1. The importation of construction features

The well known Takīya as-Sulaymānīya (962/1554 until 967/1560, fig. 7-10)⁹ constitutes the turning point in the design of Ottoman buildings in Damas-

⁶ A non-local qādī (for a very short term) and wālī was sent from Istanbul for the first time in 928/1521, for example, janissaries were stationed here, and a census was carried out in the province in 932/1525-26 (after the census of 922/1516 in Damascus). Compare: Bakhit, Damascus, p. 36; Ibn Ğum'a, al-Bāšawāt wa-'l-Quḍāt, pp. 4-5; Ibn Ṭūlūn, Quḍāt Dimašq, p. 311; al-Kawākibī, "al-Ḥayāt al-'Umrānīya", p. 183.

For this building, see: N. al-Gazzī, Luṭf as-Samar wa Qaṭf aṭ-Tamar. Min Tarāḡim 'A'yān aṭ-Tabaqa al-'Ūlā min al-Qarn al-Ḥādī 'Ašr, edited by M. aṣ-Ṣayḥ, (Damascus, 1981), vol. 1, p. 130, fn. 5; vol. II, p. 600, fn. 2; Pascual, XVF Siècle, tab.1; Talas, Appendix, No. 190. Further, see for the reconstruction of 1054/1644-45: H. Gaube, Arabische Inschriften aus Syrien, (Beirut, 1978), No. 194-95; al-Kawākibī, "al-Ḥayūt al-'Umrānīya", p. 185; Pascual, XVF Siècle, tab.1; D. Sack, "Damaskus, die Stadt intra muros. Ein Beitrag zu den Arbeiten der "Internationalen Kommission zum Schutz der Altstadt von Damaskus", Damaszener Mitteilungen, 2, (1985), p. 288; Sack, Damaskus, No. 4.66; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, F/6-2.

8 For Muḥammad aṣ-Ṣamādī, who had great influence in Damascus, see: Bakhit, Damascus, pp. 183-84; al-Gazzī, Luff as-Samar, vol. I, p. 130, fn. 5; vol. II, p. 600, fn. 2; Ibn Gum'a, al-Bāšavāt wa-'l-Qudāt, p. 39, fn. 1 (the editor al-Munaǧǧid quotes al-Muḥibbī here); 'A. an-Nu'aymī, apd-Dāris fī Tārīḥ al-Madāris, edited by I. Šams ad-Dīn, (Beirut, 1990), vol. II, p. 171; Talas, Appendix, No. 190. An influence of Mamluk models, such as the Qubbat al-Fadāwīya / Yašbak (1479-81) in Cairo, can be excluded because of the historical data available on aṣ-Samādī.

9 For this building, see: Bakhit, Damascus, p. 116 (with further literature); E. Egli, Sinan, der Baumeister osmanischer Glanzzeit, (Zürich, 1954), pp. 74 -75; al-Gazzī, Luff as-Samar, vol. III,

cus. The famous takīya of Süleyman I (1520-66), designed by Mimar Sinan (~1490-1588), is in many ways exceptional for Damascus. The Sultan in Istanbul commissioned the court architect to construct it, and this complex (at-Takīya as-Sulaymānīya and the nearby Madrasa as-Salīmīya of Selim II) is probably the only early Ottoman structure in Damascus which was not planned insitu. Local forms were integrated over the course of the construction, but the majority of the construction elements (tiles, carved stones, covering of the dome, etc.) were produced by craftsmen obviously familiar with these techniques and design, and not by local craftsmen. From this we may deduce that an Anatolian workshop was present during construction.

The mosque itself has a very simple ground plan. A central dome rests upon the rectangular cube, without any further division of space (fig. 10), but it is furnished with architectural elements which had been unknown before in Damascus, First of all, there are the Ottoman pencil shaped minarcts which flank the building on the sides, then the flat and wide-span cupola with its lead cover and the small buttresses which support the bevelled, almost round, drum. Inside, the low pendentives make the transition from the rectangular room to the drum. The ante-chamber, with its double row of columns, is also a new feature. Besides the use of tiles inside the building and on the façade, which will be discussed below, this is the first appearance of the Ottoman folded capitals, rounded pointed arches, Ottoman twisted muqarnas, and many more details which are new to Damascus.

The takīya of Süleyman is the 'most Ottoman building' in Damascus despite the integration of local decorative elements and, as such, had an enormous impact on the architecture of its time. The architectural features of this building and its Ottoman forms of design were subsequently emulated throughout the town. A far reaching Ottomanization of the artistic style can be discerned from the early fifties of the 16th century onwards. The design of the decor and the lay-out evolves, with certain local adaptation, into the typical Ottoman one.

Let us discuss the lay-out first. Single elements of the cupola become integrated into the canon of the Damascene architectural features at this time, even if the local form of the cupola will later come to dominate again. This is true,

pp. 156-57; G. Goodwin, A History of Ottoman Architecture, (Oxford, 1971), pp. 256-57; G. Goodwin, "The Tekke of Süleiman I., Damascus", Palestine Exploration Quarterly, 110, (1978), pp. 127-29, fig. 13b-14a; Ğ. al-Hasani, "at-Takiya as-Sulaymaniya fi Dimašq", Mağallat al-Mağma' al-İlmi al-Arabi, XXXI, (1956), pp. 222-37, 437-50; Meinecke, "osmanische Architektur", pp. 580-81; Meinecke, mamlukische Architektur, vol. I, p. 206-07; Pascual, XVF Siècle, tab.1; 'A. ar-Riḥāwi, "al-Abnīya al-Ajarīya fī Dimašq, Dirāsa wa-Taḥqīq, I. at-Takiya wa-'l-Madrasa as-Sulaymānīyatānī bi Dimašq", AAAS, VII, (1957), pp. 125-34; ar-Riḥāwi and Ouechek, "deux Takiya", pp. 217-226; Sack, Damaskus, No. 4.6; Sauvaget, Les monuments historiques, No. 71; 'Talas, Appendix, No. 142; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, DW/1-2.

above all, for the central dome which becomes the dominating principle of construction in the Damascene mosques. The squinch is replaced by low pendentives. However, only the dome of the Sinānīya Mosque preserved a lead covering (999/1591, fig. 11)¹⁰, and buttresses of the drum can only be found at the mosque of Darwīš Bāšā (982/1574-75, fig. 12)¹¹.

At the turba of Darwīš Bāšā (982/1574-75, fig. 12, above left)¹², or the turba of Murād Bāšā (next to his mosque of 976/1568-69 until 983/1575-76, fig. 13, right)¹³ a mausoleum is separated from the mosque or the madrasa for the first time, and the turba of Darwīš Bāšā is octagonal like some of its Istanbul models. The ground plans of the Darwīšīya and Sinānīya Mosques recall, albeit on a much smaller scale, the Mirimah Mosque in Istanbul.¹⁴ The Madrasa as-Salīmīya (974/1566, fig. 7, above left; fig. 29, 30)¹⁵ of Selim II (1566-74) introduces into Damascene architecture a madrasa-type, used in Istanbul and Anatolia, where the rooms are regularly distributed around a rectangular courtyard. The iwān type which was still used in the Mamluk period, either in its pure form, or strongly changed like the qāʿa madrasas of the 15th century, vanishes completely. The typical Ottoman organisation of such a school is established in Damascus by the Madrasa as-Salīmīya.

Pencil-shaped minarets now appear in Damascus as a main feature of Ottoman architecture, and as the foremost symbol of an Ottoman presence. We have already examined the Takīya as-Sulaymānīya as a landmark. The mosques of Darwīš Bāšā (979/1571 until 982/1574, fig. 12), Sinān Bāšā (994/1586 until 999/1591, fig. 11) and Sīyāģūš Bāšā (1005/1596-97)¹⁶ all have a slightly

¹⁰ For this building, see: Bakhit, Damascus, p. 118; Gaube, Arabische Inschriften, No. 89-91; al-Gazzī, Lutf as-Samar, vol. III, pp. 348-49; Ibn Ğum'a, al-Bāsāt wa-'l-Qudāt, p. 20; P. K. Kappert, "Osmanische Inschriften in Syrien", Damaszener Mitteilungen, I. (1983), pp. 108-09; al-Kawākibī, "al-Ḥayāt al-'Umrāntya", p. 188; Kremer, Topographie, p. 14; Meinecke, "osmanische Architektur", p. 585; Meinecke, mamlukische Architektur, vol. I, pp. 207-08; M. A. al-Muḥibbī, Ḥulāṣat al-Atar fi 'A'yān al-Qarn al-Ḥādī 'Ašar, (Beirut, 1970), vol. II, pp. 215-17; Pascual, XVI Siècle, tab.1, pp. 33-34, 44, 97 ff; Sack, Damaskus, No. 4.59; Sauvaget, Les monuments historiques, No. 79; Talas, Appendix, No. 146; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, D/5-8.

¹¹ For this building, see: 'A. Bahnasī, "al-Qāšānī ad-Dimašqī" AAAS, 35, (1985), pp. 40 ff (about the tiles); Bakhit, Damascus, p. 117; Gaube, Arabische Inschriften, No. 143; Ibn Gum'a, al-Bāšawāt wa-'l-Qudāt, p. 16 and p. 17, fn. 1 (the editor al-Munaǧǧid quotes al-Gazzī here); al-Kawākibī, "al-Ḥayāt al-'Umrānīya", p. 186; Kremer, Topographie, p. 14; Meinecke, osmanische Architektur", p. 584; Meinecke, mamlukische Architektur, vol. I, p. 208; Pascual, XVIF Siècle, tab.1; Sack, Damaskus, p. 108; Sauvaget, Les monuments historiques, No. 77; Talas, Appendix, No. 105; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, C/4-6.

¹² For this building, see the literature of fn. 11 and: Sack, *Damaskus*, No. 4.23; Wulzinger and Watzinger, *Damaskus*, C/5-1.

¹³ For this building, see: fn. 31.

¹⁴ Compare: Meinecke, "osmanische Architektur", pp. 584-85.

¹⁵ For this building, see: fn. 9.

¹⁶ For this building, see: al-Kawäkibī, "al-Ḥayāt al-'Umrānīya", p. 188; Pascual, XVI^e Siècie, tab.1; Sack, "intra muros", p. 286; Sack, Damaskus, No. 4.63; Talas, Appendix, No. 297; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, E/6-1.

changed pencil-shaped minaret which is clearly visible from afar. Many more examples can be given, but the 'Ottomanization' of the square Mamluk southeastern minaret of the Umayyad Mosque, achieved by adding a pencil-shaped top, is the most striking one (fig. 14).

The same is true for the forms of decoration. The pointed bulbous arch of Persian origin makes its way to Damascus and can, among others, be found in large vaulted constructions such as the riwāq of the ante-chamber of the Sīyāgūš Bāšā Mosque (fig. 15).

II.1.1. Tiles

Tiles became the most remarkable decoration technique of the mosque. Large panels of locally produced tiles are to be found in several mosques and turbas of Damascus. Local production of tiles was started in the Mamluk period. Tiles appear at the beginning of the 15th century on different minarets, and first at the Tawrīzī Mosque and Turba (826/1423). These tiles are all ascribed to one workshop which did not survive the second half of the 15th century. Meinecke assumes a short period of production in the twenties of the 15th century. The Ottomans reintroduced this technique of decoration later on. The Takīya as-Sulaymānīya (962/1554 until 967/1560) constitutes the prelude of a whole series of tile-decoration. While no earlier example of Ottoman tiles is to be found in Damascus is its introduction is supposedly connected to the restoration of the Dome of the Rock by Sultan Süleyman. Most probably, a workshop settled in Damascus after the conclusion of the work in Jerusalem. Much of the production after 1555 shows the influence of a Persian workshop followed by the late 16th century Iznik models in consequence.

The panels with the dark blue background at the takīya, or the extensive panels of the Ḥammām al-Qīšānī (981/1573-74)²⁰ and the Ğāmi' as-Sinānīya (994/1586 until 999/1591, fig. 16) recall Persian style and colours. The dark green tiles of the minaret of the Ğāmi' as-Sinānīya, as well as the use of tiles on the exterior façade, point towards the Persian cultural sphere (fig. 11).

¹⁷ M. Meinecke, "Syrian Blue-and-white Tiles of the 9th/15th Century", Damaszener Mineilungen, 3, (1988), p. 211.

¹⁸ The tiles for the Gami' and Turbat Muhyī ad-Din ibn 'Arabī (924/1518), whose completion was commissioned by Sultan Selim, are dated later by an inscription: 996/1588 (turba) and 1174/1760-61 (mosque). Also see: Gaube, Arabische Inschriften, No. 201.

¹⁹ A friendly hint by Dr. Julian Raby. For the Mamluk Tawrīzī Mosque a workshop from Tabriz is probable. Cf.: M. Meinecke, "Blue-and-white", p. 205 and M. Meinecke, "Die Emeuerung von al-Quds/Jerusalem durch den Osmanensultan Sulaimān Qānūnī", Studies in the History and Archaeology of Palestine, III, (1988), pp. 257-281.

²⁰ For this building, see: Bakhit, Damascus, p. 117; Ibn Ğum'a, al-Bāšawāt wa-'l-Qudāt, p. 17, fn. 1 (the editor al-Munağğid quotes al-Ğazzī here); al-Kawākibī, "al-Ḥayāt al-Umrānīya", p. 186; Kremer, Topographie, p. 9; Pascual, XVF Siècle, tab.1; Sack, "intra muros", p. 268; Sack, Damaskus, No. 4.32; Sauvaget, Les monuments historiques, No. 82; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, E/4-6.

A turn towards models from Iznik is indicated by the example of the Ğāmi' and Turbat ad-Darwīšīya (terminated in 982/1574-75), Turbat al-Murādīya (terminated in 983/1575-76), and the Turbat Ṣalāḥ ad-Dīn²¹. The examples of Damascene local production do not give a uniform picture. Forms, colours, size, and motives which are well known in Anatolia differ enormously from each other. Even key-motives, for example the medallions formed by ribbons enclosing a bunch of grapes, can be found in the Ğāmi' ad-Darwīšīya and the Turbat Ṣalāḥ ad-Dīn (1020/1611, fig. 17) on a white background, and in the Ğāmi' as-Sinānīya on a blue background. Different examples of local tile-production, such as rectangular tile-panels finished with small arches, can be found at the Takīya Sulaymānīya, Madrasa as-Salīmīya, Ğāmi' Darwīš Bāšā, Ḥammām al-Qīšānī (981/1573-74), Turbat Darwīš Bāšā, Ğāmi' Sinān Bāšā (fig. 16), Turbat Murād Bāšā (fig. 18), Masṭabat Sa'd ad-Dīn al-Ğibāwī in Mīdān (by 982/1574)²², Ğāmi' Sinān Āġā (972/1564-65)²³, and Turbat Muḥyī ad-Dīn ibn 'Arabī (decorated with tiles in 996/1588).

The themes of decoration differ for the most part, and even in the rare cases in which they are repeated side by side, they are still treated in the same manner. Other motives, for example a tile-panel representing a prayer-carpet with a mosque lamp in the Darwīšīya Mosque, are unique and show no relation to other tiles of Damascene production. Another unique example is the restoration-inscription of 1054/1644-45 on the qibla wall and the fountain of the Zāwīya aṣ-Ṣamādīya. The style of the writing and the colouring are unique in Damascus, and immediate models are not known (fig. 19). The Ottomans, in common with the Mamluks before them, sometimes used and reused single tiles and panels as spolia in their constructions.²⁴ Some small inscription panels can be found in mosques or even in domestic buildings.²⁵

Local tile production, mostly independent of Iznik, began with the tiles for the Takīya as-Sulaymānīya and can be followed up well into the 19th century by using signed and dated examples.

²¹ The tiles of this Ayyubid turba are dated: 1020/1611, 1027/1618, and 1037/1627-28. For this building, see: Bahnasī, "al-Qāšānī", pp. 25-26; Sack, "intra muros", p. 1985; Sack, Damaskus, No. 2.21, 2.22; Talas, Appendix, No. 188; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, Et 2.0.

²² For this building, see: Bahnasī, "al-Qāšānī", pp. 36 ff; Bakhit, Damascus, p. 182; Gaube, Arabische Inschriften, No. 191-93; al-Kawākibī, "al-Hayāt al-'Umrānīya", p. 185; Meinecke, "osmanische Architektur", p. 583; Sauvaget, Les monuments historiques, No. 72; Talas, Appendix, No. 273; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, C/16-3.

²³ For this building, see: Gaube, Arabische Inschriften, No. 88; al-Kawäkibī, "al-Ḥayāt al-'Umrānīya", p. 185; Meinecke, "osmanische Architektur", p. 583; Pascual, XVF Siècle, tab.1; Sack, Damaskus, No. 4.2; Talas, Appendix, No. 145; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, E/2-3.

²⁴ For example: Hammām al-Qīšānī (façade), Hān az-Zayt (façade), Hān al-Ğūhīya (façade and centre of the arches).

²⁵ For example: Bayt ad-Dirrī and Bayt Musabba. Ottoman inscription tiles can be found sparsely in the Gami. Ahmadīya, Takīya al-Mawlawīya, Zāwīya aş-Şamādī.

A turn towards models from Iznik is indicated by the example of the Ğāmi' and Turbat ad-Darwīšīya (terminated in 982/1574-75), Turbat al-Murādīya (terminated in 983/1575-76), and the Turbat Ṣalāḥ ad-Dīn²¹. The examples of Damascene local production do not give a uniform picture. Forms, colours, size, and motives which are well known in Anatolia differ enormously from each other. Even key-motives, for example the medallions formed by ribbons enclosing a bunch of grapes, can be found in the Ğāmi' ad-Darwīšīya and the Turbat Ṣalāḥ ad-Dīn (1020/1611, fig. 17) on a white background, and in the Ğāmi' as-Sinānīya on a blue background. Different examples of local tile-production, such as rectangular tile-panels finished with small arches, can be found at the Takīya Sulaymānīya, Madrasa as-Salīmīya, Ğāmi' Darwīš Bāšā, Ḥammām al-Qīšānī (981/1573-74), Turbat Darwīš Bāšā, Ğāmi' Sinān Bāšā (fig. 16), Turbat Murād Bāšā (fig. 18), Masṭabat Sa'd ad-Dīn al-Ğibāwī in Mīdān (by 982/1574)²², Ğāmi' Sinān Āģā (972/1564-65)²³, and Turbat Muḥyī ad-Dīn ibn 'Arabī (decorated with tiles in 996/1588).

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²² For this building, see: Bahnasī, "al-Qāšānī", pp. 36 ff; Bakhit, Damascus, p. 182; Gaube, Arabische Inschriften, No. 191-93; al-Kawākibī, "al-Ḥayāt al-'Umrānīya", p. 185; Meinecke, "osmanische Architektur", p. 583; Sauvaget, Les monuments historiques, No. 72; Talas, Appendix, No. 273; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, C/16-3.

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II. 2. The formation of an Ottoman cityscape

An Ottomanization of the architecture of Damascus can be defined as demonstrated above. Without denying the local traditions, new elements of construction were integrated into the urban architecture of Damascus, marking it as unmistakably Ottoman but in Damascus with Damascene characteristics. Thus far, we have concentrated on the features and architectural expression of the buildings, but now we will turn to the change wrought in vast parts of the urban texture in Damascus. A true Ottoman city developed along the Darwisiya-Street extra muros in the West. Its main features are the Ottoman saray (the first Ottoman Governor Palace), and a series of important mosques of Ottoman governors which are closely connected to the new sūq-area intra muros. These are the three elements of the first Ottoman city. It will be called the "first Ottoman city" in contrast to the 'Tanzīmāt' city which emerged around the Marga-Square in the late 19th century.26

II.2.1. Darwīšīya-Street

Running along the western city wall from North to South, Darwisiya-Street developed into the most important, or even the Ottoman street, of Damascus. A number of large mosques and their attached foundations found their place here. For example, the now defunct Ğāmi* Tsā Bāšā (936/1529)27, the Takīya ad-Darwīšīya (as-Suvyās / al-Qassāsī),28 also defunct and undated, or the Ğāmi" Darwīš Bāšā (982/1574-75) and the Ğāmi" Sinān Bāšā (999/1591). This series of large-scale Ottoman waqf foundations begins in the North with the complex of Lālā Mustafā Bāšā (mosque of 974/1566, hān, hammām and sūgs of 971/1563-64)29 and of Qaramānī (hammām and mosque of 969/

²⁷ For this building, see: Ibn Ğum'a, al-Bāšawāt wa-'l-Quḍāt, p. 13; Pascual, XVI^e Siècle,

tab.1; al-Kawākibī, "al-Ḥayāt al-'Umrānīya", p. 185; Talas, Appendix, No. 221.

For this building, see: Sack, Damaskus, No. 4.24; Süriye Viläyetiniñ Säl-nämesi, vol. 21, (1306/1888-89), p. 147; Talas, Appendix, No. 150; Weber, "Marga-Platz", No. 77; Wulzinger

and Watzinger, Damaskus, C/4-3. ³⁹ For the mosque, see: Meinecke, "osmanische Architektur", p. 583; al-Kawākihī, "al-Hayāt al-"Umrānīya", p. 185; Pascual, XVI Siècle, tab.1; Sack, Damaskus, No. 4.1; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, D/2-2. See for the han (Han al-Baša): Bakhit, Damascus, p. 116; Ibn Ğum'a, al-Bāšawāt wa-'l-Qudāt, p. 15; Ibn Tülün, Qudāt Dimašq, p. 330; al-Kawākibī, "al-Hayāt al-"Umrānīya", p. 185; Meinecke, "osmanische Architektur", p. 583 Pascual, XVI^e Siècle, tab.1; Sack, Damaskus, No. 107; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, D/2-2 (?). For the hammām (Ḥammām ar-Ra's), see: Bakhit, Damascus, p. 116; M. Écochard and Cl. Le Cloeur, Les Bains de Damas, (Beirut, 1942-43), vol. II, pp. 91-94; Ibn Ğum'a, al-Bāšawāt wa-'l-Quḍāt, p. 15; Ibn Tülün, Qudāt Dimašq, p. 230; al-Kawākibī, "al-Ḥayāt al-Umrānīya", p. 185; Meinecke, "osmanische Architektur", p. 583; Pascual, XVF Siècle, tab.1; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, C/3-2 and for the suqs (Suq as-Şarrāfin and Suq Lālā Mustafā Bāšā): Bakhit, Damascus, p. 116.

³⁶ For the Marga-Square, see: St. Weber, "Marga-Platz" and St. Weber, "Ottoman Damascus of the 19th century. Art- and city development as an expression of changing times," Art Turk / Turkish Art. 10th International Congress of Turkish Art, Geneva, September 17-23, 1995, Geneva (1999), pp. 731-740.

1561)³⁰, and ends in the South with the Ğāmi' Murād Bāšā (terminated in 983/ 1575-76)³¹. The Darwīšīya-Street was the main road passing through the city, and as such was the ideal location for a display of Ottoman hegemony through physical manifestations. The political character of the street becomes evident when one looks at its function as part of the Darb al-Ḥaǧǧ directing the huge numbers of pilgrims towards the South. Thousands of pilgrims from all northern and eastern countries came together in Damascus each year to set out together for the Ḥiǧāz. The majority of them camped in the Marǧ of Damascus, right next to the Takīya as-Sulaymānīya. The pilgrims travelled down Darwīšīya-Street facing south, passing the Ottoman saray and most of the important mosques of Ottoman governors.

The Ottoman saray is built extra muros at the very beginning of the Darwīšīya-Street in front of Bāb al-Naṣr in the middle of the 16th century (fig. 20). The new men in power in this region seem carefully to have avoided the local notables, while the Mamluk governor had still resided intra muros at the Dār as-Sa'āda. The central state of the Ottomans concentrated its administrative forces extra muros. Only the new supreme court of the province (Maḥkamat al-Bāb, fīg. 21) was built inside the walls, but was next to the new Ottoman sūqs (see below) in the 16th century.

It is not easy to render this development meaningful. Do we deal with a kind of city-planning with a waqf as an urban nucleus or – let us say – as an deliberate urban impetus? Could this be compared to the re-urbanisation of Istanbul

³⁰ For these buildings, see: al-Gazzī, Luṭf as Samar, vol. II, p. 466, fn. 5; al-Kawākibī, "al-Ḥayāt al-"Umrānīya", p. 185; Talas, Appendix, No. 239.

³¹ For this building, see: Bakhit, Damascus, p. 117; Gaube, Arabische Inschriften, No. 153, 154; Ibn Ğum'a, al-Bāšawāt wa-'l-Qudāt, p. 16; al-Kawākibī, "al-Hayāt al-'Umrānīya", p. 186; Kremer, Topographie, p. 19; Meinecke, "osmanische Architektur", p. 584; Meinecke, mamlukische Architektur, vol. 1, p. 207; Pascual, XVI^e Siècle, tab.1; Sack, Damaskus, No. 4.76.; Talas, Appendix, No. 264; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, D/8-1.

³² The phenomenon of building the saray, the seat of the Ottoman governor, extra muros is not limited to Damascus. Compare: Raymond, al-'Awāṣim al-'Arabīya, pp. 32-36. The saray in Damascus was heavily remade between 1830-32, changed into the residence of the military governor in 1271/1854-55, and its last remains were destroyed by the French Mandate powers in 1945. Compare: Fn. 48 and Weber, Marga-Platz, No. 82.

³³ The Mamluks still used the Nuridic Dār al-'Adl south of the citadel as a court of law. The Mahkamat al-Bāb is first mentioned in court files of the late 16th century, but the location of the court changed several times at the beginning of the 16th century. During the twenties and thirties of the 16th century the court was held in the Madrasa al-Gawzīya, then in the Madrasa as-Sumaysātīya, then in the Madrasat al-Bādirā'īya, then again in the Madrasa al-Gawzīya, In 987/1579 the Qādī 'Alī ibn Sinān ar-Rūnī moved the court to the Bayt ibn Aslān south of the citadel. See: Ibn Tūlūn, Qudāt Dinašq, pp. 312, 333; Ibn Tūlūn, Hawādiṭ az-Zamān, vol. II, pp. 47, 89. Compare: Bakhit, Damascus, p. 120. For the Mahkamat al-Bāb; A. Rafeq, The Province of Damascus 1723-1783, (Beirut, 1966) p. 309; Sack, "intra muros", p. 280; Sack, Damaskus, No. 4.41; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, E/4-15. The Dar al-'Adl was partially destroyed by Ahmad Šamsī Bāšā, who build his takīya at this spot (see below). Its last remains were still visible around 1032/1622-23, when Qāsim al-Kurdī erected his building on the place of the former Dār al-'Adl. Compare: al-Muḥibbī, Ḥulāṣat al-Aṭar, vol. III, p. 293.

triggered by the erection of religious complexes by Mehmed II and his vizirs? This was a very common practice, as is demonstrated by the quarter of Darb al-Aḥmar in Cairo, where the Mamluk Sulṭān an-Nāṣir Muḥammad ibn Qalā¹ūn (693/1294 until 741/1341 with tow interruptions) had arranged for his Umarā¹ to built their complexes. Darwīsīya-Street is part of the Darb al-Ḥaǧǧ, or the Ṭarīq as-Sulṭānī, and furnishing this street with petite jewels of Ottoman architecture can be understood as the creation of an Ottoman self-image. There are nonetheless not enough examples to talk of an imperial program of construction or of imperial architecture in Damascus. An Ottomanization of the urban architecture in Damascus is not a declared goal, but it seems to be the product of a self-image by which high officials defined the city as Ottoman.³⁴

Sultan Selim I had tried, from the beginning of Ottoman rule, to integrate Damascenes into the empire, and it is probable that local notables themselves became promoters of the cultural change. The tomb of Muḥyī ad-Dīn ibn 'Arabī was restored right after the conquest and furnished with a takīya and a mosque by Sultan Selim I. On the other hand, he supported Šayḫs of mystical circles. During his stay in Damascus, Sultan Selim visited Šayḫ Ḥusayn al-Ğibāwī (d. 926/1519), who had played a key-role during the Ottoman conquest, in the Šayh's house. The Zāwīya al-Ğibāwīya was erected by the Sultan near the house of the Šayḫ. 35

The example of Muḥammad ibn Ḥalīl aṣ-Ṣamādī (d. 948/1541-42) who, with the financial support of Sultan Selim I, erected the Zāwīya aṣ-Ṣamādīya of the Qādrīya Order (aṭ-Ṭarīqa al-Qādrīya), was mentioned above. The erection of the Takīya al-Mawlawīya (993/1585)³⁶ and the undated Takīya ad-

³⁴ It is interesting to note that nearly every conquered city became Ottomanized in the same way. A process of Ottomanization of urban architecture took place after the conquest of Crete in the 17th century. Here no imperial decree was active, but rather a common idea of high ranking officials as to how an Ottoman city should look. See: I. A. Bierman, "The Ottomanization of Crete", in I. Bierman, R. Abou-el-Haj, D. Preziosi, The Ottoman City and its Parts, Urban Structure and Social Order, (New York, 1991), pp. 53-75.

³⁵ Compare Bakhit, Damascus, pp. 181-82. This is not to be confused with the Zāwīya as-Sa'dīya (962/1554-55) near the cemetery Bāb aṣ-Ṣagīr or the Mastabat Sa'd ad-Dīn al-Gibāwī (982/1574, enlarged twice in 995/1587 and 1005/1596-97) in Mīdān, and which was built by his son and grandson. The zāwīya of Ḥusayn al-Gibāwī was rebuilt, according to the inscription of 1311/1893-94. The importance of this building is proven by the fact that it was restored by Sultan Abdülharnid in the course of his politics of centralisation and Islamicization. The restoration inscription, with the tugrā' of the Sultan, mentions Abdülharnid explicitly. The restoration is also recorded in the official yearly report of the province of Syria. Compare: Sūrīye Vilāyetiniñ Sālnāmesi, vol. 31 (1317/1899-1900), p. 132. For the Zāwīya as-Sa'dīya (962/1554-55) near the cemetery in Bāb aṣ-Ṣagīr, see: Talas, Appendix, No. 122, and for the Masṭabat Sa'd ad-Dīn al-Gibāwī fn. 22.

³⁶ For this building, see: Ibn Gum'a, al-Bašawāt wa-'l-Qudāt, p. 19; al-Kawākibī, "al-Ḥayāt al-'Umrānīya", p. 186; Meinecke, "osmanische Architektur", p. 583, fn. 25; Pascual, XVI' Siècle, tab.1; Sack, Damaskus, No. 4.7; Talas, Appendix, No. 53; Weber, "Marga-Platz", No. 80; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, A/3-5.

Darwīšīya (as-Suyyās / al-Qaṣṣāṣī, not to be confused with the nearby mosque of Darwīš Bāšā) for the Mawlawī (Mevlevi) Order, are to be seen in this context. The same is true of the mosque of Murād Bāšā (976/1568-69 until 983/1575-76), which offered rooms to the Naqšbandīya Order. In this way parts of the society of Damascus were reached by Ottoman civil institutions. The objects of Ottomanization became carriers of Ottoman cultural institutions with membership in a tarīqa.

The individual patrons followed a unified concept even if central planning cannot be proved. This can only be explained through the acquisition of new elements of structure and design by means of a new cultural self-conception.

II.2.2. The sūq of Damascus

The Ottoman sūq encountered new urban territory in Damascus. The sūq finally moved from the trade centre of the earlier dynasties, around the Umayyad Mosque, along the Qaymarīya-Street, and the Via Recta, to the area south-west of the Umayyad Mosque. The contemporary Sūqs Ğaqmaq (Midḥat Bāšā), al-Ḥayyāṭīn, al-Qalbaqǧīya (Bāb al-Barīd), al-Ḥarīr, and al-Arwām formed the centre of the new commercial area of the city. In fact, the modern shape and structure of the sūq date from the 16th century onwards. The development of the sūq and Darwīšīya-Street was initiated by the same patrons for the most part, and has to be understood as a single, connected urban development. Some reasons for this phenomenon will be discussed here, before the evolution of the new Ottoman sūq of Damascus is described in detail.

The large waqf foundations played an especially important role in this development. Not only the Tarīq as-Sulţānī, but also the new commercial area, were shaped by the large waqfs. Like Aleppo, the city of Damascus witnessed a remarkable boom of waqf foundations. Sūqs, hāns and ḥammāms all settled in the new commercial area within the first hundred years after the Ottoman conquest. The Ottoman Empire was, in economic terms, a customs and trade union which also secured the long trade routes within the empire. The integration into the Ottoman Empire, and Damascus' special role for the Hagg. caused an economic boom which was manifested in the changing urban texture of the city. Members of prominent families and officials of the empire crossed the borders of the provinces to follow this economic boom, and invested in trade constructions all over the empire. Investors, like local governors or other high ranking officials, could expect high profits. Some of the high ranking officials showed an unusual energy. Sinān Bāšā, for example, invested in his huge complex at the Bab al-Gabiya two months before he became a grand vizir, and he still constructed public buildings in Damascus after the end of his governorship.37 Similar tendencies can be observed in Aleppo. Mu-

³⁷ Bakhit, Damascus, p. 118. On Sinān Bāšā, see: Pascual, XVF Siècle, pp. 32-35; and for an account of his enormous wealth: Ibn Ğum'a, al-Bāšawāt wa-'l-Qudāt, pp. 20-22.

ḥammad Bāšā, a son of Sinān Bāšā, erected trade buildings in Aleppo without ever holding political office in this town,³⁸

The installation of a waqf had an immense potential for integration into Damascene society at the socio-political level. This is illustrated by the example of Barawiz ibn 'Abdallāh, since they provided necessary social and political commodities. Amīr al-Umarā Barawīz (Parviz) ibn 'Abdallāh (d. 1015/ 1606-07) built a small mosque for himself close to his home next to the Hammām al-Bakrī, and after he left his official position he became its mu'addin and imām.39 The potential of a waqf for integration on a socio-political level was immense. The waqf of Sinān Bāšā, for example, provided 444 persons with livelihood, that is, livelihood for almost 444 families, 203 of whom lived exclusively in Damascus. 40 It is not to be forgotten that the waqfs were the economic insurance of high ranking government officials at a time in the last decades of the 16th century when the first signs of recession and decline had become evident. The hans and suqs were the sources of economic wealth during the beginning of economic crisis and inflation in 1584. This was true of mosques and madrasas as well, which secured the financial well being of individual notables. The desire for economic security was surely a motivation for construction activities.

Let us turn to the development of the Ottoman sūq. In Damascus, as in Aleppo, enormous transactions must have taken place to achieve the acquisition of appropriate plots of land. Several fires facilitated the erection of the new commercial area. The fire of the year 930/1524 destroyed the areas around Bāb al-Barīd and al-'Aṣrūnīya where the Ottoman trade institutions found their location later on. This event was the trigger for another important development. Still under the impact of the fire of the year 930/1524, the Qāḍī al-Quḍā' Walī ad-Dīn bin al-Farfūr built his new sūq from stone and most probably had the vaults covered with cupolas (932/1525-26). Nothing of its kind had existed among the sūqs in Damascus.

³⁶ Compare: H. Gaube and E. Wirth, Aleppo, Historische und geographische Beiträge zur baulichen Gestaltung, zur sozialen Organisation and zur wirtschaftlichen Dynamik einer vorderasiatischen Fernhandelsmetropole, (Wiesbaden, 1984), p. 137. More examples given there.

³⁰ Compare: K. Barbir, "From Pasha to Efendi: The Assimilation of Ottomans into Damascene Society, 1516-1783", IJTS, 1, (1979/80), p. 72. See for this building: al-Muhibbī, Hulāṣat al-'Aṭar, vol. I, p. 451; Talas, Appendix, No. 2; and for the restoration of 1069/1658-59: Gaube, Arabīsche Inschriften, No. 150; al-Kawākibī, "al-Ḥayāt al-'Umrānīya", p. 189; Sack, Damaskus, p. 108; Talas, Appendix, No. 2; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, I/3-2.

⁴⁰ Pascual, XVF Siècle, p.103.

⁴ Compare: Ibn Gum'a, al-Bāšawāt wa-'l-Qudāt, p. 8. For another fire in the sūqs north-west extra muros (taḥt al-Qal'a) in 927/1520, see: Ibn Gum'a, al-Bāšawāt wa-'l-Qudāt, pp. 2-3.

^{**}au-lam 'aḥad 'ilā mitl hādā fī-'l-'aswāq bi-Dimašq". Ibn Tūlūn, Qudāt Dimašq, p. 312. For this building, see: Ibn Tūlūn, Qudāt Dimašq, p. 312; al-Kawākibī, "al-Ḥayāt al-'Umrānīya", p. 184; Pascual, XVI Siècle, tab.1. Ibn al-Farfūr was perhaps inspired by his two journeys to Anatolia. Compare: Ibn Tūlūn, Qudāt Dimašq, pp. 309, 310. Further construction enterprises of the Qādī: Ibn Tūlūn, Qudāt Dimašq, pp. 312-13; Pascual, XVI Siècle, tab.1; Talas, Appendix, No. 172.

near the Tall al-Qāḍī was the first domed trade-building in Damascus, and is therefore of immense significance, as we will see. It is interesting to note that the first central dome in a mosque can be found in the same year at the Zāwīya as-Samādīya.

The construction of the Sūq al-Ḥayyāṭīn (950/1543)⁴³, around which a number of public buildings sprang up, is significant for the locality of the Ottoman sūq. The building-boom began in the fifties of the 16th century, judging from the remaining structures. Šamsī Aḥmad Bāšā founded a takīya (964/1557)⁴⁴, and the Sūq as-Sibāhīya (962/1554 until 963/1556)⁴⁵ south of the citadel. The sūq was possibly the first Ottoman trade building in this area and stood on the very location of the palace of the Mamluk governor, Dār al-Sa'āda, and the Mamluk court of law, Dār al-'Adl. The two most important Mamluk administrative institutions vanished completely when their land was usurped, and their remains were probably reused as construction material.⁴⁶

Of the takīya, only the Aḥmad Bāšā Mosque survived, having been completely renovated in this century, but the Sūq as-Sibāhīya corresponds to the modern Sūq al-Arwām (fig. 22). The Sūq al-Arwām is therefore the oldest existing and largely unchanged Ottoman trade building in Damascus.⁴⁷ It played an important role in the urban development of the city. This sūq was not only the point of departure for the later Sūq al-Ğadīd, dating from the late 18th century, and as such for the Sūq al-Hamīdīya of the late 19th century. Its significance lies in its close connection with the undated saray and the construction of the takīya and sūq of Aḥmad Šamsī Bāšā on the location of the Palace of the Mamluk Governor. The saray already existed towards the end of the 16th century, and it could have been erected by Aḥmad Šamsī Bāšā as a logical outcome of the destruction of the Dār as-Sa'āda.⁴⁸ The commercial area moved further west intra muros during the development of Darwīšīya-Street with its

⁴³ See: al-Kawākibī, "al-Ḥayāt al-'Umrānīya", p. 185.

⁴⁴ For this building, see: Ibn Tülün, Qudat Dimašq, p. 328; al-Kawäkibi, "al-Hayāt al-Tumrānīya", p. 185; al-Munağğid, Wulāt Dimašq, p. 5, fn. 2 (quotes al-Būrīnī); al-Muhibbi, Hulāşat al-Atar, vol. I, p. 18; Pascual, XVF Siècle, tab.1, p. 107, fn. 3; Sack, "intra muros", p. 276; Sack, Damaskus, No. 4.26; Talas, Appendix, No. 11; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, DM 2.

⁶⁵ For this building, see: al-Gazzī, Lutf as-Samar, vol. II, p. 653; Ibn Tūlūn, Qudāt Dimaīq, p. 328; Pascual, XVI^e Siècle, tab.1, pp. 101,107 fn. 3; Rafeq, The Province, p. 309; 'A. ar-Rīḥāwī, Damascus, its history, development and artistic heritage, (Damascus, 1977), pp. 74, 76; Sack, Damaskus, No. 4.25.

⁴⁶ The columns of the Där as-Saʿāda had already been reused in the construction of the mosque of Sultan Selim in aṣ-Ṣāliḥīya. Compare: Bakhit, Damascus, p. 16. Compare for the Där al-ʿAdl fn, 33.

al-*Adl fn. 33. 47 The Sūq al-Ḥayyāṭīn was decisively changed, and enlarged on the West-front at the end of the 19th century.

⁴⁸ The saray is mentioned on its location extra muros in the 16th century. Compare: al-Gazzī, Lutf as-Samar, vol. I, p. 192 and N. al-Gazzī, al-Kawākih as-Sā'ira fī A'yān al-Mā'iya al-'Āšīra II, p. 151, quoted after al-Munağğid, in: Ibn Ğum'a, al-Bāšawāt wa-'l-Quḍāt, p. 17, fn. 1, compare fn. 32.

mosques and the saray. Perhaps Aḥmad Šamsī Bāšā undertook the decisive step in this direction in the fifties of the 16th century.

A number of inner-city caravanserais sprang up, one after the other, *intra muros* in the west of the old city. The Hān al-Ğūhūya (973/1565-66, fīg. 23)⁴⁹ is the oldest dated hān of its time, with the possible exception of the undated southern part of the Hān aṣ-Ṣadrānī.⁵⁰ The trade buildings of Darwīš Bāšā and Murād Bāšā, not far north of the Hān al-Ğūhīya, constitute the actual commercial centre. Around the Sūq al-Qalbaqǧīya (Bāb al-Barīd) are situated the Hān and Sūq al-Ḥarīr (981/1573-74)⁵¹, the Ḥammām al-Qīšānī (981/1573-74) of Darwīš Bāšā, the Bedesten Murād Bāšā's (later Ḥān al-Ğumruk)⁵², the Ḥān al-Murādīya (1002/1593)⁵³, as well as the Qaysārīyat al-Ḥaramayn (1017/1608-09, the later Ḥān Šayḥ Qaṭanā al-Kabīr)⁵⁴ and the Coffeeshop al-Ḥaramayn (the later Ḥān Šayḥ Qaṭanā aṣ-Ṣaġīr, the structure of which was later changed considerably).⁵⁵

The Sūq al-Arwām and the Sūq Ibn al-Farfūr established the new construction type of the *bedesten* (a hall for shops which can be locked) in the city. The

⁴⁹ For this building, see: Kappert, "Osmanische Inschriften", pp. 107-08; al-Kawākibī, "al-Hayāt al-'Umrānīya", p. 185. Kremer, Topographie, p. 10; Pascual, XVIe Siè'Ie, tab.1; ar-Rihāwī, Damascus, p. 73; G. Saba and K. Salzwedel, Typologie der Chane in der Altstadt von Damaskus, (Hamburg, 1981), pp. 40-41 Sack, "intra muros", p. 281; Sack, Damaskus, p. 111; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, E/5-5.

For this building, see: Sack, "intra muros", p. 268; Sack, Damaskus, No. 4.37; M. Scharabi, "Der Süq von Damaskus und zwei traditionelle Handelsanlagen: Hän Ğaqmaq und Han Sulaiman Päsä", Damaszener Mitteilungen, 1, (1983), No. 11; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, F/4-10.

51 For the hān, see: Bakhit, Damascus, p. 117; Gaube, Arabische Inschriften, No. 68, 124; Ibn Gum'a, al-Bāšawāt wa-'l-Qudāt, p. 17, fn. 1 (the editor al-Munaggid quotes al-Gazzī here); al-Kawākibī, "al-Ḥayāt al-'Umrānīya", p. 186; Kremer, Topographie, p. 8; Meinecke, "osmanische Architektur", p. 585; Pascual, XVF Siècle, tab.1; Sack, "intra muros", p. 267; Sack, Damaskus, No. 4.34; Sauvaget, Les monuments historiques, No. 76; Scharabi, "Sūq von Damaskus", no. 3; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, F/4-6. For the Sūq al-Ḥarīr: Ibn Gum'a, al-Bāšawāt wa-'l-Qudāt, p. 17, fn. 1 (the editor al-Munaggid quotes al-Gazzī here); Pascual, XVF Siècle, tab.1; Sack, "intra muros", p. 281; Sack, Damaskus, No. 4.33.

52 For this building, see: Ibn Ğum'a, al-Bašawāt wa-'l-Qudāt, p. 23, Fn. 6; Kremer, Topographie, p. 9; Ş. al-Munağğid, "Hän Murād Bāšā, al-Bazzāstān", Mašriq, XLI, pp. 62-64; Pascual, XVI Siècle, tab.1, pp. 79 ff, 108-15; 'A. ar-Rīḥāwī, "Hānāt Madīnat Dimašq", AAAS, 25, (1975), pp. 62-63; Saba and Salzwedel, Typologie, pp. 49 ff; Sack, "intra muros", p. 266; Sack, Damaskus, p. 60, No. 4.30; Sauvaget, Les monuments historiques, No. 80; Scharabi, "Sūq von Damaskus", no. 14; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, E/4-2.

⁵¹ For this building, see: Ibn Gum'a, al-Båšawāt wa-'l-Qudāt, p. 23, Fn. 6; Pascual, XVI^e Siècle, tab.1, pp. 108; 110; 112; ar-Rīḥāwī, "Hānāt", p. 62; Saba and Salzwedel, Typologie, pp. 46-47; Sack, "intra muros", pp. 266-67; Sack, Damaskus, No. 4.28; Wulzinger and Watzinger,

Damaskus, E/3-11.
54 For this building, see: Kremer, Topographie, p. 9; Pascual, XVI Siècle, p. 113; ar-Rīḥāwī, "Hānāt", p. 63; Saba and Salzwedel, Typologie, pp. 44-45; Sack, "intra muros", p. 266; Sack, Damaskus, No. 4.29; Sauvaget, Les monuments historiques, No. 80; Scharabi, "Sūq von Damaskus", no. 15; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, E/4-3. Markaz al-Waṭā'iq at-Tārṭḥīya, 1212:33 (1321/1903).

59 For this building, see: Kremer, Topographie, p. 9; Pascual, XVI^e Siècle, p. 113. Markaz al-Watā'iq at-Tārīhīya, 1212:33 (1321/1903).

typical Ottoman dome *bedesten* found its most beautiful example in Damascus in the *bedesten* of Murād Bāšā (1017/1608-09, fig. 24). In this shopping street, 58 larger and eight smaller shops are lined up together with 40 depots. The most outstanding features of this *bedesten* are its originally nine well-rounded typical Ottoman domes, which are arranged in an L-shape. Even if Murād Bāšā calls the *bedesten* in its waqfīya "...demeurant au cours des temps, unique..."56, we have to note that already in 1553 a European traveller informs us about a *bedesten* 50 years earlier than the *bedesten* of Murād Bāšā and one year before the Sūq al-Arwām. This possible that he refers to the southern part of the Ḥān aṣ-Ṣadrānī, which can be dated to the 16th century, or the sūq of Ibn al-Farfūr, which had already been constructed as a domed trade building in 932/1525-26. Whether the latter initiated the exceptional form of the ḥāns in Damascus has to remain hypothetical, but the concept of a domed trade building like the *bedesten* had a strong influence on the shape of the ḥāns in Damascus.

What did the hans look like? Many hans, and several hammams that survived up to our days are early Ottoman foundations, such as the Han al-Gühīya (1565-66), Han al-Ḥarīr (1573-74), Han al-Murādīya (1593), Han az-Zayt (1601-02)58, the Bedesten Murād Bašā with the Qaysārīyat al-Ḥaramayn (Ḥān Sayh Qaṭanā, 1608-09), the Ḥān Ğaqmaq59 (in its present shape), and several other hans. Unfortunately no Mamluk han has survived in its original form, so we cannot determine the Mamluk influence on the Ottoman hān. A few of the Ottoman hāns follow the traditional Ottoman principles of construction. The Ḥān al-Ḥarīr, for example, with its closed galleries, and the Ḥān az-Zayt (fig. 25) with open galleries, correspond to the common elements of construction, a large court and galleries, similar to those elsewhere in the Ottoman Empire.

The oldest surviving Ottoman han of Damascus, Han al-Guhīya (973/1565-66, fig. 23), already differs clearly. It initially stood out by virtue of its original dome-arrangement, which no longer exists. The idea of covering buildings with domes was perhaps transferred from the bedesten to the han. If this conception originated in Damascus, it cannot be traced back to the Süq al-Arwam, which was topped with cross-vaults. The only possible models are the Sūq of Ibn al-Farfūr or even the undated southern part of the Han aṣ-Ṣadrānī. The

³⁶ Pascual, XVII Siècle, p. 79. The waqfiya contains the exact description of the building.
⁴⁷ Compare: L. D'Arvieux, Wasf Dimašą fi-'l-Qarn as-Sābi' 'Ašar, min Mudakkarāt ar⁴⁸ Torquei of Farcin Dimana edited by Ahmad Ibiš (Damascus, 1982), p. 73.

Rihāla al-Faransi al-Fāris Dārwyū, edited by Ahmad Ībiš (Damascus, 1982), p. 73.

See For this building, see: Sack, "intra muros", p. 279; Sack, Damaskus, No. 4.42; Sauvaget, Les monuments historiques, No. 75; Scharabi, "Sāq von Damaskus", No. 4; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, E/5-2.

For this building, see: Kremer, Topographie, p. 5; Pascual, XVI^e Siècle, tab.1; Sack, "intra muros", p. 280; Sack, Damaskus, No. 3.67; Scharabi, "Sūq von Damaskus", no. 1; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Damaskus, E/5-3.

bedesten of Murād Bāšā cannot have served as a model, since it was constructed 27 years after the Hān al-Ğūḥīya. The Hān al-Ğūḥīya, with its two domes placed behind each others, marks the very beginning of a special Damascene development of domed hāns, even if the origin of the idea is not totally clear. All over the city, one can find structures with one, two, three, or even four domes. This development reached its apogee in the Hān As'ad Bāšā al-'Azm (1753) and its famous nine domes (fig. 26). The impressive hall, with its four pillars supporting the domes, is a perfect example of the Ottoman understanding of space. The hāns, which are resplendent with local techniques and decoration, and which also represent a Damascene variation in structure, are nevertheless the product of an Ottomanization of the Damascene architectural language. The Hān As'ad Bāšā is the climax of the local Ottoman style of Damascus. This paradox, of an evolution of a pronounced local style and the contemporary permeation of Ottoman principles of construction, will be analysed in the following section.

III. THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN OTTOMAN LOCAL STYLE IN DAMASCUS

The Takīya as-Sulaymānīya played a decisive role in the importation of Ottoman forms of construction. Ottoman forms of building previously unknown in Damascus can be found in Damascus following the takīya's erection. The Takīya Sulaymānīya is of course a product of Ottoman central politics and central planning, but this is not sufficient to define the architecture of its time as imperial: all other buildings, to my knowledge, were locally planned and designed.61 The buildings erected shortly after Mimar Sinan's Sulaymānīya point towards a local Ottoman style. The development of a local style proceeds as a continued evolution of local, formerly Mamluk, forms, and of a simultaneous Ottomanization of the architecture of Damascus. This is no contradiction, since buildings develop with an Ottoman understanding of space and form and primarily local techniques of construction and decoration. It is here that the local techniques receive the decisive encouragement for a further development. The coloured pastes, especially, evolve into the typical Damascene element of decoration. The technique of filling carved stone with multi-coloured pastes began under the Mamluks. The use and modulation of this tech-

^{ev} For this building, see: Gaube, Arabische Inschriften, p. 67, No. 123; Kremer, Topographie, p. 5; Rafeq, The Province, p. 180; Sack, "intra muros", p. 283; Sack, Danaskus, No.; Sauvaget, Les monuments historiques, p. 115, No. 86; Wulzinger and Watzinger, Danaskus, pp. 81 ff., F/5-2.

of The significance of this overall quite small taktya is demonstrated by the fact that members of the sultanic family were buried here after they were exiled. Apart from the last Ottoman Sultan, Mehmed VI Vahideddin (1861-1926, Sultan between 1918-22) himself, many descendants of Abdülhamid II (1876-1909) and Mehmed VI rest here.

nique undergoes a pronounced change in the second half of the 16th century and first half of the 17th century (fig. 27) and lays the ground for the splendid colour pastes façades of the late 17th, 18th, and the early 19th centuries (fig. 28). Ottoman art in Damascus becomes strongly 'localised', a phenomenon which finds its parallels in the social-life of the city. The integration of Ottoman officeholders into Damascene society took place to a certain extent towards the end of the 16th century. This trend was manifested in art-historical terms as follows:

The Madrasa as-Salīmīya of Selim II (fig. 7 above left, 29), erected in the immediate neighbourhood of the Takīya as-Sulaymānīya, is an early and pleasant example of the fusion of different tradition of construction into a new concept. The fusion consists, basically, of an Ottoman plan of construction carried out by local craftsmen. They were ordered to erect an Ottoman building, using local construction techniques.

For the first time in Damascus a ground plan shows a typical Ottoman madrasa, with a rectangular court and a domed mosque at one end. The arcades with the living quarters, which enclose the courtyard, are covered with small domes using the typical folded capitals and pendentives. No Damascene drew this construction plan, but it was certainly implemented by local craftsmen. This becomes clear comparing the two domes. The wide and flat dome of the Takīya as-Sulaymānīya (fig. 10), with its lead cover, its sloping tambour and its small flying buttress, is a typical Ottoman dome. Eleven years later, the Madrasa as-Salīmīya presents a typical Damascene steep rising dome without a lead cover, with a polygonal drum (fig. 29). The origin of this form is to be traced back to examples from the Ayyubid and Mamluk periods. The building nevertheless remains an Ottoman construction with a central dome chamber which is connected internally by spherical pendentives. The pendentives used by the Ayyubids and Mamluks differ from the Ottoman ones in their decisively smaller construction. They never start at a low level, and they are often decorated with shallow muqarnas. The façade of the mosque of the Madrasa as-Salīmīya (fig. 30) uses Mamluk elements of decoration outside their context without copying them blindly. Such elements include pseudo-keystone-stripes, colour paste decoration and entwined ribbons.

All Ottoman buildings of the second half of the 16th century show the same tendency. The Darwišīya and Sinānīya mosque still uses the characteristic Mamluk combination of a portal topped with a minaret, but the minaret is now built in the Ottoman pencil-shape (fig. 11, 12). The façade is structured by using entwined ribbons, a feature commonly used in Mamluk miḥrābs. A structuring of the façade by using ribbons can be observed at the beginning of the 16th century at the west-gate of the Sibā'īya Mosque (fig. 31). The Ottomans

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adopted this feature, but changed the function of the ribbons. The ribbons not only structured and divided the buildings into different units, but were also used as frames for panels and cartouches. This form of decoration was applied extensively to street-façades under the Ottomans, even if it originated with the Mamluks.

The fountain of the Darwīšīya Mosque (fig. 32), a landmark in the emergence of a local Ottoman style, shows a structuring corresponding to that of the west-gate of the Sibā'īya Mosque (fig. 31). The same is true of the hāns, The portal of the Han al-Harir (981/1573-74, fig. 33), for example, shows the predominant structuring of the façade with ribbons. Small panels of decoration are divided extensively by ribbons here, as in many minor mosques and hans of this period. Isolated forms of decoration survive but are used in a new context, as for example are square panels formed by interwoven bands. This cannot be called a Mamluk influence, but is rather a continuation of a local tradition of design with some adaptations to a new contemporary style. The motif of the interwoven bands can still be found, with slight modifications, in the late 16th century, as in the Han al-Harir, where it is now part of a kaleidoscopic façade decoration assembled out of many small motifs. The buildings of Darwīš Bāšā have a special significance in this context (Ḥān al-Ḥarīr, Ġāmi' Darwīš Bāšā with attached buildings). They show, for the first time, the principles of this new lay-out of the façade, while the structure of the buildings is an importation of models from Istanbul. We encounter this phenomenon everywhere: The Ottoman structure of buildings is interpreted, and then covered with local forms of decoration which changed under the influence of Ottoman principles of decoration and form.

CONCLUSION

After a short period of architectural and administrative continuity following the Ottoman conquest, a period began in which the Ottomans set out to shape the urban landscape according to their ideas, and to change the urban texture. This is demonstrated by the first Ottoman city, its sūqs, the saray, and its Darwīšīya-Street extra muros.

The development of a local Damascene style started very early. The first central domed mosque and sūq were constructed in 932/1525-26, and we find an enormous input of Ottoman principles of design not later than the mid-16th century. An Ottoman city in Damascus emerged along Darwīšīya-Street and westwards *intra muros*, while an Ottomanization of the Damascene skyline was effected. The foundations of a distinct local Ottoman style in Damascus were laid in the last decades of the 16th century, and culminated in its most impressive artistic expressions in the 18th century. This local style can always be

distinguished as Ottoman, but the term Ottomanization does not mean Istanbulization in the sense of a simple plagiarization of the capital's art. It involves the assimilation of new principles of design into local planning. Ottoman patterns of construction and decoration were integrated into the language of urban architecture by developing further local traditions of decoration, and became a part of the local canon of forms. All buildings followed a more or less similar conception of shaping while not involving central state planning. The same can be said concerning the shape and the lay-out of buildings. By the mid-16th century, no single mosque, madrasa, or trade-building shows any signs of Mamluk organisation. Local traditions were not ignored, however, so that an Ottoman madrasa would be topped with a Damascene dome and a centrally-domed mosque would also possess a portal-minaret. Thus, in artistic, architectural and urban developments one can observe commonly accepted and internalised principles of design which were not declared publicly. The Ottomanization of Damascus' urban landscape must therefore be a result of a new cultural awareness which was displayed to the public. Darwīšīya-Street is more than an arterial road.



Fig. 32 Ğāmi' Darwīš Bāšā, fountain.



Fig. 31 Ğāmi' as-Sibā'īya, west-gate.



Fig. 29 Madrasa as-Salīmīya, courtyard.



Fig. 30 Madrasa as-Salīmīya, portal of the mosque.

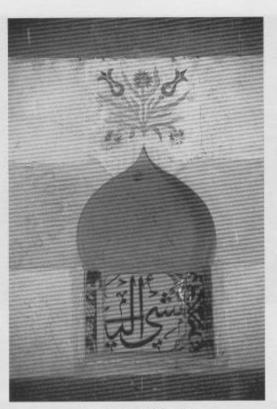


Fig. 27 Turbat Şalāḥ ad-Dīn.

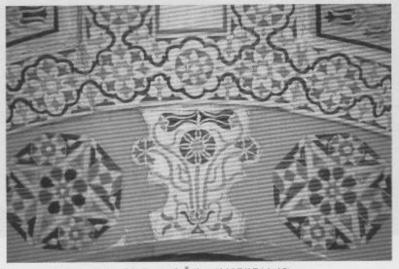


Fig. 28 Bayt al-Ğabrī (1107/1744-45).



Fig. 25 Han az-Zayt.

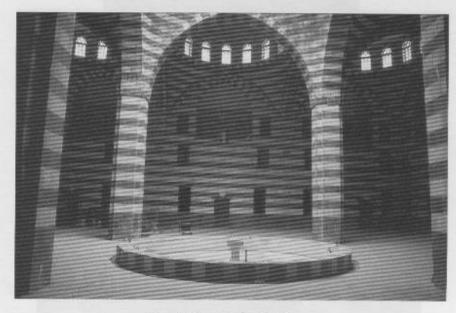


Fig. 26 Han As'ad Bāšā al-'Azm.



Fig. 24 Bedesten of Murād Bāšā.

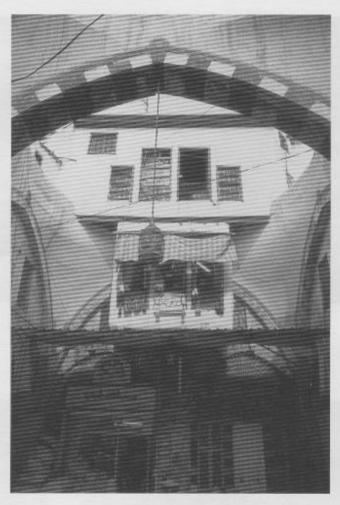


Fig. 23 Hän al-Ğühīya.



Fig. 21 Maḥkamat al-Bāb, supreme court.



Fig. 22 Sūq al-Arwām.



Fig. 19 az-Zāwīya aş-Şamādīya, tiles.



Fig. 20 Ottoman Saray, Sāḥat al-Mušīrīya (photo: IRCICA, c. 1880).



Fig. 18 Turbat Murād Bāšā, tiles.



Fig. 17 Turbat Şalāḥ ad-Dīn, tiles.



Fig. 15 Ğāmi' Sīyāģūš Bāšā.



Fig. 16 Ğāmi' Sinān Bāšā, tiles of the portal.



Fig. 13 Ğāmi' Murād Bāšā,



Fig. 14 Umayyad Mosque, south-eastern minaret.

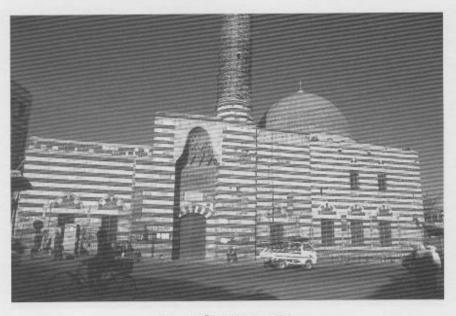


Fig. 11 Ğāmi' Sinān Bāšā.

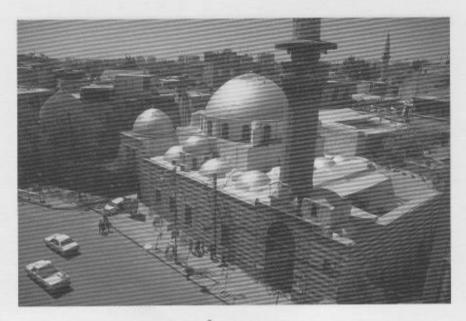


Fig. 12 Ğāmi' Darwīš Bāšā.



Fig. 9 at-Takīya as-Sulaymānīya, living units.

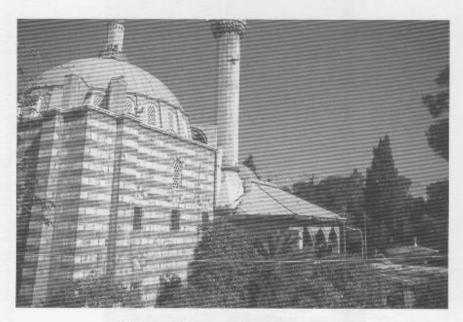


Fig. 10 at-Takīya as-Sulaymānīya, mosque.



Fig. 7 at-Takīya as-Sulaymānīya and al-Madrasa as-Salīmīya (photo: IFAPO, c. 1935).



Fig. 8 at-Takīya as-Sulaymānīya, mosque.

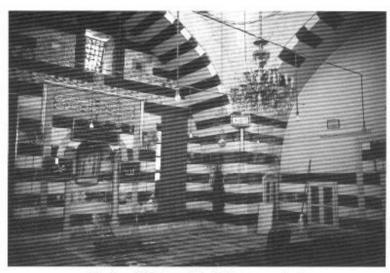


Fig. 5 az-Zāwīya aṣ-Ṣamādīya, prayer-hall.

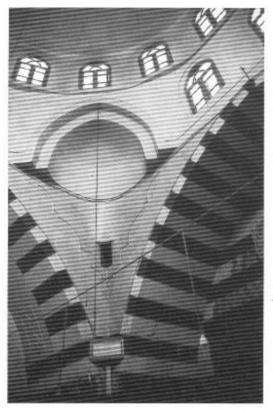


Fig. 6 az-Zāwīya aṣ-Ṣamādīya, prayer-hall.

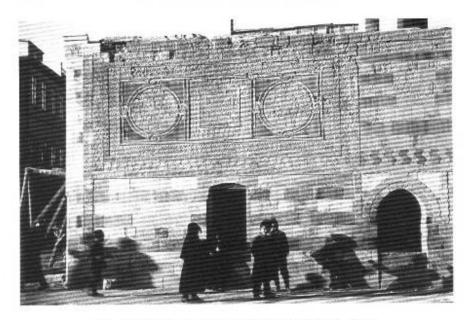


Fig. 3 Turbat Luṭfī Bāšā, façade (photo: DAI, c. 1917).

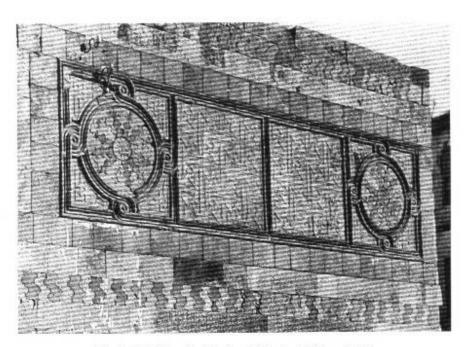


Fig. 4 Masğid as-Saqīfa, façade (photo: DAI, c. 1917).



Fig. 1 Ğāmi' as-Salīmī, prayer-hall.



Fig. 2 Ğāmi' as-Sibā'īya, prayer-hall.

Fig. 33 Ḥān al-Ḥarīr, portal.