his accession. The correct date for her death, 25 Jan. 1578, is given only by Gerlach, Tagebuch, 449; the date in Karačelebi-zāde, op. cit., 458, namely Dhu 'l-Ka'da 984/20 January-18 February 1577, is a whole year off She was buried beside her father in his türbe (tomb-mosque) in Istanbul. From her marriage with Rüstem Pasha, two sons and a daughter 'Ā'ishe Khānum were born; the latter married the grand vizier Semīr Ahmed Pasha and then the Nishāndji Ferīdūn Ahmed Beg (see A.D. Alderson, The structure of the Ottoman dynasty, Oxford 1956, Table XXX).

Bibliography: In addition to the references given in the article, see Mehmed Thüreyyä, Sidjill-i Sollmänī, i, 83; von Hammer, GOR, iii, 393, 425 and passim; a description of the circumcision festivals of her sons Djihängīr and Bāyazīd is given in the Turkish ms. no. 34, fol. 43a ff., in the Prussian State Library (cf. W. Pertsch, Verzeichnis, 66); Ahmed Refīķ, Kadīnlar saltanatī, Istanbul 1332/1914; I.H. Uzunçarşılı, Osmanlı tarihi, Ankara 1951-4, iii/1-2, index; Çağatay Uluçay, Haremden mektuplar, Istanbul 1956 (letters of Mihr-i Māh Sultān in the Topkapı Sarayı Archives); IA, s.v. Mihr-ü Mâh Sultan (M. Cavid Baysun).

MIHRĀB (A.), pl. $mah\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}b$, the prayer niche in the mosque.

Etymological origin of the word. In Islamic religious practice and in Islamic architecture, the word denotes "the highest place in a mosque", a "niche" which shows the direction of the kibla [q.v.], or "the station of the Imam in a mosque" (Lane, 1865, 541). The word includes the radicals h-r-b, from which comes the verb hariba, which in Form I means "to be violently angry", "to be affected by canine madness"; in Form II "to provoke", "to sharpen", or "to excite s.o."; in Form III "to fight", "to wage war with ...'', or ''to battle with...'' and in Form VI ''to make war'', or ''to wage war with one another''. Due to these definitions, some scholars expressed their doubts that mihrāb derives from the above verb. Lane put forward "... that the explanation of this is because the person praying wars with the devil and with himself by causing the attention of his heart" (loc. cit.). A similar interpretation was offered by Goldziher when he suggested that the mihrāb was a "place of struggle", a "battlefield", and he referred to the Prophet Muhammad who said that "as blood circulates in people, likewise Satan circulates around them" (Goldziher, 1872, 220). The above explanations are clearly not satisfactory. It was because of this difficulty that some scholars surmised that it was a loan-word in Arabic. Dillman tried to connect it with the Ethiopian mekwerab (Dillman, 1865, 836). The possible Ethiopian origin of the word and its connexion with mekwerab was refuted by Praetorius who, after studying some early South Arabian inscriptions. concluded that the word mihrāb at that time meant some kind of a building, but conceded that the origin of the word was still obscure (Praetorius, 1907, 621). Others, as e.g. Beer (1895, 19) and Daiches (1908, 637-9) tried to connect it with Hebrew horbôt which occurs several times in the Old Testament and means 'ruins'', "ruined cities", "ruined dwellings" or even "palaces" or "fortified buildings". This theory was again considered to be very unlikely by Nöldeke (1910, 52).

The majority of scholars have never doubted that the word is Arabic and, accordingly, have tried to find its provenance and original meaning by examining pre-Islamic Arab literature and one of the earliest and most important sources of the Islamic period, the

Kur²ān. Rhodokanakis was one of the first scholars to study these early sources and to publish his observations in two articles. In the first article he concluded that the word in pre-Islamic literature meant a "palace", a "niche", a "recess" or a "room" o "palace", a "niche", a "recess" or a "room", a "balcony" or a "gallery". Then he quoted a sentence from the hadīth where the word can be interpreted as 'sanctuary'' (Rhodokanakis, 1905, 296). In his second article, Rhodokanakis narrowed down the meaning of the word and suggested that it actually referred to a part of a king's or a prince's building, namely to a "meeting-room", or more precisely to a "throne-recess" within such a room, as mentioned in Kur³ān, XXXIV, 12. Such throne-recesses can be found, Rhodokanakis continued, in the Umayyad palaces such as Kuşayr 'Amra and Mshatta (we can now add also Khirbat al-Mafdjar). In other verses of the Kur'an, namely in XIX, 12, it refers to a "sanctuary", while in III, 36, the word is used for "a lady's private chamber" (see also Dozy, 1927, i, 265). Rhodokanakis mentions that in XXVIII, 21, it was not clear whether the Prophet meant a complete "palace" or only a "chamber" (Rhodokanakis, 1911, 71). Horovitz referred to some of the occurrences in pre-Islamic poetry, among them one of al-Acshā's poems (al-Buḥturī, Ḥamāsa, CDIV, 4) where the word, he claimed, meant a "throne-recess" (Horovitz, 1927, 260). In a more recent article, Serjeant explained that the basic meaning was a "row of columns with their intervening spaces". He also suggested that under the Umayyads, "while retaining its other senses, it was the name given to the makṣūra [q.v.] (Serjeant, 1959. 453). Maḥmūd 'Alī Ghūl claimed that the ancient South Arabian midhkān was almost identical in usage with the miḥrāb. It was a kind of masdjid or muşallā [q.vv.], or even a "burial place in the shape of a portico, place for prayers, and services for the dead" (Ghūl, 1962, 331-5). In connexion with this last interpretation, the present author in an article called attention to the fact that flat marble, stucco, stone, or faience mahārīb strongly resemble tombstones. Tombstones from early Islamic times onward frequently depict a mihrāb design. He re-examined one of al-A'shā's poems (al-Buḥturī, Ḥamāsa, CDIV. 4) where the word miḥrāb occurs and suggested that it can be interpreted as a "burial place", as opposed to Horovitz's explanation as a "throne-recess" literary examples also use the word in the same context (Fehérvári, 1972, 241-54; also, idem, 1961, 32 f.). From these interpretations it would appear that in pre- and in early Islamic times, the word mihrāb was basically used for a special place within a "palace" or in a "room"; it was "the highest", "the first" and "the most important place". At the same time it also denoted "the space between columns" and was equally used for a "burial place". Its architectural origin and introduction into Islamic religious practices as the most prominent feature in a mosque should be examined from these various angles.

Architectural origin. In his EI¹ article on the mihrāb, Diez mentioned that orientalists and art historians give a twofold origin for the mihrāb: the Christian apse and the Buddhist niche (Diez, 1936, iii, 485). Both features were alien to the Arabs and were not required by Islamic religious practices. Thus it could never have been introduced and accepted by the early Muslims without an adequate theological explanation. As an architectural feature, the miḥrāb is made up of three basic elements: an arch, the supporting columns and capitals, and the space between them. Whether in a flat or in a recessed form, the miḥrāb gives the impression of a door or a doorway.

The application of this feature can be as varied as the pre- and early Islamic meaning of the word suggests. The idea of a decorated recess or a doorway in the form of what we know and accept today as a mihrāb goes back to remote antiquity in the Near East. In its secular sense it was used in palaces as a raised platform with a dome above supported by four columns under which the divine ruler carried out his most important functions (Smith, 1956, 197). It was a royal baldachin, "the first place" in a madilis, a "thronerecess". In its religious context it was a "sanctuary", fixed or portable, under which the cult images were placed and were provided with a shelter. The tradition of these domical shelters can be traced back to some of the tent traditions of the Near East, particularly to those among the Semitic people (Smith, 1950, 43; idem, 1956, 197). Such domical tents or structures were also used over burial places. These ancient oriental traditions were later adopted by Judaism and Christianity. The direction of prayer and divine service in ancient religions, particularly in Judaism, added greater importance and widened the scope of these antique traditions. Orientation was especially important among the Semitic peoples and it was not a matter of choice. The Jews turned towards Jerusalem, and in this respect all monotheistic people looked up to the Jews and followed their practice (Krauss, 1922, 317). Early synagogues, however, had no orientation; only the prayer was directed towards Jerusalem. The Ark of the Law, the Paron ha-kodesh, had no permanent place in the building. It was only in the second phase of the development of synagogue architecture that it received a permanent station within the building, an apse or a niche which was orientated towards Jerusalem (Sukenik, 1934, 27). The earliest known synagogue with such an apse was excavated at Dura-Europos dating from the 3rd century A.D. (Lambert, 1950, 67-72; Goodenough, 1953, figs. 594-5, 599). From subsequent centuries there are several other examples known, some of these depicting the Ark in mosaic decoration on the floor of the apse (Hachlili, 1976, 43-53). The essential part of these decorations include a pair (or two pairs) of columns supporting a semicircular arch framing a conch, while below, within the columns, the Ark is shown as a pair of doors, thus symbolising a doorway, the portal of the life beyond, or the "portal of the dead" (Goldman, 1966, 101 f.). Christianity followed the same tradition. Early churches had an east-west orientation, the entrance was facing the east and the altar was towards the west. There was usually an apse, a haykal, with a pulpit. Churches and funerary chapels (martyria) generally had a large dome in Syria and in Palestine, not because of the structural function but rather because of the importance attached to this form (Smith, 1950, 92). The domical form with a portal below was frequently depicted on coins from the 4th century A.D. onwards (Smith, 1950, figs. 17-21), and later appears on tombstones (Goldman, 1966, 105). The form of the Christian and Coptic apse was so strikingly similar to a miḥrāb that it was not surprising that Arabic sources mention it as a feature borrowed from Christian churches (Lammens, 1912, 246; Creswell, 1932, 98).

The form was, however, not unfamiliar to the Arabs. Pre-Islamic sanctuaries in Arabia had a round tent, a kubba [4]v.] over their idols or over some of their burials (Lammens, 1920, 39-101; idem, 1926, 39-173). It seems reasonable to surmise that the Arabs wanted to preserve this ancient Semitic Arabian custom, but intended to dress it in an Islamic garb by offering a new interpretation to the pagan tradition.

By examining the life of the first Muslim community in Medina we may understand how and why this feature was adopted and introduced into Muslim religious practices. During his lifetime the Prophet was not only a religious leader, but also a statesman who used the first primitive mosque in Medina not only as a place for communal prayer but also for public ceremonies where he received delegations and delivered judgements. He used to sit on his minbar [q,v] which was set against the kibla wall. Thus in the strictest contemporary interpretation of the word, the place was a mihrāb. When the Prophet died he was buried in a room next to the kibla wall, whereby in every sense his grave was in a mihrāb, coinciding with the definition of a "burial place". His grave was most probably marked, we may presume, with a stone which included in its decoration all the elements already known from Judaic and Christian funerary art. That this must have been the case is perhaps attested by the references given by Ibn Rusta and Ibn Battūta (Fehérvári, 1972, 252). Furthermore, there is ample evidence suggesting that early $mah\bar{a}r\bar{t}b$ were not recessed niches but flat panels reminiscent of tomb-

History. Primitive Islam and the Umayyad period. After the Prophet's death, in the early primitive mosques the miḥrāb was indicated by a stripe of paint or by a block of stone embedded in the kibla wall. It appears that this practice was followed for a considerable time, since al-Makrizi informs us that when 'Amr b. al-'As built his mosque at Fusţâţ in the winter of 20/641-2, he placed "no hollow mihrāb" in it (Khitat, ii, 247). In the Prophet's mosque at Medina, the kibla was indicated by a large block of stone which was first placed to the north, i.e. towards Jerusalem, but in the second year of the Hidjra was moved to the south side, facing Mecca (Burton, 1893, 361). In the earliest mosque at Wāsiṭ, built by al-Ḥadidjādj b. Yūsuf [q.v.], the excavators found no miḥrāb recess (Safar, 1945, 20). This was also the case in the mosque of Banbhore in Pakistan, built at the end of the 1st/early 8th century (anon., in Pakistan Archaeology, i [1964], 52). That must indicate that in both cases the kibla was most likely marked either by a flat stone or by a stripe of paint.

The earliest known surviving miḥrāb is a marble panel known as the mihrāb of Sulaymān in the rock-cut chamber under the Kubbat al-Sakhra [q.v.] in Jerusalem (Pl. I, 1). Creswell has already indicated that this was most likely the earliest surviving miḥrāb. His argument was based on the shape of the arch, on the primitive Kūfic inscription on the lintel, and the simple scroll motif on the arch and the rectangular frame (Creswell, 1932, i, 70, pl. 120a in ii; idem, 1969, i/l, 100, fig. 374). Several other points can now be added to Creswell's remarks. The crenellations and pearl motifs on top of the panel recall pre-Islamic, i.e. Sāsānid, monuments with identical decorations. The vertical bands down the pilasters are similar to those on the mosaics of the circular arcade and on the drum of the dome (Creswell, 1932, figs. 189-9, 201, 205, pls. 33b, 37b). Further evidence is provided by coins depicting mihrāb designs on their reverse, most likely accepting the miḥrāb of Sulaymān as their model (Miles, 1952, 156-71; idem, 1957, 187-209, nos. 7-8; idem, 1959, 208, pl. I/1; Fehérvári, 1961, 90-105). All of these coins are attributed to the period when Abd al-Malik introduced his financial reforms in 75/694-5.

The first concave miḥrāb, i.e. miḥrāb mudjawwaf, was introduced by 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz, governor of Medina, when he rebuilt the Prophet's Mosque in 87-

8/706-7 (al-Maķrīzī, Khiṭaṭ, ii, 247; Ibn Taghrībirdī, al-Nudjūm al-zāhira, i, 76). It was richly decorated with precious material (Sauvaget, 1947, 83-4). After that, semicircular maḥārīb rapidly spread throughout the Muslim world. Such a mihrāb was introduced into the Great or Umayyad Mosque at Damascus when al-Walīd I took over the entire building and rebuilt it between 87/706 and 96/714-15. According to early accounts, it was set with jewels and precious stones. This mihrāb was destroyed in 475/1082 and then was subsequently rebuilt but destroyed again by fire in 1893. The third concave mihrāb was built in the Mosque of CAmr at Fustat in 92/710. Semicircular mahārīb flanked by pairs of columns were found in almost all of the Umayyad desert palaces (Creswell, 1932, fig. 438, pl. 120b, e; idem, 1969, i/2, figs. 538, 638, pls. 66 f., 103e and 115b). The earliest surviving concave miḥrāb in a mosque is, according to Cresswell, in the Mosque of 'Umar at Boşrā, built during the late Umayyad period (1969 i/2, 489, fig. 544, pl. 809).

Irāķ. The Khāşşakī miḥrāb in Baghdād (Pl. I, 2) is the earliest known surviving example in the country, as it may date from the end of the Umayyad or from the beginning of the Abbasid period (Sarre and Herzfeld, 1920, ii, 139-45, Abb. 185-7, Taf. XLV-XLVIa-d; Creswell, 1940, 35-6, fig. 26, pl. Ia-c; al-Tutunčī, 54-62, figs. 3-5, pl. 4). It was carved out of a simple block of marble in a shallow semi-elliptical form. The spiral columns are crowned by acanthus capitals which support the bell-shaped niche-head, which is framed by a frieze of acanthus leafs, followed by a narrow stripe of astragals and a band of palmettes alternating with bunches of grapes. A vertical ornamental band runs down at the back, the lower part of which is missing. The most interesting part of the design is the shell which is contained within a horseshoe shape. The shell as niche-head occurred for the first time in a grotto at Bāniyās in Syria, dating from the 1st century B.C. (Wheeler, 1857, 37). Later, it was frequently used in classical art but was more popular in the eastern part of the Roman Empire. The motif was associated with funerary monuments and as such was often depicted in Jewish and in early Christian sepulchral art. The rounded shape of this miḥrāb and the fact that it was made of marble, which was not available in 'Irāķ, may indicate that it was imported from Syria or from the southern part of Asia Minor. As a rule, mihrāb niches are rectangular in Trak and in Persia. The origin of this form may be found either in the rectangular recesses of Nestorian churches in Trāķ or in the Persian īwān [q.v.]. The earliest known rectangular mihrāb in the country survives in the fortress palace of Ukhaydir, dating from the latter half of the 2nd/8th century (Creswell, 1940, pl. 120e; al-Tutunčī, figs. 6-9, pl. 5). Maḥārīb which were erected in mosques, palaces and in private houses at Samarra mark the first turning point in the development of this feature in Islamic religious architecture. The significant role of the maḥārīb was emphasised by their size, which became considerably larger during the 3rd/9th century, e.g. in the Great Mosque of Sāmarrā (Creswell, 1940, pl. 66c) or in the Mosque of Abū Dulaf, where the excavators discovered two miḥrābs, one within the other (Francis, 1947, pls. 5/1-2; al-Tutunčī, figs. 15-7, pl. 9). By then, they were more lavishly decorated with carved stucco. A large miḥrāb with stucco decoration was excavated in the Djawsak al-Khakani palace in Sāmarrā, built by the caliph al-Mu^ctaşim between 224/838 and 228/842, close to his throne-room. The niche was more than one metre deep and was flanked by two pairs of columns. The walls of the niche and the columns were coated with stucco (Herzfeld, 1923, Abb. 132; Creswell, 1940, fig. 191). Flat miḥrāb panels were used in smaller mosques, mausolea and in private houses. The prototype for these flat maḥārīb was clearly provided by the mihrāb of Sulaymān in Jerusalem. Évidence for this is to be found in the miḥrāb of the Djāmic al-CUmariyya at Mawsil. It is made up of six panels, the lowest central one being the earliest, probably of the 3rd/9th century, and a close copy of Jerusalem flat mihrāb (Sarre and Herzfeld, 1911, ii, 285-6, Abb. 275, Taf. CXXXV). Several stucco flat mahārīb were discovered in private houses in Sāmarrā, presenting all the three styles of the Sāmarrā stucco decorations (Herzfeld, 1923, Abb. 167-70, 269-60, 316, Taf. LXII and XCVII). An interesting combination of flat maḥārīb can be seen in two small mausolea in Mawsil, the Mausoleum of Yaḥyā b. Kāsim (Pl. II, 3) and in the Mausoleum of Imām 'Awn al-Dīn (al Tutunčī, fig. 59, pl. 34), both erected during the 7th/13th century (Sarre and Herzfeld, 1911, 249, 263-8, Taf. CXXXV). These two maḥārīb are almost identical. They are made up of two flat panels showing the correct kibla direction. In each of these two mihrābs there is a mosque-lamp hanging down from the pointed arch.

Out of the later rectangular maḥārīb in Irāķ, mention should be made of the main prayer niche of the Great Mosque in Mawsil which appears to be a combination of flat and rectangular types (al-Tutunčī, figs. 34-6, pls. 17-9). It is flanked by a pair of octagonal pilasters decorated by intertwined scrolls and crowned by what Herzfeld called "lyra" capitals (Sarre and Herzfeld, 1911, ii, Abb. 230-3). The spandrels and the canopy have rich arabesque decoration. Below, at the back of the recess there is a decorated panel showing a pair of spiral pilasters on bell-shaped bases and topped by identical capitals supporting the arabesque-decorated spandrels and canopy. miḥrāb may also be regarded as a transitional form between the simple and multi-recessed maḥārīb that played an important role later in Persian religious architecture. The inscription round the niche bears the signature of the artist, one Mustafa from Baghdad, and the date 543/1148 (Van Berchem in Sarre and Herzfeld, 1911, i, 17; Herzfeld, 1911, ii, 216-24). There was a free-standing mihrāb built of stone in the courtyard of this Great Mosque in Mawsil, but it was moved to the 'Abbasid Palace Museum in Baghdād. It was attributed to Nūr al-Dīn Arslân Shâh \bar{I} (589-607/1193-1211). It has two recesses, the outer one being rectangular in plan while the inner one set back from it is pentagonal. There is an interesting innovation here, namely, the frame is composed of small compartments (Sarre and Herzfeld, 1911, i, 18, ii, 227, Taf. V; Francis, 1951, pl. 3, no. 10; al-Tutunčī, fig. 38, pl. 20). A similar frame, but decorated with human figures, appears around a niche that was discovered near Sindjar on the site of Gū Kummat and which might have been a miḥrāb (Reitlinger, 1938, 151-3, figs. 14-7; Francis, 1951, pl. 5, no. 16; al-Tutunčī, figs. 39-9, pls. 29-30). The marble miḥrāb of the Pandja 'Alī in Mawşil (built in 686/1287) can be regarded almost as a triple mihrāb since the central pentagonal recess is flanked by a small niche on either side. All three recesses are crowned by mukarnas [q,v] semi-domes, while each panel in the central niche is decorated by a hanging mosque-lamp (Sarre and Herzfeld, 1911, ii, 270-8, fig. 268, Taf. VII; Francis, 1951, pl. 2, no. 5).

Syria and Palestine. Maḥārīb were usually concave in these countries, but flat panels were used from time to time. A small and somewhat simple marble

miḥrāb panel decorates the first pilaster under the western portico in the Umayyad Mosque in Damascus. It is attributed to the Tūlūnid period (Creswell, 1940, ii, pl. 123c). Another flat miĥrāb, a stucco panel, probably of the same period, is in the Maķām 'Abd al-'Azīz at al-Gharrā. Two pairs of pilasters support the rectangular frame which surrounds the richly decorated canopy and spandrels (Herzfeld, 1910, 53-6, Abb. 18, Taf. IV-V; idem, 1923, Taf. LXXVIII; Creswell, 1940, 356, pl. 121c). Rectangular mahārīb with stucco decoration came to light during the excavations at Meskene, ancient Bālis [see MASKANA]. One of these was in the central room of the Great Mosque. Another triple miḥrāb with a central deeper rectangular recess flanked by shallow openings was found in room no. 1, while a third one was in room no. 2 (Salles, 1939, 221-4, pls. XCIXa-b, Ca). Two stucco mihrābs, almost identical in shape and decoration were discovered at Palmyra. The shallow semicircular niches are flanked by pairs of pilasters supporting round arches, with shell-shaped canopies inside. The spandrels have arabesque decoration and the panels are surrounded by floriated Kūfic inscriptions. Marble coating for mahārīb was first introduced in Syria, which was always rich in this material. As one of the possible prototypes and earliest examples for these polychrome marble-lined maḥārīb, the one in the Madrasa Shādbakhtiyya in Aleppo, made of polychrome stones, should be considered. An interesting innovation can be observed here: the upper part of the miḥrāb, namely the rectangular frame surrounding the spandrels, is much wider than the lower part (Herzfeld, 1942, fig. 72; Sauvaget, 1931, 79, no. 21; Creswell, 1959, 103). The same form can be observed in the polychrome marblelined miḥrāb of the Madrasa Sultāniyya in Aleppo, dated 620/1223 (Herzfeld, 1921, 144; Creswell, 1959, 102). A slightly earlier and similar example can be found in the Madrasa Ashrafiyya (607/1210). Polychrome marble work, however, reached its apogee in the miḥrāb of the Madrasa al-Firdaws, erected in 633/1235 (Pl. II, 4). It is the most developed and the largest of the polychrome marble prayer niches. The spandrels depict skilfully interlaced ornaments, the lines of which also form the frame of the upper part. Above there is a semi-circular panel filled by three coloured interlacing patterns and framed by an inscription. This type of marble-work found its way to Egypt and greatly influenced the decoration of later Ayyūbid and Mamlūk maḥārīb in Cairo. An interesting example of polychrome marblework is a small flat mihrāb in the courtyard of the Bimāristān Nūr al-Dīn in Damascus which was built in 549/1152. It is of white marble, but the arch and the spandrels have polychrome marble decoration. Creswell attributed it to Mahmud b. Zankī b. Aksunkur, whose name appears in an inscription on the building and the date of construction. Creswell has also suggested that this was the earliest marble mosaic work (Creswell, 1959, 202). On stylistic grounds, however, Herzfeld claimed that it must have been erected at least a century later, possibly in the late 7th/13th century (Herzfeld, 1942, 10).

Egypt. The first concave miħrāb in the country was built by Kurra b. Sharīk [q.v.], governor of Egypt, in 92/710-11, in the Mosque of CAmr at Fustāt. The structure of the main miħrāb in the Mosque of Ibn Tūlūn (265/878-9) is original and so are its four flanking columns and capitals. The polychrome marble of the recess and the wooden lining of the canopy and that on the archivolt are later in date (Creswell, 1940, 348-9, pl. 122; Fattal, 1960, 22-4, pls. 10-11). There

are five flat maḥārīb in the mosque, two of which are contemporary with the building. They are placed on piers in the fourth arcade of the sanctuary. One of them is badly damaged, but the other one is well preserved (Creswell, 1940, 349, pls. 123a-b; Fattal, 1960, 24-5, pls. 17, 18 and 29). The two panels must have been almost identical. A pair of pilasters on bellshaped bases and topped by identical capitals support a pointed arch, the outline of which can also be observed on the damaged panel. A row of pearl motifs provides the border for both and an inscription runs across on top. A difference can be noted in the decoration of the spandrels and in the spaces below the arches within the pilasters. In both instances the influence of Sāmarrā is obvious, just as it is evident in the overall plan and decoration of the mosque. The main mihrāb of the Mosque of al-Azhar, built between 359/969-70 and 361/971-2, although several times altered and restored, still retains some of its original decoration. The canopy with its elaborate and deeplycut floral design, the soffit of its arch covered by finely executed scrollwork, together with the floriated Kūfic inscription on the archivolt, are most probably of the same period as the mosque (Creswell, 1952, 55-6, pls. 4a, 7c; Hill, Golvin and Hillenbrand, 1976, fig. 22). This original stucco work was covered by a wooden lining until 1933 (for a picture of this, see Hautecour and Wiet, 1932, ii, pl. 91). The marble lining of the niche and the flanking columns are much later in date.

One of the finest stucco maḥārīb in Cairo which survives in its original form, is that of the Mosque of al-Diuyūshī, built in 478/1085 (Pl. III, 5). Its stucco decoration, after that of the Mosque of Ibn Tūlūn, and that of the al-Azhar, is the third outstanding example in Egypt. The design here is nevertheless richer and more refined (Creswell, 1952, 157-9, fig. 80, pls. 48c, 116a; Hill, Golvin and Hillenbrand, 80, figs. 31-2). None of the prayer niches built in Egypt in the following two centuries has ever surpassed it. The decoration of the Sayyida Atika, built during the first quarter of the 6th/12th century, is more restrained but presents some new ideas. The frame, which is an epigraphic band, does not surround the entire niche, but only its stilted and pointed arch; then it turns at right angles and runs all around the interior. Furthermore, in the spandrels there are large fluted paterae in high relief surrounded by pearl motifs. Finally, above there is a geometric band of overlapping ovals (Creswell, 1952, 229-30, pls. 80e, 117b). Somewhat similar but more elaborate patterns appear above the maḥārīb of the Mausoleum of Sayyida Rukayya, built in 527/1133 (Pl. III, 6). The horizontal panel over these mahārīb recall the Sāmarrā ornaments (Creswell, 1952, 249, fig. 143, pls. 87b, 119c-d, 120a; Hill, Golvin and Hillenbrand, 82, figs. 37-8). All the recesses in this building have scalloped canopies. Three phases can be observed in the development of these canopies. In the first phase, the slightly projecting frame follows the outline of the scallop. One of the earliest examples of this is the miḥrāb of Umm Kulthūm, built in 516/1122 (Creswell, 1952, 239-40, fig. 135, pls. 82b, 118b). The second phase of the development is connected with the mukarnas, where the frame of the scallop is combined with mukarnas cones, placed in one, two or three lines above the other (e.g. the mahārīb of the Sayyida Rukayya). The third phase was used in Turkey and will be discussed further below. There are two stucco miḥrābs in Cairo which present a special group. They are triple-recessed. The earlier of these two is in the mausoleum of Ikhwat Yūsuf, built during the last

quarter of the 6th/12th century (Creswell, 1952, 235-6, pl. 118a). These recesses here are plain, but their upper parts are surrounded by a continuous band of floriated Kufic which runs all around the interior of the building. The spandrels are filled by carefullyexecuted arabesques which are comparable to earlier stucco work in Cairo and accordingly may indicate an earlier date for this mihrāb. The decoration of the second triple-miḥrāb, in the mausoleum of Muṣṭafā Pasha (middle of the 7th/13th century), is so deeply cut that it looks like openwork. The recesses here have keel-arches which most probably originated in Egypt and were widely used there during the 6th/12th and 7th/13th centuries (Creswell, 1959, 178-80, pls. 57c, 107c). An interesting and somewhat bold experiment can be observed in the mihrāb of the mausoleum of Ahmad b. Sulayman al-Rifaci, erected in 690/1291 (Pl. IV, 7). The kibla wall has pieces of glass embedded in the stucco background and these are painted in green (Creswell, 1959, 220-1, pl. 109c; Lamm, 1927, 36-43). The experiment was not successful and was never attempted again.

It has already been pointed out that the polychrome marble-work of Syria had greatly influenced miḥrāb decorations in Egypt from the mid-7th/13th century onwards. One of the earliest examples is the comparatively simple but very large mihrāb in the mausoleum of Nadim al-Dīn, built in 647-8/1249-50 (Creswell, 1959, 102, pl. 106c). A marble lining for the main mihrāb of the Mosque of Ibn Tūlūn was executed at the order of Ladjin [q.v.] in the same year, and that of the Mosque of al-Azhar in 665/1266. The miḥrāb of the Madrasa of Kalāwūn [q.v.] and the almost identical one in his mausoleum, both erected in 684/1285 (Pl. IV, 8), are perhaps the most outstanding examples of polychrome marble work in Egypt. Both niches are of horseshoe shape instead of the conventional concave one. Inside of the mihrāb in the mausoleum there are four rows of small arcades, each crowned by a shell, while in that of the madrasa there are only two rows. The canopies and the spandrels of these two mihrābs are covered with gold mosaic, showing grapes and vine leaves. The arches are also horseshoe-shaped, being made up of white and coloured voussoirs. The influence of the Maghrib is well demonstrated here in the shape of the niches and the arches and the coloured voussoirs, while the row of small arcades reveals Syrian traditions (Creswell, 1959, 202, pls. 108b, c).

Maghrib. The earliest known surviving mihrāb in the Maghrib is in the Mosque of Bū Fatātā at Sūsa in Tunisia, erected between 223/838 and 226/841. It is a low plain niche of horseshoe form with an arch of the same shape (Creswell, 1940, 247, pls. 58e, 121a; Hill, Golvin and Hillenbrand, fig. 129). In the Great Mosque of Sūsa we find for the first time a miḥrāb in front of which a dome was built (Hill, Golvin and Hillenbrand, 100-1, figs. 140-1). This example was shortly followed in the Great Mosque of Kayrawan. when it was rebuilt by Abū Ibrāhīm Ahmad II. He was also responsible for the decoration of the new mihrāb. The niche has a horseshoe form flanked by a pair of marble columns crowned by Byzantine-style capitals supporting a horseshoe arch (Creswell, 1940, 308-14, fig. 232, pl. 121b; Marçais, 1926, i, 19-22, 68 f., figs. 7, 36; Hill, Golvin and Hillenbrand, 92-3, figs. 96-9). The canopy has wooden panelling which was most probably added later. The walls of the niche are covered with marble openwork. The archivolt and the surface of the miḥrāb are adorned with polychrome and monochrome lustre tiles imported from 'Irāķ in 248/862-3 (Marçais, 1928). The date of these tiles and the introduction of lustre has recently been questioned; nevertheless, it is clear that stylistically these tiles are related to those excavated at Sāmarrā. Another horseshoe-shaped mihrāb is that in the Great Mosque of Cordova (Pl. V, 9), which was erected and decorated at the order of al-Ḥakam II in 354/965 (Marçais, 1926, i, 222 f., 264-66, figs. 146, 154; Creswell, 1940, 143). This miḥrāb is remarkable in its size and in its extremely rich decoration of polychrome marble and gold mosaics. Several new decorative features which appeared here for the first time were accepted and applied to later mahārīb in the Maghrib. The niche itself is very spacious and high, crowned by a complete dome, the earliest such example in a mihrāb niche. The lower part of the niche has plain marble panels, followed by a cornice with a Kufic inscription. Above there are seven trefoil arches supported by marble columns with gold capitals. These arches are almost identical to those which decorate the upper part of the miḥrāb. Inside the arcade there are floral decorations in Byzantine style. The horseshoe arch rests on the wall and on two pairs of marble columns, one behind the other. archivolt is decorated with voussoir stones, all with rich floral designs, and in white and in polychrome alternately. Acanthus scrolls with a rosette decorate the spandrels. The cusped arcades inside the niche and on top of the mihrāb are most probably imitations of the false window-openings found over the library portal in the Great Mosque of Kayrawan (Terrasse, 1932, 110); but as Marçais once suggested, they can ultimately be traced back to Syria (Marçais, 1926, i, 266, n. 1, fig. 147). The mihrāb is one of the most beautiful examples in the whole Muslim world. Its form and decorative style has several times been copied, but its fineness and richness has never been surpassed. Certain elements in this miḥrāb like the horseshoe form of the recess, the cusped arches inside and on top of the miḥrāb, the broad archivolt with voussoir stones and floral decorations became the accepted features of later maḥārīb in the Maghrib.

The miḥrāb in the Great Mosque of Tlemcen in Algeria is one which reveals close connexions to that in Cordova. It was built in 530/1135. The decorated and cusped archivolt closely resembles that of Cordova but is more elaborate, although executed only in stucco. The arch and the spandrels are surrounded, as in Cordova, with an epigraphic band of floriated Kūfic. The niche itself is pentagonal, a form that was to be frequently used in the Maghrib and also in Turkey. The niche is flanked by an opening on either side giving access all round the miḥrāb (W. and G. Marçais, 1903, 140 f.; Marçais, 1926, i, 313 f., figs. 213-4, 381-5; Hill, Golvin and Hillenbrand, 111, figs. 208-9). This mihrāb in Tlemcen is clearly a deliberate copy of the Cordova miḥrāb, albeit executed in cheaper material. Some architectural and decorative details which were new elements in Cordova appeared here, but in more developed forms, and were used again in later examples. These can be best observed in the mihrāb of the Kutubiyya Mosque in Marrākesh, built ca. 541/1146 (Marçais, 1926, i, 321 f., fig. 179; Hill, Golvin and Hillenbrand, 125: Basset and Terrasse, 1926, 119). The canopy here is decorated with a mukarnas, as is the large dome in front of the mihrāb. The mukarnas was a new feature in the architecture of the Maghrib and was introduced there during the first half of the 6th/12th century. The horseshoe arch of the niche rests on three pairs of engaged columns. The broad and cusped archivolt is decorated with trefoil arcaded compartments. A frame filled with geometrical and star patterns surrounds the arch,

while above there are five blind window-openings with lobed arches. In the Great Mosque of Tinmal in the High Atlas, the miḥrāb, built in 548/1153, closely resembles that of the Kutubiyya. The same arrangements, sc. a mukarnas canopy inside the pentagonal niche, a similarly decorated dome in front of the mihrāb, and a horseshoe arch supported by three pairs of pilasters and a frame not unlike that in the Kutubiyya, can be observed here. Again there are flanking niches and an open path behind, once more presenting a free-standing miḥrāb (Marçais, 1926, i, 323, 385, figs. 181, 216-17; Hill, Golvin and Hillenbrand, 128, figs. 472-3). There is another miḥrāb in the Mosque of Yackūb al-Mansūr (also known as the Mosque of the Kasba) in Marrakesh, which stylistically is related to this group. This is perhaps the latest example of this type. It was built in 592/1195 (Hill, Golvin and Hillenbrand, fig. 413).

In southern Tunisia, at Tozeur, the mihrāb built in 592/1195 represents an entirely different type. The pentagonal recess is considerably smaller than any of the previous examples, and is crowned by a semi-dome coated with carefully-carved stucco decoration of floral designs and epigraphic bands. The horseshoe arch has an incomplete double archivolt interrupted by the attached rectangular frame. Once again the floral decoration of the wedge-shaped compartments on the archivolt recalls Cordova (Marçais, 1926, i, 385-94, fig. 218; Hill, Golvin and Hillenbrand, 107, figs. 174-6). The unusual form and decoration of this mihrāb was due to an Almoravid patron and to the presence of Andalusian craftsmen.

Iran, Afghanistan and Central Asia, During the last two or three decades, several new monuments, among them mosques and mausolea, have been discovered and excavated in this area. The mosque known as the Tārī Khāna in Dāmghān, built probably during the latter half of the 2nd/8th century, no longer stands alone as an early mosque in Iran. The comparatively deep rectangular recess with an oblique wall at its back for correcting the kibla direction, may be regarded as the original mihrāb in this mosque. It has no decoration now, but we may presume that once it was coated with stucco (Godard, 1934, 226; Survey, 933-4). The recently-excavated Great Mosque in Sīrāf (late 2nd/8th or early 3rd/9th century) had a rectangular mihrāb but only the foundation walls were discovered in situ (Whitehouse, 1970, 2 f., figs. 1-2). The Masdjid-i Djāmic in Fahradj near Yazd (probably of the 3rd/9th century) has its main miḥrāb in the original place but the walls are of more recent date (Pirniyā, 1349/1970, 2-13; Alfieri, 1977, 65-76, pls. X, XIa, b; Shokoohy, 1978, 67, pl. 106). In the old part of the Masdjid-i Djamic in Shiraz the tilted back wall of the niche, together with the horseshoe arch and the fragmentary stucco decoration on its soffit were regarded as original and dated to the end of the 3rd/9th century (Pope, 1934, 324; idem, Survey, 1264-6, fig. 455, pls. 259A-B; idem, 1965, 80-1, fig. 75). As far as it is known today, the miḥrāb of the Masdjid-i Djāmic of Nāyin is the earliest example surviving in its original form (Pl. V, 10). It is a double-recessed rectangular niche, the prototype of which may be found in the Djawsak al-Khāķānī, mentioned above. The canopies, frame, columns and capitals are covered with stucco. Unfortunately, the decoration is missing from the lower part of the inner pair of columns and from the back wall of the niche. Stylistically, this mihrāb was dated to the latter part of the 4th/10th century (Flury, 1921, 230-4, 305-16; Survey, fig. 921, pls. 265B, 267, 269A-D, 511B-C; Pope, 1965, 84, fig. 76). Details of the stucco patterns can be traced back to Sāmarrā, but here they appear in a more developed form.

Later maḥārīb were double- or triple-recessed, e.g. like that in Ma $\underline{\operatorname{sh}}$ had-i Mişriyān [q.v.] in Soviet Central Asia, dated to the end of the 5th/11th century (Kotov, 1939, 10-8, pls. XLV-XLVIII; Survey, 2721-5, figs. 922-4; Pugačenkova, 1958, 169-74). The decorative patterns are similar to those of Nayin. Stucco maḥārīb have also been discovered in Afghānistān. One of them was excavated in the Audience Hall in the Great Palace at Lashkarī Bāzār [q.v.] (Schlumberger and Sourdel-Thomine, 1978, i/B, 39 f., pls. 73d, 147-9), and it was attributed to the Ghaznavid period. Two small mausolea at Sar-i Pul in northern Afghanistan had fine stucco mihrābs with inscriptions. These inscriptions were published by Bivar, who suggested that one of these two mausolea, namely the Imām-i Khurd and its miḥrāb (Pl. VI, 11) cannot be earlier than 450/1058-9, while the second one in the Ziyārat of Imām-i Kalān most likely dates from the 6th/12th century (Bivar, 1966, 57-63). Unfortunately, both mihrābs have disappeared during the last few years (Shokoohy, 1978, 110-11, figs. 88-94, pls. 193-4, colour pl. 47). The miḥrāb of the Masdjid-i Djāmic of Zawāra, dated 551/1156-7 (Godard, 1936, fig. 199) and those in the Masdjid-i Djāmi^c in Ardistān (553-5/1158-60); Godard, 1936, fig. 195; Survey, pls. 322-4) may be regarded as combinations of flat and multi-recessed mahārīb. The mihrāb of the Imāmzāda Karrār at Buzān (now in the Archaeological Museum in Tehran, acc. no. 3268) should also be mentioned. The niche is very deep like an īwān, and it is covered by a vault instead of a semidome. A floriated Kūfic inscription in the frame gives the date of construction as 528/1143. This inscription is very interesting since the hastae of the letters end in human heads. The stucco work here is richer and more refined than in any of the previous examples, showing the wide scope of this technique (Pope, 1934, 114; Smith, 1935, 65-81; Survey, pls. 331A-C, 312A). The two most outstanding stucco miḥrābs in Iran are those in the Madrasa Haydariyya in Kazwin and in the Gunbad-i 'Alawiyan in Hamadan. Both are remarkable not only because of their enormous size. but mainly because of the extreme refinement of the stucco decoration. The designs appear as if superimposed in two or three layers. In Kazwin, the lower part of the miḥrāb is missing, but the remaining upper half indicates that stucco work may very well have been at its finest here (Godard, 1936, 200, fig. 136; Survey, pls. 313A, 316A-C, 512D). The mihrāb in the Gunbad-i 'Alawiyan in Hamadan perhaps does not surpass that of Kazwīn, but certainly comes close to it (Herzfeld, 1922, 86-99; Survey, pls. 330, 331A-B; Wilber, 1959, 151-2, fig. 116, cat. no. 55). Herzfeld and Wilber attributed this latter mihrāb to the Il-Khānid period, while Pope dated it to the end of the 6th/12th century (Survey, 1301; idem, 1965, fig. 186). It seems most likely that both mihrābs were erected about the same time, before the Mongol invasion of Iran in 617/1220. With the coming of the Mongols, the style slowly changed, and that change is already apparent in the stucco mihrāb of the Imāmzāda Abu 'l-Fadl wa-Yahyā in Maḥallat Bālā, dated to 700/1300 (Wilber, 137, pl. 67, cat. no. 44), and in two others, one of them in an īwān outside Shīrāz (Fehérvári, 1969, 3-11; idem, 1972, fig. 8) and the other one in the Pars Museum (Fehérvári, 1972, fig. 7). The finest example of Il-Khanid stucco mihrabs are in the Masdjid-i Djāmic in Reza'iye (Ridā'iyya) (Wilber, 112-3, pl. 9, cat. no. 16), dated 676/1277 and in the Masdjid-i Djämic of Işfahān, built at the order of MIHRÄB 13

Öldjeytü Muḥammad Khudābanda in 714/1314 (Wilber, 141, pls. 87-8, cat. no. 48; Survey, pls. 396-397A-B; Pope, 1965, fig. 189. In both miḥrābs, the stucco work is of superb quality and is executed in openwork. The gradual change in taste and style resulted in the application of two new techniques in the decoration of maḥārīb: the usage of mosaic faience and the application of lustre tiles.

Mosaic faience originated in Iran, and the earliest examples are to be found in the monuments of Khurāsān and Central Asia dating from the 6th/12th and early 7th/13th centuries. The technique was, however, perfected and first applied in the decoration of maḥārīb in Turkey (see below). Mosaic faience decoration in Iran was not introduced in mihrābs before the 8th/14th century. The earliest known such miḥrāb is in the Imāmzāda Shāh Ḥusayn in Warāmīn, erected ca. 730/1330 (Wilber, 1955, cat. no. 86, 177-8, pl. 184). Two other outstanding examples are in the Masdiid-i Djāmic of Yazd, dated 777/1375 (Pl. VI, 12; Survey, pl. 443; Pope, 1965, 185, colour pl. VII and fig. 246), and the second one is in the Masdjid-i Djāmic in Kirmān, dated ca. 957/1550 (Survey, pls. 401, 540).

Flat maḥārīb were also used in Iran. At first, these were of carved stone or alabaster. By the 6th/12th century faience tiles were used, with the decoration in relief painted in cobalt blue or turquoise under the glaze. During the early 7th/13th century lustre painting was introduced on these tiles. Occasionally cobalt blue and turquoise colours were added. There are some ten such large lustre maḥārīb known today which were made up of several tiles. All of these were made in Ķāshān. One of the earliest dated large lustre maḥārīb is preserved in the shrine of Imām Riḍā in Mashhad, dated Rabic II 612/July 1215 (Donaldson, 1935, 125-7; Bahrami, 1944-5, 37-8, pls. 20-1). These lustre tiles have recently been studied by O. Watson in great detail (see Watson, 1985). A somewhat unusual miḥrāb is the Masdjid-i 'Alī in Kuhrūd [q.v.] near Kāshān (Pl. VII, 13). The recess and the lower part of the kibla wall are covered with monochromeglazed and with some hundred lustre-painted tiles. Although the miḥrāb in its present form was built probably during the last century, some of its lustre tiles bear the date of 700/1300. At the back of the rectangular recess there is a monochrome-glazed miḥrāb tile, slightly tilted for correcting the kibla direction, dated 708/1308 (Watson, 1975, 59-74, pls. la-c, Vd).

Turkey. Early maḥārīb in Anatolia were constructed of stone with a comparatively small and shallow recess which could be three-sided, such as the mihrāb of the Ulu Cami in Erzurum, dated 575/1179 (Unal, 1968, 31, fig. 20). Others are pentagonal, like that of the 'Ala' al-Din Mosque in Niğde (620/1223), which is a double-recessed mihrāb with both recesses crowned by mukarnas canopies (Gabriel, 1931, i. 120. pl. XXXVI). Mahārīb with mukarnas canopies became popular in the country, and they were equally used in stone and in faience, and later in the Ottoman period in marble. Scalloped canopies were also used in Turkey, and here we find them in the third phase of their development (for the earlier two phases, see above, under Egypt); they are all double-recessed, the inner recess is crowned by a scallop, while the arch of the outer niche is cusped. One such mihrāb was placed in the Ulu Cami of Kızıltepe (Dunaysir), dated to 601/1204 (Gabriel, 1937; idem, 1940, i, 51, ii, pls. XXXI/1-2, XXXII/1-3). The second such miḥrāb is in the Madrasa Mas^cūdiyya in Diyarbakir, which is similar to the previous example (Gabriel, 1940, i, 197, ii, pl. LXXIII/3; Bakirer, Kat. no. 20, 143-4, res. 55-7, şek. 20).

The second decorative technique applied for mahārīh in Turkey was mosaic faience. There are more than twenty such mahārīb known in the country (for a complete list of these, see Meinecke. 1976, and for tile work in Turkey, Öney, 1976). The tiles were coloured in cobalt blue, turquoise, black, aubergine and white. They form epigraphic and geometric bands round the niches and cover the walls, the mukarnas canopy and the spandrels. The most beautiful of these faience maḥārīb are in Konya, which was the capital of the Saldjūks of Rūm. One such miḥrāb was installed in the Sadrettin Konevi, dated 673/1274-5 (Pl. VII, 14; Meinecke, 1976, cat. no. 85, i, 64, ii, 352-5, Taf. 36/4; Bakirer, Kat. no. 49, 182-3, res. 111-13, şek. 49). Towards the end of the 7th/13th century, tiles were used together with stucco and terracotta, as is the case in the mihrāb of the Arslanhane Cami in Ankara, built in 689/1290 (Otto-Dorn, 1957; Akurgal, Mango and Ettinghausen, 1966, 149, colour pl. on p. 132; Aslanapa, 1971, 121; Meinecke, cat. no. 18, i, 41-3, ii, 66-74, Taf. 8/3; Bakirer, Kat. no. 58, 196-8, res. 132-4, şek. 58). In the 9th/15th century, faience mosaic is replaced by the cuerda seca technique, and perhaps one of the most beautiful mahārīb with such decoration is that of the Green Mosque in Bursa, dated 824/1421 (Öney, 1976, 62; Goodwin, 1971, 66, fig. 60; Aslanapa, 1971, fig. 214). Simultaneously with the cuerda seca, underglaze-painted tiles were also introduced during the 9th/15th century. At first, these were painted in blue and white and later in polychrome.

India. The earliest known and reported miḥrāb in India which survives is in the so-called Arhai-din-ka-Jhompra Mosque at Adjmer, completed in 596/1199-1200. It reveals strong Hindu and Buddhist elements in its decoration and in its arch, which is cusped and is carved out of a single block of marble (Nath, 1978, 17, pl. XXI). Three mahārīb in the tomb of Shams al-Dīn Iltutmish (died in 633/1235) are more in the traditional Islamic styles and in a way serve as models for later Indian prayer niches. The central mihrāb here (Pl. VIII, 15) is a combination of a rectangular and a flat miḥrāb. The frame is filled by an epigraphic band. The pair of polygonal and richly decorated columns and capitals support the cusped arch. The canopy of the recess, just like that of the miḥrāb panel at the back, is filled with plaited Kūfic. In the centre of the back panel there is a rosette in relief. Such patterns can be observed in the centres of several Indian maḥārīb. It is possible that the architects tried to imitate, either consciously or not, the black meteorite stone which is in the centre of the mihrāb of Sulavmān in Ierusalem.

One of the characteristics of Indo-Muslim architecture was to place three or more mahārīb in the kibla wall, as it had already been done in Iltutmish's tomb, where this principle was applied perhaps for the first time. The lotus flower, a hanging mosque-lamp or a vase from which a scroll emerges, become permanent decorative features of the back panels of later prayer niches. Such decorations appear in the five maḥārīb of the Royal Mosque, the Kila-yi Kuhna in Dihlī, which was built by Sher Shah Sur in about 949/1542. The maḥārīb of the Ķila-yi Kuhna are enormous in size. They are multi-recessed, with a cusped arch over the outer recesses, and a mihrāb panel at the back of each one decorated with a hanging mosque-lamp (Brown, 1964, 93, pl. LXII/2). By the late 9th/15th and early 10th/16th centuries, Persian influence becomes stronger and more apparent in Indo-Muslim architec-

ture. It was perhaps most obvious in the decoration of prayer niches. Most of the Indian elements were omitted and were replaced by Persian motifs. The cusped arch, however, remains. A good example for this strong Persian influence is the miḥrāb of the Djāmic Masdjid in Fathpur Sikrī which is decorated with polychrome inlaid stonework and which reminds us of contemporary Şafawid faience-tiled maḥārīb (Brown, pl. LXXII/1). Later prayer niches in Āgra and Dihlī are built of marble and decorated in polychrome in the bietra dura technique.

Wooden and portable maḥārīb. Maḥārīb either as large niches or small portable wooden panels appeared during the Fāṭimid period in Egypt. They were found in excavations in Fustat, but several others are known from later periods and are preserved in the Museum of Islamic Art in Cairo (Weill, 1936, pl. X). Large wooden mihrābs were also introduced and these were popular all over the Islamic world. One of the earliest of these large wooden mahārīb is from the Masdiid-i Mavdan in Abvana in Iran, dated 497/1103 (Ettinghausen, 1952, 77, pl. XII). An interesting wooden miḥrāb was discovered in Afghānistān in the upper Logar Valley in the village of Čarkh, in the Mosque of Shah Muhyī al-Dīn. It has an overall geometrical decoration and an inscription in Kūfic (Pl. VIII, 16). It is dated to the 6th/12th century (Bombaci, 1959, figs. 13-4; Rogers, 1973, 249, 82). The wooden mihrāb of the Madrasa Halawiyya in Aleppo (dated 643/1245) is considerable in size, measuring 350 cm. in height and well over 100 cm. in width. It is richly decorated with geometrical patterns and is inlaid with ivory (Guyer, 1914, 217-31; Sauvaget, 1931, no. 15).

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(G. Fehérvári)

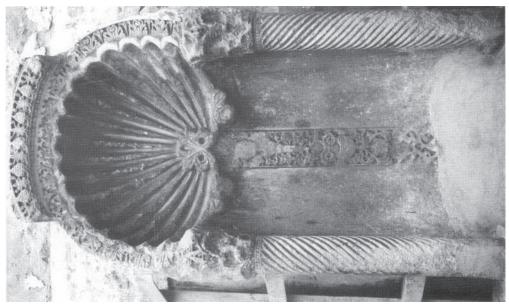
MIHRAGĀN (P. Mihragān/Mehregān; A. Mihraqjān; Meherangān among the Parsees), name of an Iranian Mazdaean festival dedicated to Mithra/Mihr, traditionally celebrated in Iran around the autumn equinox. Its origins, its place in the calendar, its duration, its rituals and the beliefs connected with it, its diffusion in other cultural areas and its survivals in the Islamic period present several problems which are the subject of discussions and controversies. It is also a word used in toponymy, patronymy and music (see below, iv).

i. The name of the festival. It comes from the Pahlavi mihrakān/mihragān, ancient mithrakāna (Darmesteter, ii, 443), a noun derived from a proper noun, i.e. Mithra (Benveniste, 1966, 14; on the suffix akāna becoming agān, of Parthian origin, see Gignoux, 1979, 43 ff.). According to another attractive but faulty interpretation, the kāna component (no longer akāna) is a variant of ghna (Vedic han, Old Persian jan) meaning to strike or kill; mithrakāna is then the killing (or sacrifice) for Mithra, the expression being parallel to that designating the Indo-Iranian god Verethragna (Campbell, 235; on Verethragna, slayer of dragons, and its dialectal variants, see Benveniste and Renou,

68-90; Skjaervø, 192). In the Islamic period there no longer appears to be any reference to Mithra. The most prolific author on the pre-Islamic festival, al-Bīrūnī, thinks that the Arabised form mihradjān means love (mihr) of the spirit or the soul (djān; Athār, 223, tr. 209; the majority of Muslim authors followed his interpretation, and the Persian poets often make mihrdjan rhyme with mihrban, friendly, benevolent). However, the meaning "sun" has also been given for mihr and several myths which are associated with it (see below). Other interpretations which connect this name with death $(m\bar{i}r)$ are equally erroneous (on traditions and anecdotes reported by al-Bīrūnī and other authors, see Şafā, 30; al-Mascūdī, Murūdi, iii, 404 = § 1287), as is also the view that it is a form of plural in the suffix gan/djan coupled with a noun of divinity given to the months and days of the Mazdaean months or of ceremonies forming the names of festivals (an error of the Persian editor of the Tafhīm of al-Bīrūnī, 254, n. 1).

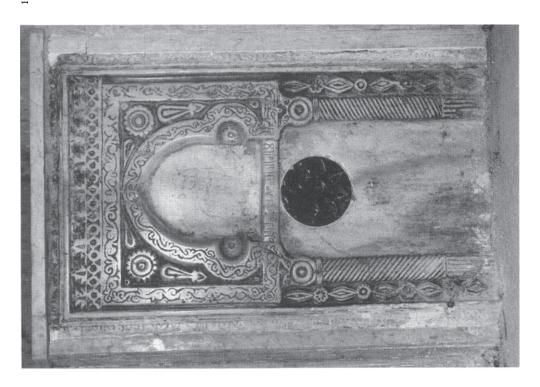
ii. Problems of calendars. The historical evolution of the various types of calendars used by the Iranians, notably under the influence of the Babylonians, Egyptians, Greeks and the Arabs, is difficult to trace. but it determined the place and duration of their ceremonies and periodic festivals. The festivals celebrated at the solstice assumed a particular importance among the Indo-Iranians. They may have begun the year with the autumn equinox although, as for example among the Jews, several "beginnings" of the year could have been recognised simultaneously (Boyce, HZ, i, 174). The Achaemenid administration used a "luni-solar" year beginning with the spring equinox, similar to, but different from, that of the Babylonian calendar (Hartner, 747). This practice was taken over by the Seleucids, then by the Arsacid Parthians, at least as far as royal chronology was concerned (Bickerman, 778 ff.; see also below). Alongside the "Old Persian" calendar, we should take note of an "Old Avestan" calendar beginning the year in mid-summer. Both were abandoned for an "Egypor "New Avestan" calendar (around 510 B.C.?; on the first reform see Taķīzāda, Maķālāt, vi, 77 ff.; Hartner, 749 ff.). Another difficulty arises from the adjustment of time between the Zoroastrian calendar of 360 days and the solar year of 365 days and a quarter. This problem, never solved in a satisfactory manner, led, under the Sāsānids, to a resort to "epagomenes" i.e. intercalary or "stolen" days (duzdīda), at the end of the year and one month every 120 years to recover the quarter of an annual day (see Taķīzāda, ibid., 85 ff.; Bickerman, 786 ff.). Not well received by the faithful, this Sasanid reform led to a duplication of Zoroastrian religious festivals: Naw-rūz, Mihragān and the six Gāhāmbārs (Christensen, Types, ii, 143 ff.; Boyce, 1970, 513 ff.). Today, the Iranians use, alongside the lunar hidjrī calendar, a solar calendar beginning the year from the spring equipox (Naw $r\bar{u}z$), based on the $\underline{D}jal\bar{a}l\bar{i}$ [q.v.] calendar inaugurated under the Saldjūķ sultan Djalāl al-Dīn Malikshāh (465-85/1073-92 (cf. Hartner, 772 f., 784 f.).

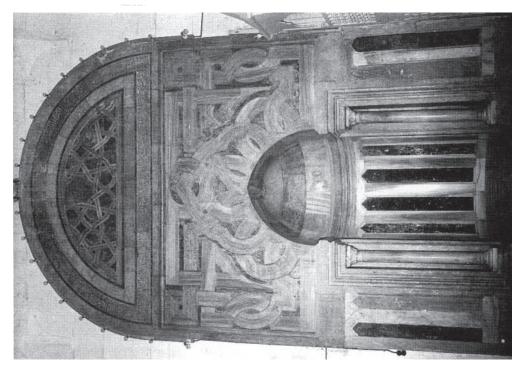
Until the Sāsānids, Mithrakāna/Mihragān remained, at least officially, a single day (Boyce, 1970, 518 f.; idem, HZ, ii, 34). Celebrated in autumn, the seventh month of the year, under the Achaemenids (6th/4th century B.C.), the festival was, inexplicably, observed in the spring, and Naw-rāz in autumn, under the Arsacid Parthians (3rd century B.C.-2nd century A.D.) who, following the Macedonian calendar established under the Seleucids, made the year begin with the autumn equinox (Boyce, 1975, 107; idem, 1976, 106). The introduction of the reform under the Sāsānids (who inherited the Parthian system) led, at



 Jerusalem, Mihrāb of Sulaymān under the Kubbat al-Şakhra, 72/962.

2. Baghdād, The Khāṣṣakī mihrāb, late Umayyad or early 'Abbāsid period.



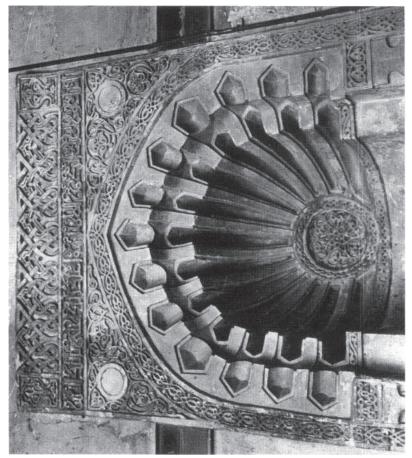


3. Mawşil, Corner *mihrāb* in the Mausoleum of Imām Yahyā b. Kāsim, 7th/13th century.



4. Aleppo, marble *miḥrāb* in the Madrasa al-Firdaws, 633/1235.

MIḤRĀB PLATE III

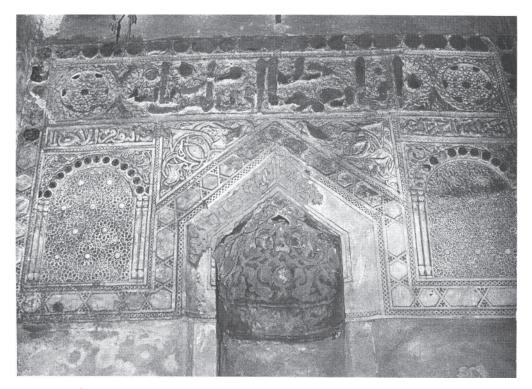


6. Cairo, stucco mihrāb in the Mausoleum of Sayyida Rukayya, 527/1133.



5. Cairo, stucco mihrāb in the Mosque of al-Djuyūshī, 478/1085.

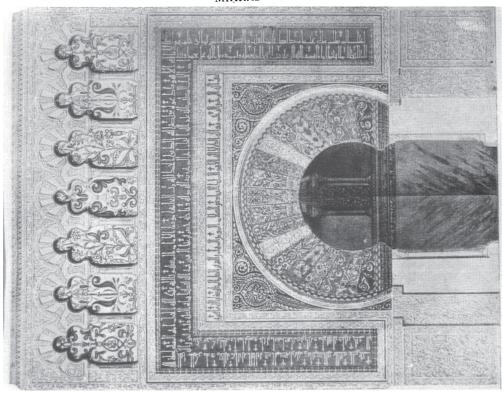
PLATE IV MIHRĀB



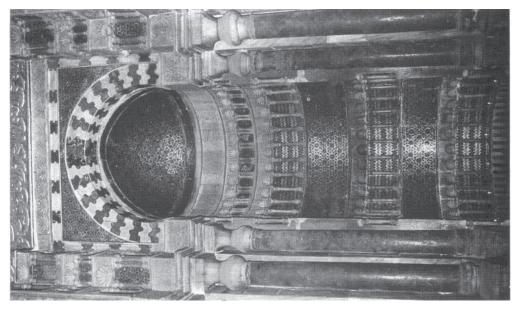
7. Cairo, stucco and glass $\emph{mihrāb}$ in the Mausoleum of Sulaymān al-Rifā c ī, 690/1291.



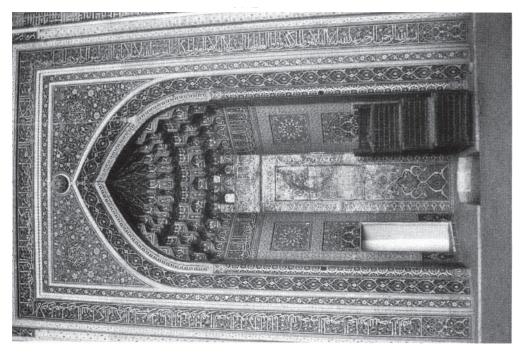
8. Cairo, marble $\emph{mihrāb}$ in the Mausoleum of Kalāwūn, 684/1285.



 Nāyin, stucco mihrāb in the Masdjid-i Djāmi', second half of 4th/10th century.



9. Cordova, miḥrāb in the Great Mosque, 354/965.



 Sar-i Pul, Afghānistān. Stucco miḥrāb which was standing until recently in the Ziyārat of Imām-i Khurd, 6th/12th century. (Photographed and reproduced courtesy of Prof. A.D.H. Bivar).



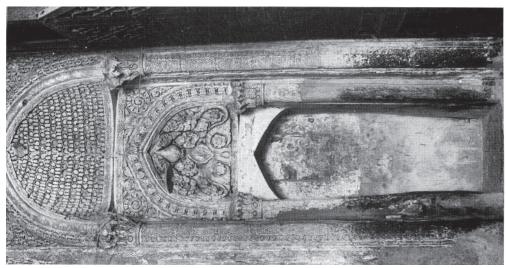
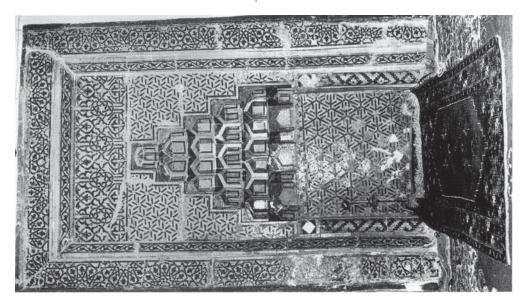
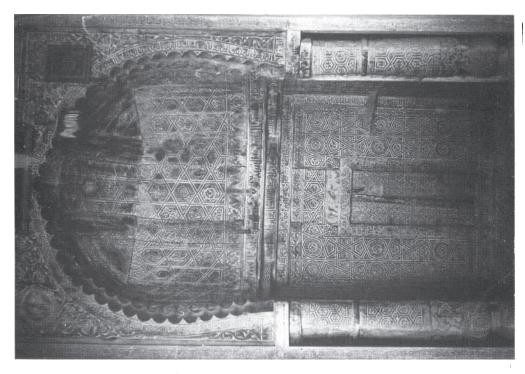


PLATE VII MIḤRĀB

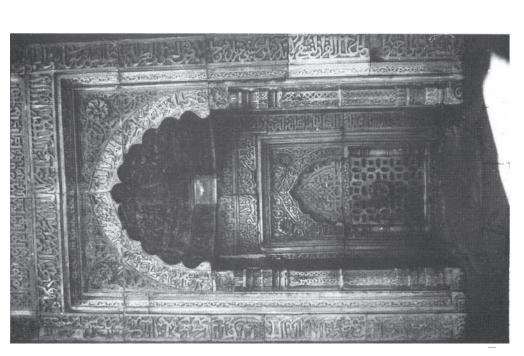




14. Konya, faience miḥrāb in the Sadrettin Konevi, 673/1274-5. (Photographed and reproduced courtesy of Mr. H. Dewenter)



16. Čarkh-Afghānistān, wooden mihrāb in the Mosque of <u>Sh</u>āh Muhyī al-Dīn, 6th/12th century. (Photographed and reproduced courtesy of Prof. A.D.H. Bivar).



15. Dihlī, miḥrāb in the tomb of <u>Sh</u>ams al-Din Iltutmi<u>sh</u>, ca. 633/1235. (Photographed and reproduced courtesy of Mr. J. Burton-Page)