until a party of men entered the outer archway to try to break down the door behind the inner archway. At a signal, given by men looking through the slits in the vault, the portcullis would be released and missiles, molten lead, or boiling oil dropped on the storming party trapped below. It was impossible for a storming party to approach the door without exposing themselves to be fatally trapped in this fashion.

The finest gateways of the 5th/11th century are the three Fățimid gates of Cairo, the Bāb al-Naṣr, Bāb al-Futūḥ (Plate XXX) and Bāb Zuwayla, built by

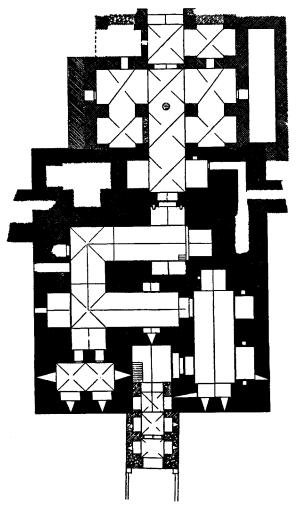


Fig. 2. ALEPPO: Entrance of the Citadel. (From Herzfeld).

Badr al-Djamālī in 480-85/1087-92, but they are "straight through" and not bent entrances. In each case the gateway proper is set back in an arched recess between two round-fronted towers, and at the back of the arch is a slit whereby missiles could be dropped from the platform above on a storming party attacking the door with a battering ram.

But the wars of the Crusades in the two following centuries and the great military experience gained by both sides soon resulted in the bent entrance coming into general use. It was invariably employed by Şalāh al-Dīn, e.g. at Kalcat Djindī in Sinai, about 578/1182, in the three gateways of the Northern Enclosure of the Citadel of Cairo, 572-9/1176-84, and likewise the gateways in that part of the Wall of Cairo due to him (Plate XXXIb). So thoroughly were the advantages of the bent entrance appreciated that it had even reached the Far West of Islam before the end of the 6th/12th century, e.g. the gateway of the Kasba of the Oudāya at Rabāt in Morocco.

For the 7th/13th century three typical examples of it may be cited: Kalcat al-Nadim on the Euphrates, 605-12/1208-15; and two at Baghdad, the Talisman Gate (blown up by the retreating Turks in 1918) and the Bab al-Wustani.

The supreme example of a bent entrance is al-Malik al-Zāhir's gateway in the Citadel of Aleppo finished according to Ibn Shaddad in 611/1214. Here there are no less than five right-angled turns in the passage-way (Plate XXXII and Fig. 2).

(K. A. C. CRESWELL)

BAB, a term applied in early Shism to the senior authorised disciple of the Imam. The hagiographical literature of the Twelver Shīca usually names the bābs of the Imams. Among the Ismā'iliyya [q.v.] bāb was a rank in the hierarchy. The term was already in use in pre-Fātimid times, though its significance is uncertain (cf. W. Ivanow, The Alleged Founder of Ismailism, Bombay 1946, 125 n. 2, citing al-Kashshi, Ridjāl, 322; idem, Notes sur l'Ummu 'l-Kitab, in REI, 1932, 455; idem, Studies in early Persian Ismailism², Bombay 1955, 19 ff.). Under the Fāţimids in Egypt the bāb comes immediately after the Imām, from whom he receives instruction directly. He in turn instructs the hudidias, who conduct the da wa. The term thus appears to denote the head of the hierarchy of the da'wa, and to be the equivalent in Ismā'ilī terminology of the expression dā'i aldu'at, which is used in the general historical literature but rarely appears in Ismā'ili texts. Thus, for example, al-Mu^cayyid fi 'l-Din al-Shirazi, who is described in Ismā'ili writings as the bab of al-Mustansir, is called his da'i 'l-du'at by the historians (e.g. Ibn Muyassar, 10) and is actually named as such by al-Mustansir in a sidjill of Ramadan 461/ July 1069 addressed to the Sulayhid ruler of the Yaman (Al-Sidjillat al-Mustansiriyya, ed. 'Abd al-Mun'im Mādjid, Cairo 1954, 200). Some indications of the status and functions of the bab in Fatimid Ismā'ilism will be found in Hamid al-Din al-Kirmani. Rahat al- Akl, ed. M. Kamil Husayn and M. Mustafa Hilmi, Cairo 1953, index; cf. R. Strothmann, Gnosis-Texte der Ismailiten, Göttingen 1943, index, espec. 82, 102, 175; W. Ivanow, Studies, 20-23). In the post-Fățimid da wa the office dwindled in importance and seems eventually to have disappeared. In the description of the dacwa organisation at Alamut given by Naşīr al-Din al-Ţūsī, (Taşawwurāt, ed. W. Ivanow, 97, introduction xliii), there is only a bāb-i bāţin, who ranks with the dāci, and in later Ismā'all writings the term seems to drop out altogether.

In the system of the Nuşayriyya [q.v.] the bāb comes after the ism and is identified with Salman [q.v.]. The $b\bar{a}b$ is personified in each cycle. (Lists of Nuşayrı bābs are given in R. Strothmann, Morgenländische Geheimsekten in Abendländischer Forschung, Berlin 1953 (Abhandlungen der deutschen Akademie der Wissenschaften zu Berlin, Klasse für Sprachen, Literatur und Kunst, Jahrgang 1952 Nr. 5) 34-5; L. Massignon, Nusairiya, in EI1; for a similar Ismā'lli list see Dja far b. Manşur al-Yaman, Kitab al-Kashf, ed. R. Strothmann, 1952, 14).

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(B. Lewis)

BĀB, an appellation [see the preceding art.] made specially famous by Sayyid 'Alī Muḥammad of Shīrāz, the founder of the new religion of the Bābīs [q.v.] and, according to the Bahā'īs [q.v.] the precursor of the new prophet Bahā' Allāh [q.v.]. He is also called by his disciples Nukta-i alā ('the first point') or Hadrat-i a'lā ('the supreme presence').

Savvid 'Alī Muhammad was born at Shīrāz, of a merchant family, on 1 Muharram 1235/20 October 1810 (but according to other sources, exactly a year later, 9 October 1820); becoming an orphan at an early age, he was placed under the tutelage of his maternal uncle Aghā Sayyid 'Alī. At the age of about 19 or 20 he was sent to Büshahr, on the Persian Gulf, to trade there; here, at the same time, he gave himself up to earnest religious meditations, as he had done before since his childhood. When on a pilgrimage to Karbala, he made the acquaintance of Sayyid Kāzim Rashtī [q.v.], the head of the religious movement of the Shaykhīs, who showed a high and unusual regard for him. Sayyid Kāzim died at the end of 1259/December 1843; before his death he had sent disciples into all parts of Persia in search of the awaited Mahdī, the Ṣāḥib al-zamān, who, according to his prophecies, would not be long before manifesting himself. One of the disciples of the sayyid, Mulla Husayn of Bushruya, who had arrived at Shīrāz and had been strongly affected by the fascination of the young 'Alī Muḥammad, was the first to recognise him as the 'gateway' to Truth, the initiator of a new prophetic cycle, since, during the night of 5 Diumādā I 1260/23 May 1844, he had replied in a satisfactory way to all his questions, and had written in his presence, with extreme rapidity and all the time intoning what he was writing in a very melodious voice, a long commentary on the sūra of Yūsuf; this commentary is known to the Bābīs by the name of Kayyūm al-Asmā', and considered as the first 'revealed' work of the Bab. The rapidity with which he wrote and the indescribable charm of his voice seem to have been the characteristics which have most impressed Muslim as well as Bābī writers. In the summer of 1844, the Bāb, who had been making drastic attacks on corrupt Shi mullas and muditahids with their own weapons, quickly collected a number of disciples, among whom were 18 called by him the Hurūjāt al-Hayy ('The Letters of the Living'). Mulla Husayn is also known among the Bābīs by the title of awwal man āmana ('the first believer'), and by that of Bāb al-Bāb, which the Bāb himself later gave him. In the autumn, after the 'Letters of the Living' had been despatched to proclaim his mission in the various provinces of Persia, the Bab set out on a pilgrimage to Mecca. The journey left a bad impression on him. This is reflected in several passages in the Bayan, where he speaks of the dirt and promiscuity of the boats and of the low moral character of the quarrelsome and violent pilgrims. Either during a stay in the port of Muscat, or in the heart of the holy city of Mecca, the Bab, according to the sources, must have declared more openly his mission as mahdi, but to no purpose. In the spring of 1261/1845 the Bab returned to Shiraz, where his preachings and public declarations (for during the journey he had written another book, Sahifa-i bayn al-Haramayn ('book [written] between the two Holy Places') in which he lays down the purport of his mission) caused some trouble; the Bab's missionaries who, on his order, had dared to add to the adhan [q.v.] the phrase 'and I confess that 'All before Nabil (the

Bāb) is the mirror of the breath of God', were arrested, brought before the Governor of Shīrāz, Mīrzā Ḥusayn Khān Ādjūdān-bāshī, severely punished, and expelled from the city. A representative of the reigning sovereign (Muhammad Shāh), Sayyid Yaḥyā-i Dārābī, sent to conduct an enquiry, was won over by the charm of the Bāb, and became converted to the new doctrine. Whilst all this was going on, Mīrzā Nūrī (the future Bahā' Allāh) and his brother Mīrzā Yaḥyā Nūrī (the future Subh-i Azal) at Tehran persisted in the new faith, after a meeting with Mulla Husayn. At Shīrāz an epidemic of cholera broke out, and overyone from the Governor down prayed for deliverance. The Bāb remained at Işfahān, where he was protected by the governor, the Georgian Manūčihr Khān Muctamad al-Dawla. On the death of the latter the Bāb was called to Tehran by order of the minister Ḥādidi Mīrzā Āghāsī, but shortly before arriving in the city he was arrested and sent as a prisoner to the fortress of Māhkū in the trackless mountains of Adharbaydian (summer of 1263/1847). In 1264/ April 1848, following more serious disorders which had broken out in different parts of Iran on account of Babi propaganda [see BABIS], the Bab, whose powerful religious influence had converted the governor of the fortress of Māhkū, 'Alī Khān, was transferred to a more rigorous prison, the remote castle of Čihrik. Shortly afterwards, in July, he was removed to Tabrīz to be questioned by a committee of muditahids; it was decided to condemn him forthwith. The powerful minister Mīrzā Taķī Khān, who had succeeded Ḥadidi Mīrzā Āghāsī after the latter's dismissal by the new sovereign Nāṣir al-Dīn Shāh (1848), considered that the death of its founder would break up this dangerous movement which was continuing to attract new adherents. In the spring of 1266/1850 the news of the execution of the seven martyrs of Tehran [see Babis], among whom was his uncle and well-beloved tutor, reached the Bāb in the fortress of Čihrīķ where he had been reimprisoned, and greatly distressed him. He prophesied that his end was near. He was taken at the end of the month of Sha'ban 1266/July 1850 to Tabriz, and was condemned to be shot at the same time as two of his disciples, Mulla Muhammad 'All of Yazd and Agha Sayyid Husayn. The second, during the doleful procession of the three condemned men through the streets of Tabrīz, under insults and blows, made pretence of abjuring the Babi faith, and was released; he had previously been charged by the Bab to carry out his last wishes and to deposit some of his personal belongings and writings in a safe place. (He was, however, killed at Tehran shortly after having carried out this mission). The Bab was secured with the same ropes as his disciples to a pillar in the courtyard of the barracks at Tabrīz, and the Christian regiment of the Paliaduran, commanded by Sam Khan, fired. The first shot, according to the descriptions even in Muslim sources and others hostile to the reformer, merely severed the ropes, leaving the Bab completely free. Sam Khan, terrified, refused to re-open fire, and consequently another firing-squad was detailed. On 9 July 1850, about midday, the Bab paid for preaching his doctrine with his life. The mangled body was thrown into a ditch in the town and after many vicissitudes (disinterred by the Bābīs, hidden for several years at Tehran), it was removed on the order of Baha' Allah [q.v.] to 'Akka, where it now rests in a large mausoleum on the slopes of mount 34 BĀB

Works.-The works of the Bab, all manuscriptsome lost, others of doubtful authenticity (partially due to unexpected feuds after his death between Bahā'is and Azalis, see Bābis)—are very numerous. In more or less chronological order, and mentioning only the best known, they are: 1. The Kayyum al-Asma' or commentary on the sura of Yusuf, referred to above, of more than 9,300 verses divided into III chapters (one per verse of the famous sūra), which opens with the well-known apostrophe to the kings of the earth: 'O kings! O sons of kings! do not take unto yourselves that which belongs to God!'; this work is in Arabic, but has been translated into Persian in full by the famous Bābī heroine Kurrat al-'Ayn Tāhira; 2. Epistles (alwah) to various persons, such as Muhammad Shāh, Sultān 'Abd al-Madjīd, Nadjīb Pasha, wālī of Baghdad. 3. the Sahija-i bayn al-Haramayn, written on his pilgrimage between Mecca and Medina (1844-5). 4. The Epistle to the Sharif of Mecca. 5. The Kitāb al-Rūḥ (Book of the Spirit) of 700 sūras. 6. The Khaṣā'il-i Sab'a (the seven Virtues), wherein the modification of the adhan is set forth. 7. Risāla-i Furū'-i 'Adliyya (treatise on the divisions of justice). 8. Commentaries on the suras al-Kawthar (cviii) and Wa'l-'asr (ciii), and other small treatises and epistles all of which date from the beginning of his imprisonment at Mähkū. 9. Nine commentaries (ta/sir) on the entire Kur'an, now lost, written, according to the testimony of his copyist Shaykh Ḥasan-i Zunūzī, in the castle of Māhkū. 10. Various epistles to leading Shi I theologians and to Muhammad Shāh, written in the same fortress. 11. The Arabic (shorter) Bayan and the Persian Bayan, the sacred books par excellence of the new relevation; the former divided into 11 wahids (units) of 17 chapters (bābs) each, the latter into 9 wāhids of 19 bābs each except the last wahid, which has only 10 babs. 12. The Dala'il-i Sab'a (the seven Proofs), the most important of the polemical works of the Bab. 13. The Lawh-i Hurufat (Table of the Letters), a semicabalistic writing addressed to the Believer (dayyān) from the castle of Čihrik, etc. Although the Bābīs are also called ahl-i Bayan (the people of the Bayan), one must understand by Bayan in this sense. according to the explicit declaration of the Bab himself (Persian Bayan, 3rd wahid, chapter 17), everything which issued from his pen.

The Doctrine of the Bab. The contents of the Bayan can perhaps be reduced to four fundamental points: (a) the abrogation of sundry laws and pronouncements of the Kur'anic shari'a regarding prayer, fasting, marriage, divorce, and inheritance, but nevertheless upholding the truth of the prophetic mission of Muḥammad, whose prophetic cycle ends with the year 1260/1844; (b) the spiritualistic interpretation of the eschatological terms which appear in the Kur'an and other sacred works, such as 'Paradise', 'Hell', 'Death', 'Resurrection', 'Return', 'Judgment', 'Bridge' (Şirāţ), 'Hour', etc., all of which allude not only to the end of the physical world but also to that of the prophetic cycle. From certain passages it seems that it must be understood that the true world being that of the spirit, of which the material world is nothing but an exteriorisation, God effectively destroys the world at the end of each prophetic cycle in order to re-create it by the Word of the subsequent prophet; the creative worth of the Word is given great importance in the Bayan; (c) the establishment of new institutions: a new kibla (towards the abode of the Bab), a new, and rather complicated, devolution of inheritance, etc.; (d) a continuous and powerful eschatological tension towards man yuzhiruhu allāh ('the One whom God will manifest'), the future prophet. It could thus be upheld that the expectation of the 'Promised One' is the essence of the Bayān; indeed, the most banal precepts are set forth in an eschatological light. For example, having stated that the BābI should possess no more than 19 books, and all these on the Bayān and the knowledge of the Bayān, it adds: 'All these commands are for this reason, that nothing be put in the presence of Him Whom God Shall Manifest, unless it be the Bayān itself' (Arabic Bayān, trans. Nicolas, 223).

With regard to the precepts concerning travelling. it is laid down that journeys shall not take place at the time when the 'Promised One' towards whom alone all must travel, will be made manifest (ibid., 166). The care for property, particularly recommended by the Bab, is justified eschatologically, in order that the eyes of 'Promised One' shall not look upon anything unclean (159). As well as the familiar passage (166) 'All of you get up from your seats when you hear the mention of the name of Him W.om God Shall Manifest And in the ninth year you shall attain to perfect Good', which the Bahā'is interpret as predicting the prophetic vision of Bahā' Allāh [q.v.] in the Tehran prison in the year 9, i.e., 1269/1852-3, various other passages of the Bayan effectively suggest that the Bab believed the Future Manifestation possible at a nearer date. Particularly interesting is the fine chapter XI of the IVth wahid of the Arabic Bayan (138-9): 'Be not the instruments of your misfortunes, for not to be grieved is one of the greatest commands of the Bayan. The fruit of this command shall be that you shall not grieve Him Whom God Shall Manifest'.

The metaphysics of the Bab is similar in certain ways to that of the Ismacilis. It sets out, in essence, as opposed to the unitary conception of existence as in Pantheism and to the dual conception (divine/ human) of orthodox Islām, a division of Being into three parts: the World of the Essence of God, absolutely unattainable and transcendent, the World of Nature and of Man, and the World of the Manifestation, that very pure mirror in which alone God can see himself. The Bab's doctrine seems to attach very great importance to this invisible world which is concealed behind and between visible things: thus, all the eschatological terms, such as beatific vision, death, eternity, paradise, etc., being solely in accordance with the vision of the prophet, there remains only very little room in which to interest oneself in the life of the other world, which has led certain authors, perhaps wrongly (see E. G. Browne in the Preface to M. H. Phelps, Abbas Effendi, London 1912), to believe that the Bab denies the immortality of the individual soul, at least in the traditional sense of the word. In the same way, his conception of the return of Muhammad, of the imams, etc., in its actual presentation has led some writers wrongly to believe that he subscribes to the doctrine of reincarnation. On the contrary, the Bab in his original conception of the novelty of the different 'worlds' of the successive prophetic cycles, besides denying the Islamic and Christian dogmas of the resurrection of the body, denies as well the reincarnation of the soul in another body; when he writes (Arabic Bayan, wahid I, chapter 2 ff.) 'Those (our lieutenants) are, firstly Muhammad, the prophet of God, then those who are the witnesses (the imams) of God for his creatures . . . ', he means to say that they 'have been created in another world', i.e., that God has re-created them ex novo in the world of the Bayan after having created them in the world of the Kur'an. It is easy to deduce from such a 'bookish' conception of the worlds of nature and of the spirit that letters, the written word, and the corresponding numerical values have enormous significance for the Bab. The love of calligraphy (according to tradition, his own writing was superb) is for him a feature of religion, and more than once, in the Bayan, he commands that copies of the Holy Book should be conserved in the most elegant writing possible. The number 19, for instance, has great importance in Bābī numerology; having abolished the 'natural' calendar, the Bab substitutes for it a purely spiritual and mental calendar of 19 months each of 19 days, each one bearing the name of an an attribute of God. The last month (that of 'Ala') is that of fasting, effective from dawn to sunset. This calendar, with some minor modifications, has been adopted by the Bahā'īs also. The Bāb took pleasure also in writing the most complicated hayākil (pl. of haykal, 'temple' or 'shape'), a kind of talisman in an obscure shikasta script, which he considered to be the most acceptable to God.

It would be difficult to put into order the very varied moral and juridical precepts contained in the Bayan. Beside such excellent verses as 'Each day recalls my Name. And if each day my thought penetrates into your heart, then are you among those who are always in God's thoughts' (Arabic Bayan, wakid V, chapter 9), one finds prescriptions which seem not a little strange, such as the injunction, already quoted, not to possess more than 19 books, or discursions on the correct way to eat eggs. The extreme leniency of the penalties, which are reduced to fines and to the prohibition of sexual relations with one's own wife, is characteristic. The greatest penalty is incurred by the homicide: the culprit is condemned to pay 11,000 mithkals of gold to the heirs of the victim, and to abstain from all sexual activity for 19 years. Some penalties are likewise inflicted not only on those who strike their fellowcreatures, but also on those who lift their voices against them. Certain passages seem, however, to deal with relations between believers and unbelievers (it is only in the Baha'l doctrine that Holy War and the confiscation of the goods of unbelievers have been definitely abrogated). There exist, moreover, regulations concerning taxes on benefits, on capital, etc. Divorce is allowed, but discouraged. Widowers and widows are obliged to remarry, the first after 90 days, the latter after 95. Ritual purity and seclusion of women are abolished. Public worship is abolished, except for the rites of the dead. The Bab's birthplace, the places of his imprisonment, etc., are recommended as places of pilgrimage. Every 19th day one should invite 19 persons, giving them 'if only a glass of water'. All alcoholic drinks are forbidden, and it is as strictly forbidden to beg as it is to give individual alms to beggars.

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(A. BAUSANI) BAB AL-ABWAB, 'Gate of the Gates', in the older texts AL-BAB WA'L-ABWAB, 'the Gate and the Gates', and often simply AL-BAB, the Arabic designation of a pass and fortress at the E. end of the Caucasus, in Persian Darband, later under Turkish influence 'Iron Gate', mod. Derbent. The 'Gates' are the mouths of the E. Caucasus valleys (Ibn Khurradadhbih, 123-4; cf. Yāķūt, i, 439), al-Bāb itself ('the Gate') in the main pass being the most important. It was originally fortified against invaders from the N. at some date not determined, traditionally by Anushirwan (6th century A.D.), who is said to have built a wall seven farsakhs in length from the mountains to the sea (Kazwini, Cosmography, 341). The present remains of fortification extend from Derbent to the Kara Syrt.

When the first Muslims reached Darband in 22/643, a Persian garrison was in possession, but we have no description of what the place looked like. During the fighting of the next decade between the Arabs and the Khazars, at this time the principal power N. of the Caucasus, Bab al-Abwab is frequently mentioned, and so also in the following century. Maslama b. 'Abd al-Malik in a spectacular retreat from Khazaria in 113/731 reached the neighbourhood of al-Bab with his troops at their last gasp. In 119/ 737 Marwan b. Muḥammad (later Caliph as Marwan II) assaulted the Khazars simultaneously from Bab al-Abwab and Darial (Bab al-Lan, [q.v.]), and for a short time was master of the country to the Volga. The Khazars gradually ceased to be dangerous. Their last great invasion of the lands of Islam via Bab al-Abwāb took place in 183/799.

According to the description of Bab al-Abwab given by al-Işṭakhrī (circa 340/951) there was a harbour for ships from the Caspian inside the town. The oblique harbour-entrance between the two sea-walls was narrow and further defended by a chain or boom. These arrangements, like the wall mentioned above, and the city-wall, no doubt mostly went back to Sāsānid times, but owed improvements to the Arabs, e.g., under the celebrated vizier 'Ali b. al-Furāt (after 296/908) (Hilāl al-Şābi', Kitāb al-Wuzarā', ed. Amedroz, 217-218). Al-Işţakhrī adds that Bāb al-Abwab was a principal port of the Caspian in his time, and larger than Ardabil, the capital of Adharbāydjān. It exported linen garments, of which it had practically a monopoly in these parts, also saffron, and slaves from the infidel lands lying to the N. Writing about the same time, al-Mas'ūdī mentions as imported to Bab al-Abwab the black fox-skins of Burțăs (on the Volga) which were the best in the world (Tanbih, 63). For al-Mas'udi Bāb al-Abwāb, in spite of earlier attempts to plant Arab colonies there (cf. Balcami, ed. Dorn, 538) and in spite of its name, was evidently no Arab town.

Recent investigations have brought to light the existence of a dynasty in Båb al-Abwåb, the Håshimids, having connexions with the neighbouring Shirwan Shåhs, as early as the 4th/10th