

on both sides. This reverse in a measure united the two great Memlook parties, though their chiefs remained at enmity. El-Bardeesee passed to the south of Cairo, and the Ghuzz gradually retreated towards Upper Egypt. Thither the pasha despatched three successive expeditions (one of which was commanded by Mehemet Ali), and many battles were fought, but without decisive result.

At this period another calamity befell Egypt; about 3000 Delees arrived in Cairo from Syria. These troops had been sent for by Khursheed in order to strengthen himself against the Albanians; and the events of this portion of the history afford sad proof of their ferocity and brutal enormities, in which they far exceeded the ordinary Turkish soldiers and even the Albanians. Their arrival immediately recalled Mehemet Ali and his party from the war, and instead of aiding Khursheed was the proximate cause of his overthrow.

Cairo was ripe for revolt; the pasha was hated for his tyranny and extortion, and execrated for the deeds of his troops, especially those of the Delees: the sheykhs enjoined the people to close their shops, and the soldiers clamoured for pay. At this juncture a firmán arrived from Constantinople conferring on Mehemet Ali the pashalic of Jiddéh; but the occurrences of a few days raised him to that of Egypt.

On the 12th of Safar 1220 (May 1805) the sheykhs, with an immense concourse of the inhabitants, assembled in the house of the kadee; and the Ulemá, amid the prayers and cries of the people, wrote a full statement of the heavy wrongs which they had endured under the administration of the pasha. The Ulemá, in answer, were desired to go to the citadel; but they were apprised of treachery; and on the following day, having held another council at the house of the kadee, they proceeded to Mehemet Ali, and informed him that the people would no longer submit to Khursheed. "Then whom will ye have?" said he. "We will have thee," they replied, "to govern us according to the laws; for we see in thy countenance that thou art possessed of justice and goodness." Mehemet Ali seemed to hesitate, and then complied, and was at once invested. On this, a bloody struggle commenced between the two pashas. Cairo had before experienced such conflicts in the streets and over the housetops, but none so severe as this. Khursheed, being informed by a messenger of the insurrection, immediately laid in stores of provisions and ammunition, and prepared to stand a siege in the citadel. Two chiefs of the Albanians joined his party, but many of his soldiers deserted. Mehemet Ali's great strength lay in the devotion of the citizens of Cairo, who looked on him as their future deliverer from their afflictions; and great numbers armed themselves, advising constantly with Mehemet Ali, having the seyyid Omar and the sheykhs at their head, and guarding the town at night. On the 19th of the same month, Mehemet Ali besieged Khursheed. Retrenchments were raised, and the lofty minaret of the mosque of the sultan Hasan was used as a battery whence to fire on the citadel; while guns were also posted on the mountain in its rear. After the siege had continued many days, Khursheed gave orders to cannonade and bombard the town; and for six days his commands were executed with little interruption, the citadel itself also lying between two fires. Mehemet Ali's position at this time was very critical: his troops became mutinous for their pay; the siláhdár, who had commanded one of the expeditions against the Ghuzz, advanced to the relief of Khursheed; and the latter ordered the Delees to march to his assistance. The firing ceased on the Friday, but recommenced on the eve of Saturday and lasted until the next Friday. On the day following, news came of the arrival at Alexandria of a messenger from Constantinople. The ensuing night in Cairo presented a curious spectacle;

many of the inhabitants gave way to rejoicing, in the hope that this envoy would put an end to their miseries, and fired off their weapons as they paraded the streets with bands of music. The siláhdár, imagining the noise to be a fray, marched in haste towards the citadel, while its garrison sallied forth, and commenced throwing up retrenchments in the quarter of Arab-el-Yesár, but were repulsed by the armed inhabitants and the soldiers stationed there, and during all this time, the cannonade and bombardment from the citadel, and on it from the batteries on the mountain, continued unabated.

The envoy brought a firmán confirming Mehemet Ali, and ordering Khursheed to repair to Alexandria, there to await further orders; but this he refused to do, on the ground that he had been appointed by a khatt-i-shereef. The firing ceased on the following day, but the troubles of the people were rather increased than assuaged; murders and robberies were daily committed by the soldiery, the shops were all shut and some of the streets barricaded. While these scenes were being enacted, El-Elfee was besieging Demenhoor, and the other beys were returning towards Cairo, Khursheed having called them to his assistance.

Soon after this, a squadron under the command of the Turkish high admiral arrived in Aboo-Keer Bay, with despatches confirmatory of the firmán brought by the former envoy, and authorizing Mehemet Ali to continue to discharge the functions of governor for the present. Khursheed at first refused to yield; but at length, on condition that his troops should be paid, he evacuated the citadel and embarked for Rosetta.

Mehemet Ali now possessed the title of Governor of Egypt, but beyond the walls of Cairo his authority was everywhere disputed by the beys, who were joined by the army of the siláhdár of Khursheed; and many Albanians deserted from his ranks. To replenish his empty coffers he was also compelled to levy exactions, principally from the Copts. An attempt was made to ensnare certain of the beys, who were encamped north of the metropolis. On the 17th of August 1805, the dam of the canal of Cairo was to be cut, and some chiefs of Mehemet Ali's party wrote, informing them that he would go forth early on that morning with most of his troops to witness the ceremony, inviting them to enter and seize the city, and to deceive them, stipulating for a certain sum of money as a reward. The dam, however, was cut early in the preceding night, without any ceremony. On the following morning, these beys, with their memlooks, a very numerous body, broke open the gate of the suburb El-Hoseyneeyeh, and gained admittance into the city from the north, through the gate called Báb el-Futooh. They marched along the principal street for some distance, with kettle-drums behind each company, and were received with apparent joy by the citizens. At the mosque called the Ashrafeeyeh they separated, one party proceeding to the Azhar and the houses of certain sheykhs, and the other continuing along the main street, and through the gate called Báb Zuweyleh, where they turned up towards the citadel. Here they were fired on by some soldiers from the houses; and with this signal a terrible massacre commenced. Falling back towards their companions, they found the bye-streets closed; and in that part of the main thoroughfare called Beyn-el-Kasreyn, they were suddenly placed between two fires. Thus shut up in a narrow street, some sought refuge in the collegiate mosque El-Barkookeeyeh, while the remainder fought their way through their enemies, and escaped over the city-wall with the loss of their horses. Two memlooks had in the meantime succeeded, by great exertions, in giving the alarm to their comrades in the quarter of the Azhar, who escaped by the eastern gate called Báb-el-

Ghureiyib. A horrible fate awaited those who had shut themselves up in the Barkookeeyeh. Having begged for quarter and surrendered, they were immediately stripped nearly naked, and about fifty were slaughtered on the spot; and about the same number were dragged away, with every brutal aggravation of their pitiful condition, to Mehemet Ali. Among them were four beys, one of whom, driven to madness by Mehemet Ali's mockery, asked for a drink of water; his hands were untied that he might take the bottle, but he snatched a dagger from one of the soldiers and rushed at the pasha, and fell covered with wounds. The wretched captives were then chained and left in the court of the pasha's house; and on the following morning the heads of their comrades who had perished the day before were skinned and stuffed with straw before their eyes. One bey and two others paid their ransom and were released; the rest, without exception, were tortured and put to death in the course of the ensuing night. Eighty-three beads (many of them those of Frenchmen and Albanians) were stuffed and sent to Constantinople, with a boast that the Memlook chiefs were utterly destroyed. Thus ended Mehemet Ali's first massacre of his too confiding enemies.

The beys, after this, appear to have despaired of regaining their ascendancy; most of them retreated to Upper Egypt, and an attempt at compromise failed. El-Elfee offered his submission on the condition of the cession of the Feiyoom and other provinces; but this was refused, and that chief gained two successive victories over the pasha's troops, many of whom deserted to him.

At length, in consequence of the remonstrances of the English, and a promise made by El-Elfee of 1500 purses, the Porte consented to reinstate the twenty-four beys, and to place El-Elfee at their head; but this measure met with the opposition of Mehemet Ali and the determined resistance of the majority of the Memlooks, who, rather than have El-Elfee at their head, preferred their present condition; for the enmity of El-Bardeesee had not subsided, and he commanded the voice of most of the other beys. In pursuance of the above plan, a squadron under Sálîh Pasha, shortly before appointed high admiral, arrived at Alexandria on the 1st of July 1806, with 3000 regular troops, and a successor to Mehemet Ali, who was to receive the pashalik of Salonica. This wily chief professed his willingness to obey the commands of the Porte, but stated that his troops, to whom he owed a vast sum of money, opposed his departure. He induced the Ulemá to sign a letter, praying the sultan to revoke the command for reinstating the beys, persuaded the chiefs of the Albanian troops to swear allegiance to him, and sent 2000 purses contributed by them to Constantinople. El-Elfee was at that time besieging Demenhoor, and he gained a signal victory over the pasha's troops; but the dissensions of the beys destroyed their last chance of a return to power. El-Elfee and his partisans were unable to pay the sum promised to the Porte; Sálîh Pasha received plenipotentiary powers from Constantinople, in consequence of the letter from the Ulemá; and, on the condition of Mehemet Ali's paying 4000 purses to the Porte, it was decided that he should continue in his post, and the reinstatement of the beys was abandoned. Fortune continued to favour the pasha. In the following month, El-Bardeesee died, aged forty-eight years; and soon after, a scarcity of provisions excited the troops of El-Elfee to revolt. That bey very reluctantly raised the siege of Demenhoor, being in daily expectation of the arrival of an English army; and at the village of Shubra-ment he was attacked by a sudden illness, and died on the 30th of January 1807, at the age of fifty-five. Thus was the pasha relieved of his two most formidable enemies; and shortly after he defeated Sháheen Bey, with the loss to the latter

of his artillery and baggage and 300 men killed or taken prisoners.

On the 17th of March 1807, a British fleet appeared off Alexandria, having on board nearly 5000 troops, under the command of General Fraser; and the place, being disaffected towards Mehemet Ali, opened its gates to them. Here they first heard of the death of El-Elfee, upon whose co-operation they had founded their chief hopes of success; and they immediately despatched messengers to his successor and to the other beys inviting them to Alexandria. The British resident, Major Misset, having represented the importance of taking Rosetta and Er-Rahmánéeyeh, to secure supplies for Alexandria, General Fraser, with the concurrence of the admiral, Sir John Duckworth, detached the 31st regiment and the Chasseurs Britanniques, under Major-General Wauchope and Brigadier-General Meade, on this service; and these troops entered Rosetta without encountering any opposition; but as soon as they had dispersed among the narrow streets, the garrison opened a deadly fire on them from the latticed windows and the roofs of the houses. They effected a retreat on Aboo-Keer and Alexandria, after a very heavy loss of 185 killed and 262 wounded, General Wauchope and three officers being among the former, and General Meade and seventeen officers among the latter. The heads of the slain were fixed on stakes on each side of the road crossing the Ezbekeeyeh in Cairo.

Mehemet Ali, meanwhile, was conducting an expedition against the beys in Upper Egypt, and he had defeated them near Asyoot, when he heard of the arrival of the British. In great alarm lest the beys should join them, especially as they were far north of his position, he immediately sent messengers to his rivals, promising to comply with all their demands, if they should join in expelling the invaders; and this proposal being agreed to, both armies marched towards Cairo on opposite sides of the river.

To return to the unfortunate British expedition. The possession of Rosetta being deemed indispensable, Brigadier-General Stewart and Colonel Oswald were despatched thither, with 2500 men. For thirteen days a cannonade of the town was continued without effect; and on the 20th of April, news having come in from the advanced guard at El-Hamad of large reinforcements to the besieged, General Stewart was compelled to retreat; and a dragoon was despatched to Major Macleod, commanding at El Hamad, with orders to fall back. The messenger, however, was unable to penetrate to the spot; and the advanced guard, consisting of a detachment of the 71st, two companies of the 78th, one of the 35th, and De Rolles's regiment, with a picquet of dragoons, the whole mustering 733 men, was surrounded, and, after a gallant resistance, the survivors, who had expended all their ammunition, became prisoners of war. General Stewart regained Alexandria with the remainder of his force, having lost, in killed, wounded, and missing, nearly 900 men. Some hundreds of British heads were now exposed on stakes in Cairo, and the prisoners were marched between these mutilated remains of their countrymen.

The beys became divided in their wishes, one party being desirous of co-operating with the British, the other with the pasha. These delays proved ruinous to their cause; and General Fraser, despairing of their assistance, evacuated Alexandria on the 14th of September. From that date to the spring of 1811, the beys from time to time relinquished certain of their demands; the pasha on his part granted them what before had been withheld; the province of the Feiyoom, and part of those of El-Geezeh and Bencee-Suweyf, were ceded to Sháheen; and a great portion of the Sa'eed, on the condition of paying the land-tax, to the others. Many of them took up their abode in

Cairo, but tranquillity was not secured; several times they met the pasha's forces in battle, and once gained a signal victory. Early in the year 1811, the preparations for an expedition against the Wahhábees in Arabia being complete, all the Memlook beys then in Cairo were invited to the ceremony of investing Mehemet Ali's favourite son, Toosoon, with a pelisse and the command of the army. As on the former occasion, the unfortunate Memlooks fell into the snare. On the 1st of March, Sháheen Bey and the other chiefs (one only excepted) repaired with their retinues to the citadel, and were courteously received by the pasha. Having taken coffee, they formed in procession, and preceded and followed by the pasha's troops, slowly descended the steep and narrow road leading to the great gate of the citadel; but as soon as the Memlooks arrived at the gate it was suddenly closed before them. The last of those who made their exit before the gate was shut were Albanians under Sáliah Koosh. To these troops their chief now made known the pasha's orders to massacre all the Memlooks within the citadel; therefore, having returned by another way, they gained the summits of the walls and houses that hem in the road in which the Memlooks were incarcerated, and some stationed themselves upon the eminences of the rock through which that road is partly cut. Thus securely placed, they commenced a heavy fire on their defenceless victims; and immediately the troops who closed the procession, and who had the advantage of higher ground, followed their example. Of the betrayed chiefs, many were laid low in a few moments; some, dismounting, and throwing off their outer robes, vainly sought, sword in hand, to return, and escape by some other gate. The few who regained the summit of the citadel experienced the same cruel fate as the rest (for those whom the Albanian soldiers made prisoners met with no mercy from their chiefs or from Mehemet Ali), but it soon became impossible for any to retrace their steps even so far; the road was obstructed by the bleeding bodies of the slain Memlooks, and their richly caparisoned horses, and their grooms. 470 Memlooks entered the citadel; and of these very few, if any, escaped. One of these is said to have been a bey. According to some, he leapt his horse from the ramparts, and alighted uninjured, though the horse was killed by the fall; others say that he was prevented from joining his comrades, and discovered the treachery while waiting without the gate. He fled and made his way to Syria. This massacre was the signal for an indiscriminate slaughter of the Memlooks throughout Egypt, orders to this effect being transmitted to every governor; and in Cairo itself, the houses of the beys were given over to the soldiery, who slaughtered all their adherents, treated their women in the most shameless manner, and sacked their dwellings. During the two following days, the pasha and his son Toosoon rode about the streets, and endeavoured to stop these atrocious proceedings; but order was not restored until 500 houses had been completely pillaged. In extenuation of this dark blot on Mehemet Ali's character, it has been urged that he had received the order for the destruction of the Memlooks from Constantinople, whither the heads of the beys were sent. It may be answered to this plea, that on other occasions he scrupled not to defy the Porte.

A remnant of the Memlooks fled to Nubia, and a tranquillity was restored to Egypt to which it had long been unaccustomed, and which has rarely been interrupted since. In the year following the massacre, the unfortunate exiles were attacked by Ibrahim Pasha, the eldest son of Mehemet Ali, in the fortified town of Ibreem, in Nubia. Here the want of provisions forced them to evacuate the place; a few who surrendered were beheaded, and the rest went further south and built the town of New Dongola

(correctly Dunkulah), where the venerable Ibrahim Bey died in 1816, at the age of eighty. As their numbers thinned, they endeavoured to maintain their little power by training some hundreds of blacks; but again, on the approach of Ismail, another son of the pasha of Egypt, sent with an army to subdue Nubia and Sennár, some returned to Egypt and settled in Cairo, while the rest, amounting to about 100 persons, fled in dispersed parties to the countries adjacent to Sennár.

Mehemet Ali, being undisputed master of Egypt, at the reiterated commands of the Porte despatched in 1811 an army of 8000 men, including 2000 horse, under the command of Toosoon Pasha, against the Wahhábees. After a successful advance, this force met with a serious repulse at the pass of Safrá and Judeiyideh, and retreated to Yembo'. In the following year Toosoon, having received reinforcements, again assumed the offensive, and captured Medinah after a prolonged siege. He next took Jiddeh and Mecca, defeating the Wahhábees beyond the latter place and capturing their general. But some mishaps followed, and Mehemet Ali, who had determined to conduct the war in person, left Egypt for that purpose in the summer of 1813. In Arabia he encountered serious obstacles from the nature of the country and the harassing mode of warfare adopted by his adversaries. His arms met with various fortune; but on the whole his forces proved superior to those of the enemy. He led a successful expedition in the Hijáz, and, after concluding a treaty with the Wahhábee chief, 'Abd-Allah, in 1815, he returned to Egypt on hearing of the escape of Napoleon from Elba.

He now confiscated the lands belonging to private individuals, merely allowing them a pension for life, and attempted to introduce the European system of military tactics. A formidable mutiny, however, broke out in the metropolis, the pasha's life was endangered, and he sought refuge by night in the citadel, while the soldiery committed many acts of plunder. The revolt was reduced by presents to the chiefs of the insurgents, and Mehemet Ali very honourably ordered that the sufferers by the late disturbances should receive compensation from the treasury. The project of the "Nizám Gedeed," as the European system is called in Egypt, was, in consequence of this commotion, abandoned for a time.

Soon after Toosoon returned to Egypt, but Mehemet Ali, dissatisfied with the treaty which had been concluded with the Wahhábees, and with the non-fulfilment of certain of its clauses, determined to send another army to Arabia, and to include in it the soldiers who had recently proved unruly. This expedition, under Ibrahim Pasha, left in the autumn of 1816. After several unimportant advantages, Ibrahim sat down before the town of Er-Rass; but three months' exertions proving unavailing, he raised the siege, with the loss of nearly half his army. Notwithstanding, he advanced on the capital, Ed-Dir'eeyeh, by slow but sure steps. The last place before reaching that city offered a brave resistance, and Ibrahim, in revenge, caused all its inhabitants to be put to the sword, except a number of women and children, the former of whom were spared not from motives of pity. Ed-Dir'eeyeh fell after a five months' siege, in the course of which an explosion destroyed the whole of the besiegers' powder; and had the Wahhábees been aware of the extent of the disaster, few, we may believe, would have escaped to tell the tale. 'Abd-Allah, their chief, was taken, and with his treasurer and secretary was sent to Constantinople, where, in spite of Ibrahim's promise of safety, and of Mehemet Ali's intercession in their favour, they were paraded and put to death. At the close of the year 1819, Ibrahim returned to Cairo, having conquered all present opposition in Arabia, but without having broken the spirit of the Wahhábees.

The pasha, since his return from Arabia, had turned his attention to the improvement of the manufactures of Egypt, and engaged very largely in commerce. The results of these attempts are stated in other places, but the important work of digging the new canal of Alexandria, called the Mahmoodeeyeh, must here be again mentioned. The old canal had long fallen into decay, and the necessity of a safe channel between Alexandria and the Nile was much felt. Such was the object of the canal then excavated, and it has on the whole well answered its purpose; but the sacrifice of life was enormous, and the labour of the unhappy felláhs was forced. Towards the accomplishment of a favourite project, the formation of the Nizám Gedeed, a force was ordered to the southern frontier of Egypt, and the conquest of Sennár was contemplated in order to get rid of the disaffected troops, and to obtain a sufficient number of captives to form the nucleus of the new army. The forces destined for this service were led by Ismail, then the youngest son of Mehemet Ali; they consisted of between 4000 and 5000 men, Turks and Arabs, and were despatched in the summer of 1820. Nubia at once submitted, the Shágeeyeh Arabs immediately beyond the province of Dongola were worsted, and Sennár was reduced without a battle. Mohammad Bey, the defterdár, with another force of about the same strength, was then sent by Mehemet Ali against Kurdufán with a like result, but not without a hard fought engagement. In 1822 Ismail was, with his retinue, put to death by an Arab chieftain named Nimr; and the defterdár, a man infamous for his cruelty, assumed the command in those provinces, and exacted terrible retribution from the innocent inhabitants.

In the years 1821 and 1822 Mehemet Ali despatched both ships and men (the latter about 7000 or 8000 Albanians and Turks) to the Morea, Cyprus, and Candia, to aid the Porte in reducing the Greek insurrection; and he continued to take part in that struggle, his fleet being engaged at Navarino, until the English insisted on the evacuation of the Morea in 1828 by Ibrahim Pasha. In 1822 an army of disciplined troops was at length organized: 8000 men (chiefly slaves, from Sennár and Kurdufán) were trained by French officers at Aswán. Of the vast numbers seized in the countries above named, many died on the way; those who were not eligible were, with the women, sold in Cairo, and in the remainder were incorporated many felláhs. Colonel Sèves (Suleymán Pasha), a Frenchman who afterwards became a Moslem, superintended their organization; great numbers of the blacks died, but the Egyptians proved very good troops. Many thousands were pressed in consequence, and they now constitute the bulk of the army. In 1823 the new conscripts amounted to 24,000 men, composing six regiments of infantry, each regiment consisting of five battalions of 800 men, and the battalions of eight companies of 100 men.

In 1824 a native rebellion of a religious character broke out in Upper Egypt, headed by one Ahmad, an inhabitant of Es-Sálimeeyeh, a village situate a few miles above Thebes. He proclaimed himself a prophet, and was soon followed by between 20,000 and 30,000 insurgents, mostly peasants, but some deserters from the Nizám, for that force was yet in a half-organized state and in part declared for the impostor. The insurrection was crushed by Mehemet Ali, and about one-fourth of Ahmad's followers perished, but he himself escaped and was never after heard of. Few of these unfortunates possessed any other weapon than the long staff (nebbot) of the Egyptian peasant; still they offered an obstinate resistance, and the combat resembled a massacre. In the same year war was once more made on the Wahhábees, who had collected in considerable numbers. The 2d regiment was sent on this service, and it behaved in a very creditable manner.

But the events of the war with the Porte are perhaps the most important of the life of Mehemet Ali. The campaign of 1831 had ostensibly for its object the castigation of 'Abd-Allah, pasha of Acre; the invading force consisted of six regiments of infantry, four of cavalry, four field-pieces, and a greater number of siege-guns, the whole under the command of Ibrahim Pasha, while the fleet, conveying provisions, ammunition, &c., was to accompany the army by sea. The terrible cholera of 1831, however, stayed the expedition when it was on the eve of departing; 5000 of its number died, and it was not until early in October of the same year that it started. Little opposition was encountered on the way to Acre, whither Ibrahim had gone by sea, and that place was invested on the 29th of November. The artillery of the besieged was well served; an assault in the following February was repulsed, and the cold and rain of a Syrian winter severely tried the Egyptian troops. A second assault in like manner failed, and Ibrahim was called away to repel 'Osmán Pasha, governor of Aleppo. The latter, however, hastily decamped without giving him battle, and Ibrahim, deeming this advantage sufficient, retraced his steps towards Acre. He then pushed the siege with fresh vigour, and stormed the city on the 27th of May; 1400 men fell in the breach, and the garrison was found to be reduced to about 400 men. The fall of Acre was followed by negotiation. Mehemet Ali evinced a disposition for peace, but demanded the government of Syria, and the Porte, in consequence, denounced him as a traitor. On his part, Ibrahim pushed his successes; Damascus was evacuated at his approach, and the battle of Hims, fought on the 8th of July 1832, decided the superiority of the Egyptian army, and the advantage of disciplined troops over an irregular force, although very disproportionate in numbers. The enemy composed the advanced guard of the Turkish army, 30,000 strong, and the Egyptians numbered only 16,000 men.

After this victory, Ibrahim marched to Hamáh, and thence to Aleppo (which had just before closed its gates against the Turkish general-in-chief, Hoseyn Pasha, whose troops became rapidly disorganized), forced the defiles of Beylán, and pursued the fugitive Turks to Adaneh. About the same time an Egyptian squadron had chased the sultan's fleet into Constantinople. Diplomacy was, at this point, again resorted to, but without any result; the sultan depended on his fleet to protect the capital, and determined to risk another engagement with the victorious enemy. The charge of this venture was intrusted to Resheed Pasha, the grand vizir. In the meantime, Ibrahim Pasha had gained the pass of Taurus, and having beaten the Turks at Oulou-Kíslák, he hesitated not to give battle to Resheed Pasha at the head of about 60,000 men, his own army being less than half that strength; the battle of Kooniyeh, on the plains of Anatolia, proved utterly disastrous to the Porte; in the confusion of the fight, and the darkness of a thick day, the grand vizir was made prisoner, his army routed, and Constantinople was within six marches of the victor, without an army to oppose his passage. The capital of the Ottoman Empire, in imminent danger by sea and land, was then intrusted to the keeping of its hereditary enemy, as the last resource of the sultan Mahmood, and a Russian fleet and army were sent thither. Negotiations were in consequence opened, and on the 14th of May 1833 a treaty was concluded between Mehemet Ali and the Porte, by which the whole of Syria and the district of Adaneh were ceded to the former, on condition of his paying tribute. With this terminated the war, but not the animosity of the sultan. Ibrahim, by excessive firmness and rigour, speedily restored security and tranquillity to the greater part of Syria; but some years later, the attempt of Mahmood to get the better of his vassal, and the consequent

disaster experienced by his arms at Nezeeb, entailed fresh complications, and the interference of Great Britain ended in the restoration of Syria to the Porte in 1841. Mehemet Ali had placed all his reliance on the co-operation of France, and to its desertion of his cause, and his confidence in its assistance, either moral or material, must be ascribed the unfortunate issue of the war. That the Syrians, in general, preferred the rule of Mehemet Ali to the tyranny of pashas appointed from Constantinople may be safely averred; but we cannot close this account of his possession of that province without animadverting on the horrible cruelties perpetrated by Ibrahim Pasha, or warning our readers not to give credence to the unmeasured praise bestowed by many on the Egyptian troops there engaged. Conceding that they were superior soldiers to the Turks, it must be borne in mind that they were veterans, disciplined and led by the French officers and an able general; their opponents were destitute of any European discipline, badly officered, and discouraged by the disasters in Greece. It has, moreover, been stated on good authority, that Ibrahim owed much of his success to the placing of artillery in the rear of his troops, with orders to fire on them should they show symptoms of wavering.

After the peace of 1841 Mehemet Ali gave up all great political projects, and solely occupied himself in improvements, real or imaginary, in Egypt. He continued to prosecute his commercial speculations, and manufacturing, educational, and other schemes. The barrage of the Nile, still uncompleted, was commenced by his direction, and in 1847 he visited Constantinople, where he received the rank of vizir. In the year 1848, however, symptoms of imbecility appeared; and after a short space Ibrahim was declared his successor, but died after a brief reign of two months.

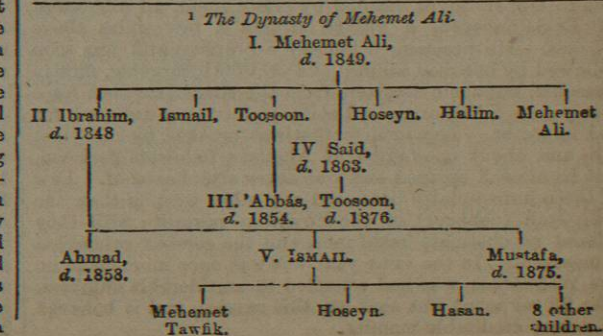
Mehemet Ali survived Ibrahim, and died on the 3d of August 1849. Many and conflicting have been the opinions entertained of this remarkable man, for such at least all acknowledge him to have been. His massacre of the Memloks has been the great point of attack by his enemies; but that, as well as many of his other acts, must be ascribed to his boundless ambition, not to innate cruelty; for he proved himself to be averse to unnecessary bloodshed. That he really esteemed European civilization may be doubted; but his intelligent mind could not fail to perceive that therein lay his great strength, and of this he availed himself with consummate ability. To his firm government Egypt is indebted for the profound tranquillity which it has long been its good fortune to enjoy. A traveller of any nation or faith may traverse it in its length and breadth with greater safety than almost any other country out of Western Europe; and the display of fanaticism has been rigorously punished. While, however, Egypt has benefited by the establishment of order, the people have suffered most severe exactions. The confiscation of private lands has been before mentioned; to that arbitrary act must be added the seizure of the lands of the mosques, the imposition of heavy taxation, and a system of merciless impressment. In fact, the condition of the Egyptian fellah has rarely been as wretched as it is at the present day. Mehemet Ali also misunderstood the real resources of Egypt, which are certainly agricultural; he dealt a severe blow to native produce by endeavouring to encourage manufacturing industry, and by establishing enormous Government monopolies, a measure which crushed the spirit of the agriculturists. His military and governing abilities were assuredly very great, and his career is almost unequalled in Turkish history. Had it not been for the intervention of Great Britain, his Syrian successes over the Porte would probably have rescued Egypt from the wretched condition of a Turkish

province. But the firman of 1841 entailed the loss of all his military power, the army was reduced to 18,000 men, and the navy condemned to rot in the harbour of Alexandria; while Mehemet Ali, failing to gain the great object of his ambition, the establishment of an independent dynasty; and being compelled to look on his then living family as his only heirs, thenceforth confined himself to measures of less importance, and did not prosecute even these with his former energy.

The entire constitution of the government of Egypt is the work of Mehemet Ali. With a few exceptions, he destroyed all former usages, and introduced a system partly derived from European models. The army and navy are of his creation; so are the taxation, the regulation of import and export duties, &c., quarantine laws, the manufactories, colleges, and the ministry. Some of these institutions are useful, others both vexatious and ill-calculated for the country. The colleges of languages and medicine, and the printing-press at Boolak, are among the former, and are exceedingly praiseworthy efforts in a right direction; and in the same category must be placed many minor improvements, in which Mehemet Ali showed himself to be far in advance of his countrymen; while, weighing his chequered life and numerous disadvantages of position and nation, his moral character, enlightened mind, and distinguished ability must place him high among the great men of modern times.<sup>1</sup>

Ibrahim was succeeded by his nephew 'Abbás, son of Toosoon. This miserable voluptuary, and withal bigoted though ignorant Muslim, utterly neglected the affairs of government and solely consulted his own gratification. During his reign all the great works begun by Mehemet Ali were suspended. It was a time of deliberate retrogression, and his sudden death in July 1854 was welcomed by all true Egyptians as the removal of the country's curse. His successor, Said Pasha, the fourth son of Mehemet Ali, endeavoured to pursue his great father's policy and to carry out his aims. He had not, however, the strength of character or the health needed to meet the serious difficulties of the task, and he will chiefly be remembered for the abolition of some of the more grinding Government monopolies, and for the concession of the Suez Canal. It was reserved for his nephew, the present khedive, to attain all and more than all that Mehemet Ali had designed for his country.

The reign of Ismail promises to be the beginning of a new era for Egypt. A man of undoubted ability, possessed of unusual energy in administration, fully appreciative of the importance of Western civilization, fired with the ambition proper to a grandson of Mehemet Ali, the khedive is a ruler such as Egypt has scarcely seen since the Arab conquest. His first step was to remove, as far as possible, the irksome control of the Porte. At great cost he obtained an imperial firman in 1866, removing almost all the old treaty restrictions, granting him the title of khedive



(pron. khedeev), and settling the succession on the eldest son; and in 1872 another firman made him virtually an independent sovereign.

Having thus obtained for himself and his dynasty a settled regal rank, Ismail turned his attention homeward, and began a series of reforms such as no previous governor of Egypt ever contemplated. He re-established and improved the administrative system organized by Mehemet Ali, and which had fallen into decay under 'Abbás's indolent rule; he caused a thorough remodelling of the customs system, which was in an anarchic state, to be made by English officials; in 1865 he bought the Egyptian post-office, and placed it under the direction, with full powers, of an official from St Martin's le Grand, who has brought it into admirable working order; he re-organized the military schools of his grandfather, and lent his willing support to the cause of education in every way. Public works have largely engaged the attention of the khedive. Railways, telegraphs, lighthouses, the harbour works at Suez, the breakwater at Alexandria, have been carried out under his personal auspices by some of the best contractors of Europe. If there is a fault to be found in this Europeanizing of Egypt, it is that the practical zeal for modern civilization leaves no room for the honourable respect due to the unique antiquities of the country. It is true that ancient Egypt is protected by the care of Mariette Bey, but the art of the Arabs is suffered to decay, may, is even purposely demolished, to make room for modern French gewgaws. A recent writer tells us that a new street cuts through about a mile of the "old Arab rookeries," and gravely advances the opinion that the opera house and the public gardens and the other meretricious abominations that have been set up in Cairo are worthy of a second class European city! Still, terrible as is the vandalism now going on in Egypt, there can be little doubt that the present policy of the khedive will add greatly to the prosperity and health of the people. At the same time, future generations will gain at the fearful expense of the present. The funds required for these public works, as well as the actual labour, have been remorselessly extorted from a poverty-stricken population; and there is probably no peasant now existing whose condition is worse than that of the long-suffering Egyptian fellah.

One of the greatest reforms that Egypt owes to its present ruler is the abolition of the old system of consular jurisdiction, and the substitution of mixed courts, where European and native judges sit together to try all mixed cases without respect to nationality. These courts were established in 1876 on the suggestion of the wisest of Egypt's statesmen, Nubar Pasha, and on the recommendation of an international commission. A code based on the Mohamadan law and the Code Napoléon has been drawn up, which seems thoroughly suited to the needs of the position; and the best results may be looked for from this reform. It were greatly to be desired that the jurisdiction of these courts should be extended so as eventually to supersede the old native system. At present they only take the place of the consular courts.

In recent times the khedive has annexed a large territory to the south of Khartoom, now extending about as far as Gondokoro, and which will doubtless shortly include the lakes of Victoria and Albert Nyanza. The expedition was at first commanded by Sir Samuel Baker, with very unsatisfactory results; and great relief was felt when the continuation of the work of conquest was intrusted to Colonel Gordon, an officer in whose character and ability the fullest confidence is placed. The khedive has professed himself anxious to put down the Nile slave-trade, and that he is really desirous of seeing the traffic ended is shown by the full powers he has given Colonel Gordon for the

suppression of it in the heart of the slave-country. What the result will be it is hard to foretell; but the good faith of the khedive and the determination of Colonel Gordon are now beyond a doubt. Quite recently (Aug. 14, 1877) a convention between the British and Egyptian Governments for the suppression of the slave-trade has been signed, imposing stringent penalties on the importation of slaves into Egypt, and extending the power of search in the case of suspected vessels.

Altogether it may be believed that a better time is beginning for Egypt. (E.S.P.—S.L.P.)

TOPOGRAPHY AND MONUMENTS.<sup>1</sup>

The northern coast of Egypt is low and barren, presenting no features of interest, and affording no indication of the character of the country which it bounds. It is a barrier, generally of sand-hills, but sometimes of rock, for the most part wholly destitute of vegetation, except where grow a few wild and stunted date-palms. Immediately behind are desolate marshy tracts or extensive salt lakes, and beyond, the fertile country. The last is a wide plain, intersected by the two branches of the Nile, and by many canals, of which some were anciently branches of the river, and having a soil of great richness, though in this particular it is excelled by the valley above. The only inequalities of the surface are the mounds of ancient towns, and these, often if not always ancient, on which stand the modern towns and villages. The palm-trees are less numerous, and not so beautiful as in the more southern part of the country, but other trees are more common. The houses and huts of the towns and villages are of burnt brick near the Mediterranean; but as the climate becomes drier, and the occurrence of rain far less frequent, the use of crude brick obtains, until near the point of the Delta it is very general. The mosques even of the towns are rarely remarkable for architectural beauty in the tract to the north of Cairo. The palaces or villas of the Turkish grandees, which are not uncommon, have, however, a light and picturesque appearance, though their style is not good. The deserts which inclose the plain on both sides are rocky tracts of very slight elevation, having their surface overspread with sand and other debris.

Of the towns on the northern coast, the most western, Alexandria, called by the natives El-Iskendereeyeh, is the largest and the most important. It was founded in the year B.C. 332 by Alexander the Great, who gave it the form of a Macedonian mantle (chlamys). The ancient city occupied the space between the sea and Lake Mareotis, being about four miles in its greatest length, and a little less than a mile in its greatest breadth. The island of Pharos was likewise inhabited, and was joined to the continent by the mole called the Heptastadium. The Heptastadium and the island divided the bay into two harbours. These were spacious, and although the western, anciently called Portus Eunosti, but now the Old Port, is difficult to enter, and the eastern, Magnus Portus, or the New Port, is not so deep and is less secure, they are, except Port Said, by far the best anchorages on this coast of Egypt.

Alexandria, which partly occupied the site of the ancient Rhacotis, a place of little importance, naturally speedily increased in consequence, and became the emporium of the trade between Europe, Arabia, and India. After the death of Alexander the city became the capital of the Ptolemies. By the Ptolemies Alexandria was adorned with palaces and

<sup>1</sup> The following account of the topography and monuments of Egypt is mainly based on Mr Lane's MS. "Description of Egypt," which the writer of this article used as his guide to the monuments during his residence in that country.

of great magnificence, for which they did not scruple to despoil more ancient edifices of some of their chiefest ornaments. While its commercial importance increased, it became a celebrated seat of learning, with the greatest library of antiquity, through the wise interest with which the Greek kings regarded science and letters. Under the Ptolemies, however, the inhabitants, who were chiefly Greeks, became very troublesome to their rulers, like most commercial populations, and their turbulence was ill restrained by the weakness of the later sovereigns of that line. From the time of the Roman conquest, B.C. 30, until it was taken by the Arabs, A.D. 641, Alexandria sensibly declined, partly in consequence of its being a provincial capital, instead of a royal residence, but chiefly because of the unruly disposition of its inhabitants, and their violent religious and political disputes, which at last resulted in the seat of government being transferred to the fortress of Egyptian Babylon, near the modern Cairo, which became in some sort the capital. During this period it had been distinguished for the learning of its ecclesiastics, and the strong part which they took in the theological differences of the early church. Under the Muslims Alexandria never regained the position of metropolis of Egypt, and its importance, with some fluctuations, waned until the discovery and consequent adoption of the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope almost withdrew the main cause of its prosperity. Recently, however, the resumption of the overland route has greatly benefited this city, and although it was not made the capital, it became the favourite residence of Mehemet Ali, which in like manner contributed to its welfare.

The older part of the town of Alexandria stands upon the Heptastadium, now much wider than it was anciently; but the recent part, where are the houses of the European merchants, occupies the site of a portion of the ancient city, which was nearest to the mole. The most striking edifice is the castle on the island of Pharos, containing a lighthouse, which has succeeded to the more famous Pharos of antiquity. Here also is the pasha's palace, as well as a lesser Pharos. The houses of the town are built of stone, or have their lowest story cased with that material, and the portion above built of brick plastered and whitewashed. The residences of the European merchants and consuls and the richer Turks and natives are spacious and well-built, somewhat in the modern Italian style, but have no claims to architectural beauty. The mosques are not remarkable, but the English church will, if ever completed, be a great ornament to the town. The population of the town is estimated at over 200,000. One of the favourite projects of Mehemet Ali was the fortification of Alexandria, which has been thus rendered so strong that if well garrisoned it could not be invested by a force of less than about 40,000 men.

The ancient remains are very scanty and of little interest, compared to those which are seen on the sites of other Egyptian towns. Two objects are conspicuous, one of the obelisks commonly called "Cleopatra's Needles," and the great column known as "Pompey's Pillar." The former is a fine obelisk of red granite nearly 70 feet in height, bearing hieroglyphic inscriptions with the names of Thothmes III., Ramses II., and a later king. Beside it was a fallen obelisk of the same dimensions, its fellow, now (Oct. 1877) on its way to England. They were brought here from some ancient temple during the Roman rule. Pompey's Pillar is in like manner of red granite, and its shaft is about 70 feet high, the whole column being nearly 100 feet in height. Its pedestal bears a Greek inscription in honour of the emperor Diocletian.

Proceeding to the east of Alexandria, the first place of importance is Er Rasheed, called by the Europeans Rosetta,

a considerable town on the west bank of the Rosetta branch of the Nile, anciently the Bolbitina. Before the cutting by Mehemet Ali of the Mahmoodseeyeh Canal to connect Alexandria with this branch of the river, Rosetta was a place of greater importance than now, as in consequence of the decay of the old canal of Alexandria, the overland trade from India chiefly passed through it. It is a well-built town, having some gardens, and is in many respects more agreeable than Alexandria. Its population is stated to be 15,000. A little to the north of the town is the bogház, a bar of sand stretching across the mouth of the river, and rendering it often impassable; and between it and Rosetta is an old fort called Fort St Julien by the French, who repaired it during their occupation of Egypt, when one of their officers discovered the Rosetta Stone, the famous trilingual tablet which afforded the clue by which hieroglyphics were interpreted.

In ascending the Rosetta branch, the first place of interest is the site of Sais, SAI, on the eastern bank, marked by lofty mounds, and the remains of massive walls of crude brick, which were those of a great inclosure in which the chief temple and doubtless other sacred edifices stood. The goddess Nit or Neith was the divinity of the place, and a great festival was annually held here in her honour, to which pilgrims resorted from other parts of Egypt. Sais was remarkable for the learning of its priests, and was the royal residence of the Sate kings (Dynasties XXIV., XXVI.). A modern village here is called "Sá-el-Hagar," or "Sais of the Stone," a name which perhaps alludes to the famous monolith described by Herodotus.

In the interior of the modern Delta no remains of importance have been discovered, though there are many ancient sites marked by mounds. The chief towns are El-Mahalleh el-Kebeereh, not far from the Damietta branch, about forty miles from the sea; Tantá, nearly in the middle of the Delta; and Manoof, farther south. Of these Tantá is best known as the birth-place of a Muslim saint, the seyyid Ahmad El-Bedawee, in whose honour three festivals are annually kept, the greatest of which attracts more pilgrims than any other in Egypt, and is in this respect second alone to the pilgrimage to Mecca. The festivals of Tantá are rather distinguished by riot than piety, and recall the revelries of Bubastis and Canopus.

Several places of interest are found on the course of the Damietta branch, the old Phatnitic or Pathmetic. First of these is the town whence it takes its name, Dimyát, called by the Europeans Damietta, which stands not far from the mouth of the branch, or its eastern side. In the time of the crusades it was a strong place, and regarded as the key of Egypt. It was taken and retaken by the contending forces, and formed the basis of the operations of St Louis in the unfortunate eighth crusade. Shortly afterwards the sultan Edh-Dháhir Beybars, in A.D. 1251, razed it and rebuilt it on the present site somewhat farther from the sea. It is a flourishing town, and has a population of 29,000 inhabitants. The next place of importance is the town of El-Mansoorah, founded by El-Melik El-Kámil, the nephew of Saladin, during the sixth crusade, to commemorate, as its name imports, his success over the invading army of Jean de Brienne. A little to the south of El-Mansoorah, on the opposite or western bank, at a short distance from the river, are the remains of a very remarkable temple of the goddess Isis, and the mounds of the town of Iseum. Although the temple is entirely thrown down, as though by a natural convulsion, but probably by human violence, its plan may be partly traced and its date ascertained, as the materials have not been removed. It was, unlike most Egyptian temples, built altogether of granite, and was about 600 feet in length and 200 in breadth. The materials must have been transported

from Syené, a distance by the river, on which they were doubtless floated, of more than 600 miles. Bearing in mind this circumstance, and the difficulty of both working and sculpturing so hard a material, this temple must be considered to be one of the most costly in the country. The earliest name which has been found here is that of Nekht-har-heb (Dynasty XXX.), but the most common one is that of Ptolemy Philadelphus. A little to the south of this site, on the same bank, is the small town of Semennood, anciently Sebennytus; and a short distance farther, on the same side, is the village of Aboo-Seer, the ancient Busiris, named after Osiris, who, with Isis, was here worshipped. Herodotus mentions among the great festivals that of Isis held at Busiris, but this was more probably kept at Iseum, which was not far. For a long distance there is nothing of interest until we reach Tel-Atreeb, where the site of the town of Athribis is marked by high mounds, with remains of ancient houses and some blocks of stone.

To the eastward of the Damietta branch, in the broad cultivated tract or the desert beyond, are some places worthy of note. The most eastern of these is the site of Pelusium, which was, in the times of the Pharaohs of Dynasty XXVI., the key of Egypt towards Palestine. No important remains have been discovered here. Between this site and the Damietta branch are the mounds of Tanis, or Zoan, Z'AN, ZAR, where are considerable remains of the great temple, the most remarkable of which are several fallen obelisks, some of which are broken. From their inscriptions, and those of other blocks, it has been ascertained that the temple was as ancient as the time of Dynasty XII., and was much beautified by Ramses II. and other kings of that time and the subsequent period. Tanis was on the eastern bank of the Tanitic branch of the Nile, now called the Canal of the El-Mo'izz. On the same side of the same branch, but far to the south, was the city of Bubastis, PE-BAST, the site of which is indicated by very lofty mounds, in which may be traced the remains of its great temple, which was entirely of red granite. Here was held the festival of the goddess Bast, or Bubastis, which attracted great crowds of pilgrims, and is ranked by Herodotus first of the festivals of Egypt. Not far south, and on the borders of the desert, is Bilbeys, which was a place of some importance as a frontier-town in the time of the Eiyoobee princes. Still farther south are the mounds of Onion, the Jewish city founded by the high priest Onias, where was a temple closed by Vespasian not long after the overthrow of Jerusalem. The site is called Tell-el-Yahoodseeyeh, or "The Mound of the Jewess."

At the point of the Delta is the unfinished barrage, which, by crossing both branches of the river, will regulate the inundation above and below this point. The river here becomes broader than in its divided state, and long continues so. A little south of the point of the Delta, on the eastern bank of the river, near the village of El-Matareeyeh, not far north of Cairo, is the site of the ancient Heliopolis, or On, AN, the City of the Sun, marked by a solitary obelisk, and crude brick ridges formed by the ruins of a massive wall. The obelisk bears the name of Usurtesen I., the second king of Dynasty XII., in the simple inscription which runs down each of its sides. It is of red granite, and nearly 70 feet in height. The city was famous rather for the learning of its college than for its size, and the temple of the sun was held in high veneration. Many famous Greek philosophers studied here, and much of their earliest knowledge of natural science was no doubt derived from their Egyptian instructors.

Boolák, the port of Cairo, is a flourishing town, having two remarkable mosques. It was built A.H. 713, in the reign of the sultan Mohammad Ibn Kalá-oon. Here M.

Mariette has founded the national "Musée Boulaq," a splendid collection of Egyptian antiquities.

Cairo is the fourth Muslim capital of Egypt; the site of one of those that have preceded it is, for the most part, included within its walls, while the other two were a little to the south. 'Amr, the Muslim conqueror of the country, founded El-Fustát, the oldest of these, close to the fortress of Egyptian Babylon, the seat of government at that time. Its name signifies "the Tent," as it was built where 'Amr had pitched his tent. The new town speedily became a place of importance, and was the residence of the Náibs, or lieutenants, appointed by the orthodox and Omniade caliphs. It received the name of Masr, properly Misr, which was also applied by the Arabs to Memphis and to Cairo. It declined after the foundation of El-Káhíreh, but never became altogether deserted, for a small town, called Masr El-Ateekah, or "Old Masr," occupies, in the present day, part of what was its area in its time of prosperity. Shortly after the overthrow of the Omniade Dynasty, and the establishment of the 'Abbásee, the city of El-'Askar was founded (A.H. 133) by Suleymán, the general who subjugated the country, and became the capital and the residence of the successive lieutenants of the 'Abbásee caliphs. El-'Askar was a small town adjacent to El-Fustát, of which it was a kind of suburb. Its site is now entirely desolate. The third capital, El-Katá'í, or El-Katáyé, was founded about A.H. 260, by Ahmad Ibn-Tooloon, as his capital. It continued the royal residence of his successors; but not long after the fall of the dynasty, and the subsequent Ikhsheedees, the seat of government was transferred by the Fátímees to a new city, El-Káhíreh. El-Katá'í, which had been sacked on the overthrow of the Tooloonees, rapidly decayed. A part of the present Cairo occupies its site, and contains its great mosque, that of Ahmad Ibn-Tooloon.

Góhar el-Káid, the conqueror of Egypt for the Fátímee caliph El-Mo'izz, founded a new capital, A.H. 358, which was named El-Káhíreh, that is, "the Victorious," a name corrupted into Cairo. This town occupied about a fourth part, the north-eastern, of the present metropolis. By degrees it became greater than El-Fustát, and took from it the name of Misr, or Masr, which is applied to it by the modern Egyptians. It continually increased, so as to include the site of El-Katá'í to the south, and of the old town of El-Maks to the west. The famous Saladin built the Citadel on the lowest point of the mountain to the east, which immediately overlooked El-Katá'í, and he partly walled round the towns and large gardens within the space now called Cairo. Under the prosperous rule of the Memlook sultans this great tract was filled with habitations; a large suburb to the north, the Hoseyneeyeh, was added; and the town of Boolák was founded. After the Turkish conquest (A.D. 1517) the metropolis decayed, but its limits were the same; with the present dynasty it has somewhat recovered.

Cairo is of an irregular oblong form. Its greatest length is about three miles, and its average breadth about a mile and a half, and its dimensions do not fall very much short of these in any part. M. Jacotin (*Description de l'Égypte*, xviii. p. 111) estimates the superficies of Cairo at 793 hectares, or about 3 square miles. This surface is not, however, entirely occupied by houses, for it contains the Citadel and various extensive gardens and open spaces, as well as lakes. Most of the streets are extremely narrow, and the markets generally crowded, so that the stranger usually acquires a delusive idea of the density of the population. Mr Lane states the population to have been 240,000 before the great plague of 1835, and adds that the deficiency, equal to not less than one-third of the inhabitants, caused by that terrible visitation, would be speedily supplied from the villages. (*Modern Egyptians*, Introduc-