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Handbook of Mesopotamia

Vol. I

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I. D. 1118 A

A HANDBOOK OF MESOPOTAMIA

VOLUME I

GENERAL

SECOND EDITION

Prepared on behalf of the Admiralty and the War Office

NOVEMBER, 1918

NAVAL STAFF

INTELLIGENCE DEPARTMENT

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NOTE

Mesopotamia is treated in four volumes. This first introductory volume contains matter of a general nature. The other volumes are devoted to the detailed description of the river and land routes. The second volume covers the regions of the Shatt el-'Arab and Kārūn, and of the Tigris and Euphrates up to Baghdad and Fellūjeh. To the third volume are assigned the Tigris and Euphrates from Baghdad and Fellūjeh to Mosul and Meskeneh, the Lesser Zāb, the country east of the Tigris towards the Persian frontier, and the routes running westward from the Euphrates valley across the Syrian desert. The fourth volume treats of the country north of the line joining Rowanduz, Mosul, Meskeneh, and Aleppo up to Van, Bitlis, Diarbekr, and Marash.

This volume gives an account of conditions in Mesopotamia for the most part as they were before the war. While some recent developments have been mentioned, most of the changes that have taken place in the country since 1914 have not been described.

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CHAPTER I

BOUNDARIES AND PHYSICAL FEATURES

Boundaries, position, and extent—Main features of surface—Relation to international lines of communication—Geographical divisions and their surface—River system—Coast.

Boundaries, Position, and Extent

The boundaries of the area dealt with in this book are as follows:

On the *south*: the Persian Gulf and the desert of north-eastern Arabia.

On the *west*: the Syrian Desert and, towards the north-west, where Mesopotamia adjoins northern Syria, the western side of the Euphrates trough between Gerger and Meskeneh.

On the *north*: the highest crests of the eastern Taurus ranges (the southern rim of the Armenian plateau), eastwards from where the Euphrates breaks through these mountains to the south-western corner of Lake Van near Bitlis.

On the *north-east*, from Bitlis to the Kelishin Pass on the Persian frontier south-west of Ushnu: a line following the watershed between the Tigris on the south-west and Lakes Van and Urmia on the north and east respectively.

On the *east*, from the Kelishin Pass to the Persian Gulf: the high ranges which form the western rim of the plateau of Iran (Persia).

This region lies between lat. 38° 30′ N. and lat. 29° 30′ N. Its northern part falls between long. 37° 50′ E. and long. 45° 30′ E.; its southern end is between long. 48° 30′ E. and long. 51° 30′ E. Its length, from the Arghana Pass in the eastern Taurus to Fāo at the mouth of the Shatt el-ʿArab, is 770 miles. From west to east its greatest breadth is about 380 miles (from Birijik on the Euphrates to the Kelishin Pass on the Persian frontier); its breadth in the neighbourhood of Baghdad is about 150 miles. Its total area is about 200,000 square miles.

The greater part of this country lies within the boundaries of the Turkish Empire, including the eastern part of the vilayet (province,

of Aleppo, the greater part of the vilayet of Diarbekr, part of the vilayet of Bitlis, the greater part of the vilayet of Van, the eastern part of the mutessariflik of Zor, and the vilayets of Mosul, Baghdad, and Basra. On its south-eastern side, from the southern end of the Avroman Dāgh to the Persian Gulf, it takes in a belt of Persian territory, namely the western part of the province of Kirmanshah, the Pusht-i-Kūh country and part of southern Luristan, the provinces of northern and southern Arabistan, the plain of Behbehan, and the Bakhtiyāri and Kūhgalū countries.

Main Features of Surface

The area as a whole may be regarded as a great depression running SSE. from the northern corner of Syria and the high plateaux of Anatolia and Armenia down to the head of the Persian Gulf. The eastern side of this depression is formed by the mountainous edge of the Persian plateau, the western and south-western side by the gradual slope of the Syrian and Arabian Deserts, which fall towards the Euphrates valley from the highlands of Syria and the plateau of Arabia.

Under the high mountains which enclose Mesopotamia on the north and east is a belt of lower hill-country, varying in breadth roughly from 40 to 100 miles, and below this again are the Mesopotamian plains, which form the floor of the depression. To the west and south-west of these, along the right side of the Euphrates valley, rise the low cliffs or hills which are the border of the desert.

The plains thus bounded have a total area of about 112,000 square miles. From their northern end down to the flat shores of the Persian Gulf they fall some 1,100–1,400 ft. in 650–700 miles.

The upper plain-country between the northern hill-belt and the neighbourhood of Baghdad has a fall of about 900–1,200 ft. in 350–450 miles. Its undulating surface is composed of sedimentary formations, and is traversed here and there (especially in its northern part) by chains of sandstone, gypsum, or basalt hills.

Not far to the north of Baghdad the upper plains end in a drop of 20–50 ft. (which marks a former coast-line), and the great alluvial plain of Irak, formed by the Euphrates and the Tigris, begins. The alluvium of Irak stretches down to the head of the Persian Gulf, falling a little over 100 ft. in 300–350 miles. Towards the south-east the Irak plain is continued by the alluvial lands of Arabistan created by the Kārūn and by the smaller streams of the Jerrahi and the Hindīyan. The total area of the alluvial plains is about 50,000–55,000 square miles.

Relation to International Lines of Communication

While at its southern extremity the Mesopotamian depression opens on to the Persian Gulf, at its north-western corner, between the trough of the Euphrates and the passes of the Giaour Dāgh, which give access to the Gulf of Alexandretta and the south-eastern corner of Anatolia, there lies only a belt of easy country 70–120 miles broad (the northern corner of Syria). Thus the Mesopotamian plains and lower hill-country form a great corridor, which, shut in between the mountains on the one side and the desert on the other, connects the eastern Mediterranean and southern Anatolia with the Persian Gulf, and thus, again, this country is a stage on the most direct line of communication between central or southern Europe and southern Asia.

Further, the most direct lines of approach from the eastern end of the Mediterranean (the Levant) to the Persian plateau and so to central Asia lie across the northern and central part of Mesopotamia. The mountains on the western side of the Persian plateau overlooking Mesopotamia are, almost everywhere, a very difficult barrier; but there is one marked natural gate through them—the depression in the ranges near Qasr-i-Shīrīn, about 110 miles NE. of Baghdad.

From Sivas in eastern Anatolia, an important route-centre, which is connected by main routes with the Black Sea port of Samsun and with Constantinople through central Anatolia, there is a line of communication with Diarbekr in northern Mesopotamia by way of Kharpūt and the Arghana defile through the Taurus, and from Diarbekr easy lines can be found through Mesopotamia to Baghdad and the Persian Gulf or central Persia. But the direct main line of communication between Sivas or the Black Sea port of Trebizond and north-west Persia passes north of Lake Van by Erzerum and Bayazid to Tabriz, and therefore lies outside our area.

Geographical Divisions and their Surface

In describing the surface of particular regions within the whole area under consideration, it will be convenient to make a division between Lower and Upper Mesopotamia.

Lower Mesopotamia and the Adjoining Country

Under this heading fall (*a*) the alluvial plains of Irak and Arabistan, (*b*) the borderland of hill-country and mountains dividing these plains from the Persian plateau, together with the depression in the

mountain-barrier NE. of Baghdad, and (*c*) the fringe of the Arabian desert to the south-west of Irak. The whole of this area is about 95,000 square miles, or somewhat larger than Great Britain.

(*a*) *The Alluvial Plains of Irak and Arabistan.*—A line drawn from Delli 'Abbās 60 miles NNE. of Baghdad to Beled near the right bank of the Tigris some 20 miles below Samarra, and thence to Hīt on the Euphrates, would roughly mark the northern limits of the alluvial plain. Somewhat more exactly it may be said that, while the Tigris begins near Beled to flow over an alluvial bed and between strips of alluvial plain, and the bed of the Euphrates changes to alluvium at Hīt, in the area between the rivers the upper plain-country runs down in a tongue of comparatively high-lying marl desert almost to the line Baghdad—Fellūjeh. To the north-east of Baghdad the alluvium runs up along the Diyāleh to the foot of the Jebel Hamrīn.

The plains of Irak contain about 35,000 square miles, those of Arabistan and the adjoining district of Behbehan about 17,000 square miles. The alluvial country is in general a flat plain. In Irak the only noticeable eminences are the mounds that mark the sites of dead cities, the high banks of old canal-beds, and here and there knolls or slight ridges of gravel or sand. In the northern part of Arabistan there are a few low lines of sandstone hills, advanced outliers of the hill-country, which run across the flats in a general NW.–SE. direction.

The slope of the Irak plains from the neighbourhood of Baghdad to the Persian Gulf is, as has been remarked above, very slight. Baghdad is 105 ft. above sea-level, Kut el-Amara on the Tigris 55 ft., Nāsirīyeh on the Euphrates 15 ft., Basra 8 ft. There are also very gradual downward inclines away from the rivers, and a slope from the foot of the Persian hills to the neighbourhood of the Tigris; these have great importance, both in determining the present flood-areas and marshes, and also for projects of irrigation. In Arabistan, along the line of the Kārūn, the slope from the foot of the hill-country to the Persian Gulf is about 660 ft. in 175 miles (Dizfūl, 660 ft. above sea-level; Shushtar, 400 ft.; Ahwāz, 220 ft.; Mohammareh, 7 ft.).

The soil is mainly an argillaceous, calcareous loam of great fertility. Pockets of stiff clay or pebbles, more or less sandy patches, and areas of saline efflorescence occur here and there.

By far the greater part of the country is either marsh-land or arid waste. The marsh-land is due to the annual river-floods, which rise above the general levels of the country and are neither relieved by escape-works nor confined by adequate dyking. The aridity of other

parts is due to the slightness of the rainfall and the absence of irrigation.

There are extensive permanent marshes in the southern part of Irak. On the Euphrates great reedy broads have formed along the Hindiyeh branch of the river between Museyib and Samāweh, and lower down between Nāsirīyeh, Kurna, and Basra. Along the Tigris between Amara and Kurna there is much permanent marsh-land on both sides of the river. The marshes on the left bank are continuous with the marshes on the lower Karkeh in Arabistan territory. At the northern end of Irak the salt lake of 'Aqarqūf is fed from the Euphrates. Besides the permanent swamps (which rise and fall with the season) the winter and spring floods of the rivers spill into wide inundations, which generally dry up in the latter part of the summer, but sometimes, when they have no adequate outlet, may remain standing for some years. Many of them turn salt or brackish before they disappear. These temporary flood-areas are to be found both in northern and southern Irak and in southern Arabistan. Their position and extent vary, within limits, from year to year. (See further p. 25.) The local name for a temporary or permanent expanse of marsh or open water is *khōr*.

Where or when the country is not swamp, it is for the most part open plain, scantily supplied with wells and water-holes, many of which, being generally dependent on the winter and spring rainfall, are dry in the summer or autumn. In spring much of this 'desert' (which for the most part has an exceedingly fertile soil) is covered with grass, at other seasons it bears little but camel-thorn.

Cultivation is almost entirely limited to the neighbourhood of the rivers and canals. The country near the river-banks is intersected by frequent channels, great and small, carrying more or less water, or sometimes none at all, according to the season of the year. Some of the larger canals, the remains of the former Mesopotamian irrigation-system, carry water in flood-time far into the interior of the plain. Under Turkish rule the cutting of new channels was practised by the Arabs at their pleasure. In years of good or fair rainfall there is some inconsiderable cultivation, here and there, in places where only rain-water is available.

(*b*) *The Hill-country bordering the Persian Plateau.*—From the Persian Gulf near Bandar Dilam up to the neighbourhood of Qasr-i-Shīrīn, a distance of some 450 miles, there extends a continuous belt of hill-country, the ranges of which run in a general NW.–SE. direction, and rise in succession from the plains of Arabistan and Irak up to the high Persian plateau, where the valley-levels are some 4,000–5,000 ft. above the sea.

On the south-western side of the mountains, towards the plains, is a belt of foot-hills, 500–2,000 ft. high, composed chiefly of sandstone and gypsum. Between their ranges, from NW. to SE., run valleys which are often broad and open, and in spring well covered with grass. Across the hills the streams running down to the plains cut narrow gorges (*tangs*). The water-supply, though often tainted with sulphur, is generally plentiful except in summer. Timber is scarce.

Beyond the foot-hills the higher ranges rise to altitudes of 7,000–15,000 ft. On the south the Kūhgalū country reaches the neighbourhood of the Behbehan—Shiraz caravan-route *via* Basht and Talaspid, which may be taken as the limit of our area in this direction. The little-known highlands of the Kūhgalū seem to consist of a plateau which is drained by streams running towards the plains of Behbehan or Arabistan, is traversed from NW. to SE. by limestone ridges rising to some 8,000–10,000 ft., and is backed on the west by the yet higher Kūh-i-Dina. On the north the Kūhgalū country almost touches the extremity of the great southerly loop formed by the upper Kārūn. From this part of the Kārūn valley north-westwards to the Āb-i-Diz extend the ranges of the very rugged Bakhtiyāri mountains,[1] rising to about 15,000 ft., and drained by the Kārūn and its tributaries. Beyond the Āb-i-Diz, and just west of a line drawn from Dizfūl to Khurramābād, is a rather less difficult country about 50 miles wide from west to east. Here the main ranges are somewhat lower, and between them lie broad valleys, trending NW.–SE., or lines of low hills. Through this part of the mountain-belt break streams from the Persian plateau, whose waters go to form the Karkeh and Diz rivers; their gorges are generally difficult, and the easiest routes lie over saddles in the ranges. To the north-west, again, of this easier country, beginning from the Kebir Kūh, are the lofty and rugged mountains which lie between the Tigris plains on the south-west and the valley of the Saidmarreh on the north-east; here the tribes of the Pusht-i-Kūh, the lower hill-country bordering the Tigris plains, have their summer quarters. At the northern end of these mountains the ranges sink to the upland plains of Qasr-i-Shīrīn and Zohāb. The mountain-country as a whole is well watered. The high summer pasture-grounds of the nomad tribes, which they frequent when the grass in

[1] On the southern fringe of these mountains, near the extremity of the Kārūn loop mentioned above, and somewhat south of the Lynch Road, the ranges appear to be lower and the valleys more open than elsewhere in the Bakhtiyari country. A good alignment for a road from the plains of Arabistan to Isfahan has recently been reported to exist here.

the lower valleys is burnt up, lie among its ranges or on its northern side upon the Persian plateau. The south-western side of the country is somewhat sparsely wooded; much destruction of timber has been caused by the nomads.

Some 110–130 miles NE. of Baghdad, where the Sirwan (upper Diyāleh), the Alvand, and the Quretu descend from the Persian plateau, the mountains of the plateau-edge sink to low hill-ranges (largely gypsum and sandstone) or to rolling plains. The Qasr-i-Shīrīn and Zohāb plains form a kind of bay running up into the mountains from Mesopotamia. North of the Zohāb district the hills rise again up to the Avroman Dāgh beyond the Sirwan. East and south-east of Zohāb there are ranges of considerable height traversing the plateau from NW. to SE., but an easy line can be found to Kirmanshah by making a détour to south-east down the Karind valley. As has been already mentioned, this depression in the borderland ranges affords by far the easiest approach from Mesopotamia to the Persian plateau. Its plains and valleys are generally well watered, and in parts are fairly well cultivated.

(c) *The Desert South and West of the Euphrates.*—The Arabian Desert, where it borders on south-western Irak, is a fairly hard gravelly plain, broken in places by belts and patches of sand. Its general slope is towards the north and north-east, and it terminates in a drop of 50–100 ft. on the edge of the Euphrates valley. It is intersected by wadis (watercourses, dry except after rain) running towards the Euphrates. Here and there are wells and water-holes: their supply is at its best in winter and spring after rainfall. These rains moreover produce some grass-vegetation, which for a time affords a fair amount of camel-grazing. The usual low desert scrub is also found.

West of the Euphrates between Hīt and Nejef the southern part of the Syrian Desert (Hamad) has the same general character. Here the desert plateau contains a depression running southwards from the Euphrates near Ramādiyeh (30 miles below Hīt) for about 60 miles to the neighbourhood of Kerbela. This depression is divided into two large basins, a northern and a southern, known respectively as Habbāniyeh and Abu Dibis. The Habbāniyeh basin contains a lake about 56 square miles in area, and at the south-east end of the Abu Dibis is the small lake of the same name about 8 miles W. of Kerbela. These basins will probably be of importance for the irrigation of Mesopotamia as reservoirs in which to store flood-water from the Euphrates and possibly from the Tigris (see further pp. 159, 163–4). On the western side of the Abu Dibis depression are the cultivated oases of Shifātheh (or Shetāteh) and Rahaliyeh. The former is

about 35 miles W. of Kerbela, and has an area of about 50 square miles. Rahaliyeh is about 20 miles farther north; it is much less productive than Shifātheh.

Upper Mesopotamia and the Adjoining Country

This division includes (*a*) the upper plain-country of the Jezīreh ('the Island') lying between the middle Euphrates and the middle Tigris, together with the troughs of those rivers bounding it on the west and east, (*b*) the plains E. of the middle Tigris, (*c*) the hill-country of southern and central Kurdistan from the Sirwan (upper Diyāleh) valley to the southern shore of Lake Van, (*d*) the hill-country lying between the northern end of the Jezīreh plains and the edge of the Armenian plateau, together with the upland plain of Diarbekr, and (*e*) the fringe of the Syrian Desert adjoining the middle Euphrates valley on the west.

(*a*) *The Plains between the Middle Tigris and the Middle Euphrates.*—Between the southern border of the hill-country (about lat. 37°–37° 20′ N.) and the northern edge of the alluvium of Irak, the plains of the Jezīreh contain about 48,000 square miles. They are generally more or less undulating, though they contain some wide expanses of flat country. Here and there they are traversed by ranges of hills running from east to west or from south-east to north-west. Most of these are quite low, but the Jebel Sinjar, a line of basalt hills W. of Mosul, rises to some 3,000 feet above the surrounding country. The surface of the plains is open and treeless.

In the northern Jezīreh numerous stream-beds run down into the plain from the hills, and, though most of these carry little or no water in their lower courses during the summer and early autumn, they help to form the considerable perennial rivers of the Khabūr and Belikh, which flow into the Euphrates. Much of the northern Jezīreh has a good soil (e. g. its western part is covered with a brown humus from the Qarajeh Dāgh), and large areas could be brought under cultivation by means of irrigation-works. Before the present war, cultivation, though on the increase, was practically confined to certain districts on or near the edges of the plain and to a few areas in the interior where the water-supply was specially plentiful. Insecurity, as well as lack of water, helped to check agricultural development. Great tracts of the northern Jezīreh are covered with rich grass in spring.

South of the Jebel Sinjar and the lower Khabūr the plain becomes increasingly arid, and towards its lower end turns to a hard desert, the surface of which is composed of gravel, gypsum, marl, borax, or

sand. There are also large areas in which water from wadis collects and on evaporation leaves an incrustation of salt. It appears that underground supplies of water can be tapped at many places. The southern Jezīreh is traversed for most of its length by the large watercourse known as the Wādi Tartar, which rises near the eastern end of the Jebel Sinjar and runs southwards to terminate in a saline depression about 40 miles SW. of Samarra. The country near the Tartar in the upper part of its course has excellent pasture in spring. The depression at its lower end may possibly prove of use as a storage-reservoir for surplus flood-water from the Tigris.

On the western and eastern sides of the Jezīreh the Euphrates and Tigris have cut for themselves shallow valleys or troughs 1–5 miles wide, bordered by low hills or cliffs. At the bottom of these valleys occur stretches of alluvium, where the rivers have deposited their sediment in flood-time. Parts of the Euphrates trough are moderately cultivated by means of water-lifts or water-wheels (e.g. in the neighbourhood of Alūs, Hadīseh, Ānah, Meyyadīn, and Deir ez-Zor); elsewhere the valley is either bare or filled with tamarisk and other scrub. There is a considerable amount of cultivation along the banks of the Tigris between Mosul and the mouth of the Great Zāb. Between the two Zābs the villages are few and far between, and S. of the Lesser Zāb the river-valley is mostly empty and untilled; here, down to the beginning of the alluvial plain near Beled, there is hardly any cultivation except a little round Tekrit, Dur, and Samarra.

(*b*) *The Plains East of the Middle Tigris.*—These plains slope from the southern Kurdish hills down to the Tigris. They are about 40–50 miles broad in their southern part, and narrow to 10–20 miles towards their northern end in the neighbourhood of Mosul, till they terminate under the Jebel Abyadh range. Their total length is about 230 miles. They are traversed by the ʿAdheim, the Lesser Zāb, and the Great Zāb, tributaries of the Tigris flowing from the hills. In the neighbourhood and north of the Great Zāb they are watered by a number of smaller streams. The southern part of this country is traversed from SE. to NW. by the rocky sandstone and conglomerate range of the Jebel Hamrīn (about 400–600 ft. above the plain-levels), which is pierced by the Diyāleh near Delli ʿAbbās, by the ʿAdheim about 35 miles farther north-west, and by the Tigris at the Fethah gorge, some 65 miles above Samarra. Between the Zābs the *massif* of the Qara Chok Dāgh rises out of the plain to a height of about 2,000 ft. North of the Great Zāb the plains are interrupted by the Jebel Maqlub, a large spur from the hill-country lying about 12–15 miles E. of Mosul, and the immediate neighbour-

hood of the Tigris above Mosul is sharply undulating and broken by deep ravines.

The southern plains are open steppes of clay and gravel, clothed with grass in spring. On the borders of the plain and the hill-country there is some cultivation by settled agriculturists grouped at intervals in or round large villages or small towns. In the interior of the southern plains there are only a few semi-nomads, who raise small patches of crops along the rivers or from rain-water wells elsewhere. North of the Lesser Zāb the villages of the semi-nomads become more frequent, and the plain of Erbil, where the better-watered country begins, is comparatively well cultivated by a settled population. The same is true of the plains between the Great Zāb and Mosul and to the north of Mosul. The country in the region of the Zābs has a fertile soil and a fair rainfall, and might, it is believed, be made very productive by irrigation.

(c) *The Highlands of Southern and Central Kurdistan.*—From the Diyāleh valley up to the line Jezīret-ibn-'Omar—Bitlis, Mesopotamia is bounded on the east and north by an arc of high limestone ranges rising to 8,000–13,000 ft. above sea-level. Between these high mountains and the Tigris plains is the lower hill-country, where the altitudes vary from 1,000 to 7,000 ft. above the sea.

(i) The lower hill-country in the southern part of this area, E. of Kufri, Kirkuk, Altun Köprü, and Erbil, consists either of rolling downs or of lines of rocky heights, in which sandstone predominates. The trend of the hills is generally about NW.–SE. In spring the downs and valleys have much grass on them. The water-supply is fair, but in parts is rather scarce during the summer, when many of the streams dry up altogether. Between this region and the higher ranges are the well-watered upland plains of Suleimāniyeh and Raniyeh. Along the border of the hills from Kufri to north of Kirkuk petroleum appears in places.

To the north of Erbil and Mosul the hills of the submontane belt are in general loftier and more rugged than in the down-country farther south. In the basin of the Great Zāb, conglomerate and sandstone are found; more to the north the limestone comes down to the edge of the plain in the Jebel Abyadh range S. of Zakho. The ranges run generally NW.–SE. or E.–W. The valleys are well watered, and some are well wooded. Many of them have a fertile soil and contain cultivation, but the country is much under-populated, owing to inter-tribal and inter-racial fighting and raiding.

(ii) Along the Persian frontier the high mountain-country of southern Kurdistan, rising to about 11,000 ft. above the sea, is well watered by numerous streams flowing through deep valleys or gorges

into the Lesser Zāb, which cuts its way through the ranges from the Persian plateau. The mountain-slopes are well timbered in some regions (for example, in the Avroman, Khoshik and Bamu ranges E. and SE. of Suleimāniyeh); and elsewhere patches of trees and scrub (largely oak) are found in the valley-bottoms and on the slopes, and many of the villages are surrounded by orchards. There are high pasture-grounds, especially on the eastern side of the mountain-belt, which are frequented in summer by nomadic and semi-nomadic Kurds. As elsewhere along the edge of the Persian plateau, the ranges run generally NW.–SE., and the tracks for pack-animals which cross them are all more or less difficult. Their passes are blocked by snow in winter.

The high mountains of central Kurdistan cover an area which measures about 80 miles from south to north. On the Mesopotamian side this region may be roughly described as beginning N. of Zakho and Amadiyeh. It stretches up to the southern shore of Lake Van, which lies in the south-eastern corner of the Armenian plateau, at an altitude of over 5,000 ft. above the sea. Central Kurdistan is the most difficult section of the mountain-barrier cutting off Mesopotamia from Armenia and north-west Persia. The highest and most rugged part of this region is that which is traversed by the Great Zāb between the plain of Bāsh Qal'ah on the north and its junction with the Rūdbār-i-Shīn (E. of Amadiyeh) on the south. Here the mountains E. and W. of the Zāb rise to heights of 11,000–14,000 ft.; their sides are generally barren and sparsely wooded; the valleys and lower slopes contain patches of cultivable ground, but they are often narrow and rocky gorges. To the north and east of this extremely difficult country the heights of the ranges decrease, and there are many open grassy plains and plateaux used as summer pastures by the Kurds. West of the Zāb basin is an intricate complex of mountains rising to 9,000–11,000 ft., watered by many streams, which help to form a number of considerable mountain-rivers—the Khabūr, the Hazil, the Rohsur, the Bohtan, and the Bitlis; these latter drain southwards and westwards to the Tigris. The valleys in this country are often well wooded and fertile. There is a good deal of high pasture-ground on the mountains.

(*d*) *The Highlands North of the Jezīreh and the Plain of Diarbekr.*—The northern hill-country between the Euphrates on the west and the line Jezīret-ibn-'Omar—Bitlis on the east falls into three divisions: (i) the hill-country of the Tur Abdin and the Qarajeh Dāgh; (ii) the upland plain of Diarbekr; (iii) the eastern Taurus ranges between the Euphrates and the valley of the Bitlis Su, SW. of Lake Van.

The Tur Abdin and the Qarajeh Dāgh country may be compared to the chord of an arc formed by the eastern Taurus; between the chord and the arc lie the plain of Diarbekr and the open rolling country which adjoins it.

(i) The plain of the Jezīreh is bounded on the north by the Tur Abdin plateau (E. of Mardīn) and by the hill-country which has its centre and highest point in the Qarajeh Dāgh (W. of Mardīn).

The southern side of the Tur Abdin rises abruptly from the plain. East and north of the plateau lies the valley of the Tigris. On its western side, between it and the spurs of the Qarajeh Dāgh country, there is a depression running N. and S. which affords an important line of communication between Diarbekr and the great Mesopotamian plain; Diarbekr lies at the northern end of this depression, Mardīn at the southern.

The summit of the Tur Abdin is 3,000–4,000 ft. above the sea and 1,600–2,000 ft. above the plain. It is traversed by rocky ridges, mostly basaltic, covered with low oaks and brushwood. The soil, though much overlaid by stones, is often fertile, but water is scarce in summer. The least stony and best watered part of the plateau is the north-western, towards Diarbekr.

North-west of Mardīn are the Mazi Dāgh and the larger and more important Qarajeh Dāgh (alt. 6,070 ft.) with their rocky spurs and outliers. On its southern side this region presents no such abrupt continuous wall as does the Tur Abdin; its spurs run out in rocky parallel ridges which separate from each other the fertile districts of Veirān Shehr, Urfeh—Harrān, and Seruj. The surface of the Qarajeh Dāgh is basaltic, and the basalt extends southwards to the neighbourhood of Veirān Shehr; to the south-west the underlying limestone comes to the surface in the ranges of the Tektek Dāgh and the Nimrud Dāgh, the one E., the other W., of the Urfeh plain. The slopes of the Qarajeh Dāgh afford pasture-grounds for Kurdish tribes, but this country contains practically no settled population. Its water-supply is rather scanty in summer.

(ii) North and east of Diarbekr lies a country of flat or rolling plains and open downs, watered by the Tigris and by tributaries of that river flowing from the hills on the north. The soil of this country is mainly clay and gravel. Near Diarbekr there are alluvial flats along the Tigris. At present this region is far from being cultivated in proportion to its fertility.

An extension of the plains towards the east gives easy communication with Zokh, Sairt, and the valley of the Bitlis Su.

(iii) The ranges of the eastern Taurus run in a crescent-shaped line between the Euphrates and the valley of the Bitlis Su, SW. of

Lake Van. They rise to about 7,000–9,000 ft., and are formed mainly of Archaean crystalline schists, with Eocene rocks (limestone and sandstone) on their lower slopes, and large outcrops of volcanic rock appearing here and there. West of Bitlis the mountain-belt broadens out in the Sassun country, which before the war contained a considerable number of Armenian villages. The main crossings of the eastern Taurus leading from Mesopotamia to western Armenia are the Arghana defile NW. of Diarbekr, the Kulp valley 50 miles W. of Bitlis, and the Bitlis Pass and valley.

(*e*) *The Syrian Desert.*—The country bordering the middle Euphrates valley on the west is arid desert in its southern part, and becomes gradually less arid towards the north, until, above the line Raqqah—Hama, more or less cultivable soil is reached. The country N. of this line up to the foot of the Taurus is described in the *Handbook of Syria and Palestine.*

The Syrian Desert (Hamad) is a plain sloping towards the Euphrates, and at its eastern edge falling away in a drop of some 100–200 ft. to the bottom of the Euphrates trough. The plain is broken here and there by ranges of low hills. The surface is generally sand or shingle, varied here and there by outcrops of volcanic rock. In the spring wide areas are covered with grass, which withers a few weeks later in the heat of early summer. Wells and water-holes are very scarce in the southern Hamad (as, for instance, between Hīt and Damascus), and are somewhat more frequent in the northern desert, as on the line Deir ez-Zor—Damascus. The wadis (watercourses) which intersect the plain are generally dry except for a few hours after rain. The water-supply is at its best in spring.

River System

The Euphrates and the Tigris are the channels through which drainage from the Armenian tableland, from the western side of the Persian plateau, from the hill-country of northern Mēsopotamia, and from the upper Mesopotamian plains is carried into the Persian Gulf. The Kārūn and the smaller streams to the east of it bring down to the gulf the drainage from the south-western side of the Persian plateau. The common outlet of the Euphrates, the Tigris, and the Kārūn on to the gulf is the Shatt el-'Arab. On the navigation of these rivers see pp. 280–7.

The Euphrates and Tigris

The main sources of the *Euphrates* are two considerable streams (the Qara or Frat Su and the Murād Su), which, after traversing the

Armenian plateau from east to west, join their waters near its south-western corner, some 25 miles WNW. of Kharput. From the junction of these two rivers the Euphrates cuts its way southwards through the Taurus in a series of gorges, and, after emerging from the mountains, flows, on a course of about 650 miles, in a shallow valley or trough between the western edge of upper Mesopotamia on one side and northern Syria and the Syrian Desert on the other. At Hīt it enters the alluvial bed in which it flows thence to the sea. It passes along the western and southern sides of the alluvial plain of Irak, approaching to within 25 miles of the Tigris in the neighbourhood of Ctesiphon, but again diverging from that river. Its waters divide into branches and spill over marshes and broads, until, about 400 miles by river below Hīt, what remains of them joins the waters of the Tigris, partly at Kurna, partly at Gurmat 'Ali a few miles above Basra.

The streams forming the head-waters of the *Tigris* (the Arghana Su and the Dibeneh Su) rise on the southern edge of the Armenian plateau, just N. of the eastern Taurus and close to the Murād Su. The Arghana Su has its sources S. of Kharput, within a few miles of the Euphrates. The Arghana and the Dibeneh penetrate the barrier of the Taurus and unite in the lowlands of Diarbekr, some 20 miles N. of that town. The Tigris flows along the southern side of the lowlands until, 60 miles below Diarbekr, it enters a succession of gorges between the Tur Abdin plateau to the south and west, and the mountains of central Kurdistan to the north and east. It leaves the mountains near Jezīret-ibn-'Omar, 170 miles below Diarbekr, and thence flows in a trough through the upper Mesopotamian plains, passing by Mosul to Samarra, 340 miles below Jezīret-ibn-'Omar. Some 15 miles below Samarra it enters its alluvial bed, and follows a course through northern and eastern Irak for about 550 miles. As it proceeds southwards, more and more of its water is spilt into marshes, and, though some of this returns to the main channel, its volume is much reduced by the time a part of the Euphrates is met at Kurna.

From Kurna downwards the united waters of the Euphrates and the Tigris are known as the *Shatt el-'Arab*, a large river about 125 miles long, which at Mohammareh, about 48 miles from its mouth, is joined by the greater part of the waters of the Kārūn.

Drainage.—Outside the boundaries of this area the *Euphrates* drains a large part of the Armenian plateau and the north-eastern corner of Syria. Within this area it receives two large tributaries in upper Mesopotamia, the Belikh and the Khabūr. These drain the western and central parts of the northern Jezīreh plain and the

southern slopes of the Qarajeh Dāgh hill-country and Tur Abdin plateau, which overlook that plain from the north. Below its junction with the Khabūr, 280 miles by river above Hīt, the Euphrates receives no tributary river: there are only wadis (water-courses), which from time to time bring down to it a part of the rainfall of the Syrian and southern Jezīreh deserts.

The *Tigris* drains, first, the southern side of the Armenian plateau through a number of streams, the most important of which is the Batman Su; secondly, the mountains of central Kurdistan through the Bohtan, the Rohsur, the Hazil, the Khabūr, and the Great Zāb; and thirdly, the western side of the Persian plateau through the Great Zāb and Lesser Zāb, the 'Adheim, the Diyāleh, and the Karkeh. Of these tributaries the *Great Zāb* rises on the Persian frontier east of Lake Van and cuts its way right through the high eastern ranges of the central Kurdish mountains, taking their drainage; in the southern part of its course, below the neighbourhood of Amadiyeh, it is fed by streams from the eastern side of the Persian plateau and from the lower hill-country E. of Mosul; it joins the Tigris 35 miles below Mosul. The *Lesser Zāb* rises on the Persian plateau, not far from the south-west corner of Lake Urmia, and, after flowing southwards for some 80 miles, breaks through the mountain-barrier S. of Ser Desht and Raniyeh, and drains the hill-country between Raniyeh and Altun Köprü; it enters the Tigris 100 miles below Mosul, under the Jebel Hamrīn. Just below the point where the Tigris begins to flow over an alluvial bed, the *'Adheim* river comes in from the north; this stream, which drains the lower hill-country between Kirkuk, Suleimāniyeh, and Kufri, carries in the dry season little or no water in the lower part of its course. A few miles S. of Baghdad the Tigris is joined by the *Diyāleh*, known in its upper course as the Sirwan. This river brings water from the provinces of Ardelan and Kirmanshah on the Persian plateau; most of its supply in the low-water season is used for the irrigation of the country NE. of Baghdad. Below the Diyāleh a number of stream-beds descend into the plains from the hills of the Pusht-i-Kūh. Most of these are dry in the low-water season, but the southernmost of them is the channel of a large river, the *Karkeh*, which drains a considerable area of Luristan. The greater part of the water that descends from the Pusht-i-Kūh towards the Tigris is lost in swamps before it reaches that river, but a certain proportion of the Karkeh water finds its way into the Tigris or into the Shatt el-'Arab a few miles below Kurna.

High and Low-water Seasons: Discharge: Silt.—The volume of water in the Euphrates and Tigris varies considerably during the year. This variation has most important effects on irrigation and

agriculture, on navigation, on movement by land in Irak, &c. The great increase in the volume of the rivers during certain months is caused by rainfall and melting snow in the highlands of Armenia, Kurdistan, and Persia.

The low-water season may be said to last from July to November, the high-water season from December to June. The Tigris is at its lowest in Irak in October and throughout most of November. Towards the end of the latter month and in December there may be irregular rises due to rainstorms over a wide area, and the river may even (exceptionally) touch overflow level. In January the regular rise of the river begins, and in this month and in February it may reach overflow levels for short periods. In the latter half of March or at the beginning of April come the great floods of spring, when the river is at its highest. Throughout May and June it is steadily falling, and in July the low-water season may be considered to begin, the river continuing to decrease. The rise and fall of the Euphrates take a similar general course, but its spring floods are about a week later than those of the Tigris. Both rivers, and especially the Tigris, are liable to rise in sudden and violent spates. By far the greater part of the water that passes Baghdad and Hindiyeh is spilt into marshes farther downstream and lost by evaporation.

In the flood months of March, April, and May the average discharge of the Tigris at Baghdad is about 100,000 cusecs[1], but for short periods the river may discharge as much as 250,000 cusecs. In the low-water months of August, September, and October the average is about 10,600 cusecs. At Kut el-Amara, while the low-water discharge is about the same as at Baghdad, the flood discharge is greater (about 160,000 cusecs?) owing to the contribution received in high water from the Diyāleh, which in low water is dry. Between Kut el-Amara and Qal'at Sālih the volume of the Tigris is enormously reduced by spills and distribution through canals. As far as Amara the reduction occurs chiefly in the flood season: thus at Amara above the Jehāleh (Chahala) canal the average flood discharge is only 35,000 cusecs; the low-water discharge is about 10,100 cusecs. Between Amara and Qal'at Sālih the great canals have been taking off much water in the low season as well as in flood; thus the flood discharge at Amara below the Jehāleh canal was recently reported to be 20,000 cusecs, the low-water discharge 5,600 cusecs, while for Qal'at Sālih the figures were 4,000 cusecs in flood and 2,800 cusecs in a low river. Below Qal'at Sālih there is an increase in the volume of the river due to a return of water from the marshes; at Ezra's Tomb the flood discharge is 13,400 cusecs,

[1] Cusecs = cubic feet per second.

the low-water discharge 7,700. At Kurna the river discharges about 28,000 cusecs in flood.

In northern Irak the Euphrates has a smaller discharge than the Tigris in the flood months; the average for the Euphrates on the section Hīt—Hindiyeh is about 87,000 cusecs against 100,000 for the Tigris at Baghdad. Moreover the Euphrates in its most violent flood does not rise here much beyond 160,000 cusecs. On the other hand in the months of low water the discharge of the Euphrates in northern Irak is somewhat greater than that of the Tigris (about 14,000 cusecs against 10,600 cusecs).

Both rivers bring down a great quantity of sediment in the high-water season. In lower Mesopotamia part of this sediment forms shifting banks in the channels, part is deposited in marshes or lakes or in irrigation-channels. By the time the two rivers meet at Kurna both have lost most of their silt, the Euphrates especially being comparatively clear in its lower course.

Effect of Floods in Irak.—In upper Mesopotamia the floods of the Euphrates and the Tigris are contained in their valleys or troughs. They flood low foreshores in the bottom of their troughs, but do not spread very far. In the alluvium of lower Mesopotamia on the other hand the water of the rivers spreads out in great inundations, and has been known to change its main channel. Here the river-beds are not nearly capable of taking all the flood-season discharge; the soft alluvial soil is easily penetrated, and the ground-levels, which are below the high-flood levels of the rivers, fall gradually away from the banks. Moreover, since the former irrigation-system was destroyed in the Middle Ages, the slight and partial attempts to control the flow of the water have not only been inadequate, but have often made matters worse. Before the present war the Turkish authorities tried by means of *bunds* (dykes and dams) to limit the floods round Baghdad, and they had the Hindiyeh Barrage and Hilla Regulator built for the distribution of the water between the two main branches into which the Euphrates divides below Museyib. Elsewhere the only protective works were small and weak earthen dykes along the river-banks. The Arabs were left to cut canals, build dams, and reclaim land along the river-banks to suit their private and local needs, and their work often had disastrous effects. Only by the construction of a system of barrages and escapes at the head of the alluvial plain (that is, between Hīt and Fellūjeh on the Euphrates and in the neighbourhood of Samarra on the Tigris) can excessive flooding be effectively prevented in Irak.

The amount of spill which occurs at this point or that, and the position and extent of the inundations, vary more or less from year

to year, according to the volume of the flood, the way in which it rises, and the obstacles or opportunities which it encounters. Conditions are constantly changing, and until the Euphrates and Tigris are properly controlled they may always be expected to present new problems.

The *Euphrates* between Fellūjeh and Diwāniyeh flows at a higher level than the Tigris between Baghdad and Kut el-Amara, and the country between the rivers in north-western Irak is therefore flooded mainly from the Euphrates. The flood-water finds its way through long canals, the relics of the old irrigation-system, far into the interior of the plain, and there forms shallow marshes. Just below Museyib (70 miles by river below Fellūjeh) the Euphrates bifurcates into two large branches, called the Hindiyeh and the Hilla, which join again 110 miles to the south-south-east near Samāweh. In the past the main volume of water has flowed now in one, now in another of these branches. Between 1865 and 1890 the main stream shifted from the eastern (Hilla) branch to the western (Hindiyeh). After several unsuccessful attempts to check the process, which was threatening to dry up the Hilla branch altogether, the new Hindiyeh Barrage and the Hilla Regulator were constructed (1913) to regulate the flow of water down the two channels. On the Hindiyeh branch the Euphrates spreads out in large reedy marshes and broads, where the Euphrates deposits much of its sediment. Below the junction of the two branches at Samāweh the Euphrates again flows in a single channel past Nāsirīyeh to the neighbourhood of Sūq esh-Shuyūkh. From here part of the Euphrates water flows eastwards to Kurna, where the Tigris is met. But from Nāsirīyeh downwards the Euphrates, now flowing at a lower level than the Tigris, receives from the north a great quantity of Tigris water, which finds its way through the canals and marshes between the two rivers. The volume of the Euphrates, thus increased, is beyond the capacity of the channel leading to Kurna (called the Old Channel), and most of the Euphrates water is forced southwards and south-eastwards, and forms a large area of open water and swamp, through which the New Channel drains into the Shatt el-'Arab at Gurmat 'Ali, a few miles above Basra.

The *Tigris* is liable to flood more or less of the neighbourhood of its banks from above Baghdad down to Kut el-Amara. At the latter place a large channel, the Shatt el-Hai, branches southwards from the right bank of the Tigris, and in the months of high river carries off a considerable quantity of water, which eventually reaches the Euphrates below Nāsirīyeh by various outlets. The Shatt el-Hai was the main bed of the Tigris from the seventh to the sixteenth

century; at present it is dry during the low-water season (from about July to about February). Below Kut el-Amara more and more flood-water drains southwards into swamps, and from just above Amara to Qal'at Sālih an enormous amount of water is taken off from the river by large canals, and it has been feared that, unless preventive measures were taken, the Tigris might altogether leave its present bed below Amara. Great permanent marshes are formed on both sides of the river, and between Qal'at Sālih and Ezra's Tomb the Tigris is reduced to a narrow, winding channel. Part of the water spilt from the right bank of the Tigris drains down into the Euphrates between Nāsirīyeh and Kurna; much water in the marshes E. and W. of the Tigris is lost there by evaporation; much returns through many channels into the Tigris between Ezra's Tomb and Kurna.

Conditions affecting Navigation.—In upper Mesopotamia the general physical conditions affecting navigation on the Tigris and the Euphrates are the swiftness of the current, due to a comparatively steep fall, and the presence in the river-beds of rocks and ledges of shingle, causing rapids and shallows. As waterways therefore the middle Euphrates and middle Tigris have been used almost entirely for down-stream traffic by flat-bottomed boats or rafts (see further pp. 286–7. 290–2).

In lower Mesopotamia the inferiority of the Euphrates to the Tigris as a waterway is due to the greater dispersion of the Euphrates water in branches, canals, and broads. This dispersion has left the lower Euphrates very shallow in parts during the low-water season, with a slack current, which has enabled the silt to form here and there in bars, over which there is very little water. The Tigris loses much of its water in spills, and has its banks of silt, which give trouble in a low river, and its narrows in its lower reaches, which are difficult at all seasons, but it keeps a greater proportion of water in one bed than does the Euphrates, and flows more strongly, and therefore has better depths in the months of low river. The Tigris, as a waterway, is capable of improvement by a thorough training of its channel and by the limitation of the amount of water distributed through canals so far as may be consistent with the needs of irrigation. Measures have already been taken to preserve and improve the river in the narrows between Amara and Qal'at Sālih. As regards the Euphrates, a scheme has been proposed for the restoration of the old channel between Kurna and Sūq esh-Shuyūkh. For the obstacles to navigation formed by the old and new Hindiyeh Barrages and by the Hilla Regulator see pp. 283–4.

The Kārūn, Jerrahi, and Hindīyan

The *Kārūn*, rising in the Bakhtiyāri country, about 100 miles W. of Isfahan, flows in a winding course (at first SE. and then NW.) through deep valleys and gorges among the Bakhtiyāri mountains, till it emerges from the hills above Shushtar; thence it flows southwards through the plains of Arabistan. Below Shushtar it divides into two arms—the Āb-i-Shatait and Ab-i-Gargar—which join again at Band-i-Qir 32 miles farther south. After breaking in a series of rapids through the sandstone hills at Ahwāz (where it drops about 7–8 ft. in 2,000 yds.), the Kārūn winds for about 115 miles through the alluvial flats of southern Arabistan. It discharges most of its water into the Shatt el-'Arab at Mohammareh; part finds its way to the sea through the Bahmān Shīr channel, which takes off from the main stream a few miles above Mohammareh and reaches the Persian Gulf 12 miles E. of the Shatt el-'Arab.

The Kārūn drains the Bakhtiyāri country, and through its tributary, the Diz, a large part of eastern Luristan. One parent branch of the Diz rises near Burujird in north-eastern Luristan, and, after a southerly course, breaks through the mountains N. of Dizfūl. About 32 miles above Dizfūl it is joined from the east by the other parent branch which flows through the mountains from Faridan. Both of these branches are called the Diz; the easterly one is also known as the Gand. Their united waters, after passing Dizfūl, flow into the Kārūn at Band-i-Qīr.

The seasonal variations of volume on the Kārūn follow the same general course as those on the Euphrates and Tigris (see p. 24), but it is even more subject than they are to sudden irregular rises. In southern Arabistan the Kārūn floods, escaping by side channels, form patches of marsh in the country along its course; but compared with the lower Tigris and Euphrates the lower Kārūn is well contained by its bed.

The rapids at Ahwāz are practically unnavigable. Below them there are good depths for navigation by river-craft. Above them the river is navigable to within a few miles of Shushtar (see further p. 285).

The Jerrahi and Hindīyan are comparatively unimportant, but they and their tributaries water fertile districts (e.g. Ramuz, Fellāhīyeh, and Behbehan). The *Jerrahi* is formed in the Ramuz district in eastern Arabistan by two streams, the Āb-i-Ramuz from the northern part of the Kūhgalū country and the Marun from Behbehan. After winding through the plains it reaches the Fellāhīyeh district, where it irrigates and floods a considerable area, breaking up into a network of water-cuts. Its main channel here becomes the Fellāhīyeh—Mārid canal, which connects with the lower Kārūn, about 15 miles

above Mohammareh. The Jerrahi has no outlet of any size on the Persian Gulf.

The *Hindīyan* is formed by two streams from the highlands east and east-south-east of Behbehan, which water part of the Behbehan plain and unite some 22 miles N. of Bandar Dilam. It flows with a deep and rapid course through the Zaidan plain and past Hindīyan village, to reach the Gulf some 70 miles E. of the mouth of the Shatt el-ʿArab. Its estuary lies among mud-flats, and is encumbered by shoals. Only native craft of 20–30 tons use the river, navigating up to Hindīyan village, a distance of some 32 miles by water.

Coast

This area touches the sea only on a narrow front at the head of the Persian Gulf. Here the coast of the alluvial plains of Irak and Arabistan, wedged in between the north-eastern corner of the Arabian Desert and the south-western corner of the Persian plateau, extends for about 130 miles from the mouth of the Khōr Zobeir on the west to a point between the mouth of the Hindīyan river and Bandar Dilam on the east. This coast is low and marshy, liable to flood, and fringed with flat mud-banks or islands, which have been formed by silt brought down by the rivers. The openings in it are the river-mouths, obstructed by bars of mud, and three or four long inlets.

Beyond the western end of this coast-line the large alluvial island of Būbayān masks the higher Arabian coast between the Khōr Zobeir and the Bay of Koweit. It is at Koweit Bay that the Arabian Desert first fronts the open Gulf. The northern side of the bay is bordered by hills some 150–400 ft. high ; a gently undulating sandy plain lies to the west and south.

Eastwards the coast of Arabistan is succeeded by a strip of low alluvial land, a few miles wide, running SE. between the Gulf and the foot-hills of the Persian plateau to Bushire.

Shallows and mud-banks make the coast of Irak and Arabistan difficult to approach from the gulf. The bar at the mouth of the Shatt el-ʿArab needs dredging to make it passable at all tides by large ocean-going steamers. Between the Shatt el-ʿArab and Bushire there are no natural harbours for large vessels. West of the Shatt el-ʿArab the Khōr Zobeir, which runs up into the desert towards Basra, has fairly deep water within 20 or 25 miles of Basra, but its approaches from land and sea, its configuration and dimensions, appear to make it unsuitable for regular use as a harbour (see further Vol. II, *Route* I C). The important harbour of Koweit is 50–60 miles SW. of the mouth of the Shatt el-ʿArab.

Desert, marsh, and inundation make the coast difficult of access from the land side.

CHAPTER II

CLIMATE

Introduction—Upper Mesopotamia—Lower Mesopotamia—Conditions affecting aviation—Tables.

Introduction

The climatic conditions of Mesopotamia are those of a subtropical area which lies at a distance from any ocean, and therefore are of a semi-arid type, although an appreciable amount of rain falls in the winter months. In the winter the atmospheric pressure is comparatively high over northern Syria and Mesopotamia, since they lie on the outskirts of the great high-pressure system of central Asia; and, while the air-currents at this season are somewhat variable in their directions, winds from the north-west predominate in all parts of the country.

Rain occurs during the passage of cyclonic depressions, some of which come from the eastern Mediterranean, and others probably pass across Asia Minor, but at other times the north-westerly winds descending from the high plateau to the northward arrive at the low-lying Jezīreh as dry and comparatively warm winds. In summer this effect is more strongly marked, and these north-westerly winds, warmed by their descent from the plateau and in their passage to lower latitudes, sweep over the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates as hot, dry winds, which blow fairly continuously from May until October. At this season the great low-pressure area of north-west India, which is related to the monsoon of the Indian Ocean, extends to the Persian Gulf, and the pressure gradient which exists from the eastern Mediterranean to the Persian Gulf maintains this flow of air over Mesopotamia throughout these months.

Consequently the land depends on the waters of its two great rivers for its fertility, since the rainfall alone is insufficient to maintain vegetation through the summer. Drawing their supply largely from the snowfall in the mountains of Armenia, the levels of the Tigris and Euphrates increase in the spring months, and begin to diminish

as midsummer approaches. As in Egypt, the cultivator is dependent on the water of the rivers for bringing his crops to maturity, but in Mesopotamia they are at their highest in April and May, whereas the rains of Abyssinia from June to September produce the annual Nile flood of Egypt in August and September.

In a region so sparsely inhabited and so little civilized as Mesopotamia, the places at which meteorological observations have been made are naturally few. Some have been carried on for short periods among the foot-hills of the Taurus in the northern portion of the basin of the Euphrates, while others have been made for longer periods at Baghdad and Basra, and have been published in the Meteorological Reports of the Indian Government. Besides these, a series of observations which extends over six years has been made at Babylon.

We have therefore meteorological observations from the following places in Mesopotamia, but they are too few in number and extend over too limited periods to represent adequately the extensive basin of the Tigris and the Euphrates:

Place.	*Period of Observations.*	*Altitude.*	*Latitude N.*	*Longitude E.*
Upper Mesopotamia:	*Years.*	*Feet.*		
'Aintāb	32	3,200 2,755*	37° 4′	37° 35′
Urfeh	7	1,870	37 13	38 47
Diarbekr	2–4	1,950	37 54	40 22
Mosul	3–4	980 830*	36 22	43 14
Lower Mesopotamia:				
Baghdad	21	120	33 21	44 26
Babylon	5–6	100	32 30	44 20
Basra	11	25		
Mohammareh	½	?	30 26	48 13
Persian Gulf:				
Bushire	33	25	29 0	49 50
Bahrein	8	18		
Jask	18	13	25 47	57 48
Muscat	18	20	23 37	58 35

* The altitudes of some stations are uncertain. Those marked with an asterisk are taken from the Royal Geographical Society's map of 1910, the other value being that quoted in the observations.

Of these twelve stations 'Aintāb, Urfeh, and Diarbekr represent the climate of the hilly country which lies immediately to the southward of the mountain-ranges extending from the Gulf of Iskanderun on the west to Lake Van on the east. This region, which forms a part of the upper basins of the Euphrates and the Tigris, lies at an altitude of 1,500 to 3,000 feet, while many of the hills rise to greater heights. At 'Aintāb the observations, which relate to rainfall only, extend over thirty-two years. At Urfeh and Diarbekr the periods are shorter, being seven (1900–6) and two to four years (1901–5) respectively, but the observations are more complete and include all climatic factors.

Situated on the banks of the Tigris, about 100 miles farther south than Diarbekr and more to the eastward, is Mosul, where observations have been made for three to four years (1908–11). This town, which is about 900 feet above sea-level, represents the climate of the southern part of upper Mesopotamia, where more arid conditions prevail than in the foot-hills. At Mosul itself the winter rainfall is considerable, but in the Jezīreh it decreases gradually as the hill-country is left behind.

Upper Mesopotamia

Temperature (Tables I–VII, pp. 44–9)

The coldest month is January, while the hottest is July or August, there being but little difference between these two months. The mean temperature of the day (Table I) varies from about 40° F. in January (31° F. at Diarbekr) to about 90° F. in July and August, the increase being at the rate of about ten degrees per month from April onwards. September sees a definite reduction of temperature after the summer heat, and in October and November the temperature diminishes rapidly.

The difference between the temperature at Mosul and that of the stations in the hills is not very apparent in the mean temperature, but is clearly seen in the daily and monthly extremes (Tables II–VI). The mean daily maximum temperature in Mosul in July is 110° F., or 11° higher than at Diarbekr, while the mean monthly maximum, the highest temperature which may ordinarily be expected in the month, is 116·6° F., or 11° and 12° above that recorded at Diarbekr and Urfeh respectively.

Fairly low temperatures occur at all these stations annually, the mean daily minimum being 26·4° F. at Diarbekr and 32° F. at Mosul in January, but occasionally much lower readings are recorded. The mean monthly minimum in January is 27·1° F. at Urfeh, 19·2° F. at

Mosul, and even 10·9° F. at Diarbekr. This severe cold at Diarbekr is doubtless due to its position in a basin, into which the cold air drains from the surrounding mountains.

The lowest and highest temperatures which have been recorded show the same wide range, though the observations have not yet extended over a long period, seven years being available for Urfeh, but from two to four for Diarbekr, and from three to four years for Mosul.

Place.	*Highest Temperature recorded.* °F.	*Month.*	*Lowest Temperature recorded.* °F.	*Month.*	*Range.* °F.
Urfeh . . .	110·7	July	19·4	December	91·3
Diarbekr . .	107.8	August	−0·4	January	108·2
Mosul . . .	118·8	July	4·3	,,	114·5

This represents the extreme range of temperature which has been recorded for each place during the period for which observations are available. If, however, the difference between the lowest mean monthly minimum and the highest mean monthly maximum (Tables III and VI, pp. 44–5 and 46–7), that is, between the lowest and highest temperatures which may ordinarily be expected in any year, be taken, the annual range is: for Urfeh, 77·1° F.; for Diarbekr, 94·4° F.; and for Mosul, 97·4° F.

Rainfall (Tables IX and X, pp. 50–1)

In upper Mesopotamia the rainfall is moderately plentiful at stations in and near the mountains, but it diminishes rapidly towards the alluvial plain of the Euphrates and Tigris.

The station of ʿAintāb, which is situated in the hills about 60 miles to the north of Aleppo, has an average annual rainfall of 22·05 inches, as deduced from a series of observations which extends over 32 years (Table IX, p. 50). The greatest amount of rain falls in December (4·13 inches), while more than 3 inches are recorded in November, January, and February. The months of July, August, and September are rainless, while the average rainfall in June is only 0·24 inch.

At the other stations the observations are probably too few as yet to furnish satisfactory averages, but they all show the heaviest rainfall as occurring in March, with a secondary maximum in December at Urfeh, and in November at Diarbekr and Mosul. This

approximates to the yearly distribution of rainfall at stations in western Persia. The number of rainy days shows maxima in the same months (Table X, p. 50), and call for no special remark.

Snow occurs in upper Mesopotamia in December and January, and sometimes in February and March as well. It is recorded on eight days on the average at Diarbekr and on two at Urfeh during the winter.

Humidity (Table VIII, p. 48)

The mean relative humidity at Urfeh is remarkably low and, if the figures are correct, must be ascribed to the *föhn* effect when the winds blow from the northward over the high mountain-ranges of Asia Minor and descend to the much lower level of the basin of the Euphrates as warm and dry winds. In summer the humidity is particularly low, being from 26 to 29 per cent. At Mosul it is considerably higher, especially in December and January.

Thunderstorms (Table XII, p. 54)

Thunderstorms are moderately common, and occur most frequently in April and May, when the average number for the month is 4 at Diarbekr and 3 at Urfeh, the average number in the year being 14·6 at the former and 10·3 at the latter place.

Cloud (Table XIII, p. 54)

Observations of the amount of cloud are available from Urfeh, and also from Mosul, where observations were made three times daily. While the summer months, June to September, are almost cloudless, the amount increases rapidly in the autumn, until during the winter months the mean amount is from 4 to 5, Mosul showing a maximum of 5 to 6 in April (Table XIII, p. 54), on a scale in which 10 represents a completely overcast sky.

Lower Mesopotamia

The northern portion of lower Mesopotamia extends from about Baghdad on the Tigris to Kurna at the junction of the Euphrates and the Tigris, and its extremely hot and dry climate is represented by the meteorological observations which have been taken at Baghdad and Babylon. At Baghdad these extend over a period of twenty-one years, while at Babylon they were made regularly for six years by an archaeological mission which was carrying out excavations there.

To the south of the junction of the two rivers at Kurna the climate becomes very damp as well as hot, and heavy dews are of frequent occurrence, the conditions approximating to those of the Persian Gulf. Basra, a station where meteorological observations were made for eleven years before the war, represents this portion of the country, while some observations made during four months in the summer of 1885 at Mohammareh are also available.

Temperature (Tables I to VII, pp. 44–9)

In lower Mesopotamia the mean temperature ranges from 47° F. in January to 95° F. in July, while at Baghdad and Basra the range is somewhat less. December, January, and February are the coldest months; from March onwards the temperature rises steadily at the rate of about 10° F. per month until June. June, July, and August are the hottest months of the year, the maximum usually falling in July or August.

As is to be expected in this semi-arid region, the maximum temperatures are very high. The mean daily maximum is from 57° F. to 60° F. in January, and rises to 110° F. and 111° F. in August at Baghdad and Babylon, and to 104° F. at Basra. The mean monthly maximum temperature for August is considerably higher, being 119·5° F. at Baghdad, while the highest temperatures which had been recorded at these four stations up to 1914 are 121·3° F. at Babylon and 121·0° F. at Baghdad in August. While such high temperatures are annually experienced in the summer, frost occurs occasionally in December, January, and February. The mean monthly minimum temperature in January is 27·5° F. for Baghdad, and 26·1° F. at Babylon, while the lowest temperatures which had been recorded before 1914 are 18·6° F. for Baghdad and 18·9° F. for Babylon.

The extreme annual range of temperature is hardly so great as in upper Mesopotamia, although the maximum in August is higher, since the minimum in January is not nearly so low as, for instance, at Diarbekr.

Place.	*Highest Temperature recorded.* °F.	*Month.*	*Lowest Temperature recorded.* °F.	*Month.*	*Range.* °F.
Baghdad . .	121·0	August	18·6	December	102·4
Babylon . .	121·3	,,	18·9	,,	102·4
Basra . . .	114·4	July	23·7	January	90·7

The greatest ranges of temperature which may ordinarily be anticipated, i. e. the difference between the mean monthly maximum and mean monthly minimum temperatures, are 92·0° F., 90·9° F., and 76·5° F. for these three stations respectively.

Rainfall (Table IX, p. 50)

While the rainfall of lower Mesopotamia is less than that of upper Mesopotamia, still an inch of rain usually falls in each of three months of the year. At Baghdad and Babylon the largest rainfall is in March, while at Basra the total for January is the highest, being thus intermediate between the later date of the maximum rainfall at places in northern Irak, and December, when the heaviest rainfall at places in the Persian Gulf is recorded. The total amount is not large at any station, ranging on the average from 4 to 7 inches. June to September are practically rainless, and in April, May, and October the amount which falls is small. The rain days are consequently few (see Table X, p. 50), the highest average number being 3·6 in March at Baghdad and 5·0 in December and January at Babylon, while at Basra it is 2·6 in January.

Snow falls occasionally, and as many as four days of snow were recorded in January, 1912, at Babylon.

Humidity (Table VIII, p. 48)

The mean relative humidity at Baghdad lies between 60 and 80 per cent. from November to April, but falls much lower in the summer, and is only 38 per cent. in June, from which it rises slowly to 44 per cent. in September. At Babylon the values are lower. Here, even in the winter, very low relative humidities occur, 10 per cent. or less having been recorded in every month except December and January during the period 1907–11.

Thunderstorms (Table XII, p. 54)

Thunderstorms appear to be rather frequent, for at Babylon, which is the only place at which they have been regularly recorded, they show a well-marked maximum in April and May, when nearly five occur on an average. During the five years over which the observations extended, 8 occurred in April of one year and 10 in May of another. In July, August, and September none occurred, and only a few in the autumn.

Cloud (Table XIII, p. 54)

Cloudiness is naturally much less in the arid climate of southern Mesopotamia than under the somewhat moister conditions of the country to the north of Baghdad. Both that station and Babylon, however, show a well-marked cloudy season from December to April, while from June to September the sky is almost cloudless. A similar annual variation of cloudiness is noticeable at the northern end of the Persian Gulf, while at places nearer to the Indian Ocean, such as Jask and Muscat, July and August are months of much cloud.

Winds (Table XI, pp. 52–4)

Before the war the winds of Mesopotamia had been observed at five stations, viz. Urfeh, Mosul, Baghdad, Babylon, and Basra; but at Baghdad and Basra the observations were made at 8 a.m. only, while at the other places three observations daily—at 8 a.m., 2 p.m., and 7 p.m. or 8.30 p.m.—are available, and give a better representation of the air movement.

The mean wind directions for each month, expressed as percentages of the total directions observed in the month, are given in Table XI, p. 52, where it will be seen that the dominant wind direction in all months is the north-west, inclining at one time more to the west and at another to the north. In the summer the north-west wind shows the greatest steadiness at all stations, when it reaches a frequency percentage of 70 to 80. In winter and spring the southerly and easterly winds attain their greatest frequency, but there is a recognizable difference at the different stations.

At *Urfeh* calms are not indicated in the observations, and in the winter months easterly and southerly winds have each about half the frequency of the north-westerly. At this station southerly winds are fairly frequent at all seasons, but, as elsewhere, are at the minimum in the summer months.

At *Mosul* calms are few, and the north-westerly winds are still predominant, reaching 77·7 per cent. in the summer months. At that season southerly winds are comparatively rare, but they reach 30·3 per cent. in the winter months, and as south-easterly winds continue into April and May.

At *Baghdad* the observations were made at 8 a.m. only, and a very high percentage of calms was recorded—from 58·4 per cent. in December to 22·9 per cent. in July. This high proportion may be due to local conditions, but also the light airs of the winter mornings have probably been recorded as calms, since Dr. A.

Schläfli, who resided there in 1862–3 and made careful meteorological observations, notes that calms are comparatively rare. Even though very light airs prevail in the early morning, the wind rises steadily in the forenoon, and by the early afternoon is blowing freshly, to drop again at sunset, and this diurnal variation in the strength of the wind is a normal condition in all the months of the year except during periods of cold and rainy weather in winter. Southerly winds are frequent in the winter, but they fall to a very small number in the summer months.

At *Babylon*, some seventy miles S. of Baghdad, where observations were taken three times daily for more than five years, hardly any calms were recorded. Southerly winds were frequent in the winter months and in April and May, but were always greatly inferior to the north-westerly winds, which in the summer months reached the proportion of 85·5 per cent.

At *Basra* the proportions do not differ greatly from those of the stations higher up the river, but southerly winds have a rather greater prevalence in the summer months than farther northwards.

The general character of the air circulation over Mesopotamia is well indicated by these observations. Throughout the year a prevailing current from the north-west sweeps over the country from the hilly country in the north to the shores of the Persian Gulf. This air has for the most part descended from altitudes of 4,000 feet or more on the plateaux of Asia Minor and Kurdistan, and therefore reaches the northern part of upper Mesopotamia as a dry wind. This is clearly indicated by the low value of the relative humidity of Urfeh. Passing southwards and entering successively warmer regions, the air of Mesopotamia is everywhere dry, except in the delta, where the climatic conditions agree closely with those in the Persian Gulf. The frequent occurrence of easterly winds in the northern part of upper Mesopotamia during the winter and spring is probably connected with the occurrence of depressions in the Levant, many of which pass over northern Syria or Palestine into Mesopotamia. Data bearing on the velocity of the wind are very scanty.

There is probably a well-marked diurnal variation in both the direction and the force of the wind in all parts of the country, but the wind directions at the three hours of observation have been published for Babylon only. Here the north-westerly wind of the morning becomes more northerly and even passes to the east of north by the afternoon, especially in the summer months. Except in the cold weather or during the passage of depressions, the increase of wind velocity during the day is usual and is especially marked

during the hot months. From light airs at sunrise the wind increases to a moderate breeze by about 10 a.m., and by 2 p.m. to 4 p.m. has become a fresh or even a strong breeze. It is strong enough to raise dust and even sand, so that in the afternoon the horizon is usually obscured. About sunset the wind drops, to rise again an hour or two later as a light breeze, which may continue during the night, falling to a calm before sunrise.

The fresh northerly wind (*shamal*) which blows in summer mitigates to some extent the great heat, and contributes to the decrease of the annual floods in lower Mesopotamia. The main period of the summer *shamal* is about 20–30 days in length, but it is usually interrupted by a few short breaks. This main period begins as a rule in the first half or middle of June, and is then followed by a few short periods in July and August. But in 1916 the main period began extraordinarily late (July 21).

Gales are said to be rare, but probably high winds occur when depressions pass over the country in the rainy season. In the summer the afternoon wind is said occasionally to reach gale force, but this seems to be exceptional.

Sandstorms

Sandstorms are most common in the spring months. They are strong winds carrying dust and sand like the *khamsin* of Egypt. They are preceded by dull weather of great and oppressive heat and usually by a light wind which grows in force until the sand-cloud which it has raised approaches with great rapidity. During the passage of the sand-cloud, which may last for some hours, the wind often blows with extreme violence.

Conditions affecting Aviation

Density.—The density of the air in Mesopotamia has been computed for four months of the year, including those of mid-winter and mid-summer, and the results are given in the following table:

Table of Density in Grammes per Cubic Metre

Place.	*January.*	*April.*	*July.*	*October.*
Mosul	1,233	1,170	1,089	1,149
Baghdad . . .	1,254	1,194	1,127	1,172
Babylon . . .	1,260	1,166	1,121	1,177
Basra	1,250	1,185	1,130	1,176

Visibility.—In all hot countries where the ground is heated to a high temperature in the summer months, the air in contact with it is much hotter than that at a short distance above the ground. The density of this layer which is in contact with the ground is consequently less than that of the upper layers, and all objects seen through these heated layers appear to be below their true position. This effect, known as mirage, leads to a part of the sky being seen as though on the surface of the desert, where it appears to be a sheet of water, and to hills, rocks, and other objects being distorted. Visibility is thereby greatly interfered with whenever the line of sight is inclined at a small angle to the ground; for a line of sight from any considerable height this form of interference would not be serious, but when the ground is highly heated, as in the case of a semi-arid and subtropical region, the ascending hot air and the cooler air which descends to take its place will probably produce a general haziness throughout the hottest time of the day. Further, the increased velocity of the wind after midday raises a considerable amount of fine dust which remains in suspense until sunset, and diminishes the visibility of objects at a distance.

Clouds are rare in the summer months, and the few that do occur are cirrus clouds which are situated at high altitudes. Occasionally, when unsettled weather is imminent, overcast skies are experienced, but these are uncommon and do not usually last for any time.

Temperature.—The difference between the highest and lowest temperatures in any month is very considerable; the mean range, or the difference which is ordinarily experienced in the course of the various months, is given in the following table:

MEAN MONTHLY RANGE OF TEMPERATURE

Month.	*Mosul.* °F.	*Baghdad.* °F.	*Babylon.* °F.	*Basra.* °F.	*Bushire.* °F.
January	41·2	41·1	43·0	37·3	35·2
February	40·4	41·9	45·9	37·7	30·7
March	36·4	45·0	48·8	37·7	35·5
April	45·2	43·5	54·0	37·6	36·9
May	41·8	46·5	50·8	38·0	33·5
June	44·7	42·5	49·2	30·9	26·7
July	44·3	42·7	47·5	32·3	24·8
August	44·1	45·4	49·4	33·8	27·0
September	47·7	47·7	53·1	39·8	27·1
October	44·8	47·4	51·0	39·8	30·0
November	44·1	45·5	51·4	40·3	34·5
December	34·8	40·3	46·3	33·5	33·3

The average range of temperature in a single day is naturally much less, and is given below for the same places :

AVERAGE DAILY RANGE OF TEMPERATURE

Month.	*Mosul.* °F.	*Baghdad.* °F.	*Babylon.* °F.	*Basra.* °F.	*Bushire.* °F.
January	18·0	21·3	20·3	16·2	13·0
February	17·7	22·8	24·6	16·4	12·6
March	18·9	23·3	26·7	17·3	13·4
April	22·5	24·7	26·8	18·8	14·1
May	27·0	25·4	29·0	19·6	13·5
June	28·9	28·4	33·6	18·9	11·2
July	30·6	29·8	35·1	21·5	11·0
August	31·5	30·8	36·2	23·5	13·0
September	31·1	30·8	36·4	24·6	14·8
October	28·4	29·3	31·7	22·7	16·3
November	22·5	24·6	27·9	18·3	15·6
December	18·0	20·5	23·0	13·7	13·3

Winds.—The prevalent winds are shown in Table XI, p. 52, for the different stations at which observations have been made. The north-westerly and northerly winds blow with great steadiness, especially in summer, when there is a steep pressure gradient from the north of Mesopotamia to the Persian Gulf. In consequence of heating, the lower layers of air which are in contact with the ground rise, and in this way a mixing of the lower and upper air takes place as the day advances. The result is that the more rapid motion of the upper layers is imparted to the lower layers with which they are being mixed, and increased velocity of the surface wind in the midday and afternoon hours is thus brought about.

Observations of atmospheric pressure have been made at few places in Mesopotamia, but from these and others in the Persian Gulf, in Syria, Egypt, Arabia, and India the general trend of the isobars can be deduced for the summer months, May to October, when there is a well-defined pressure gradient towards the Persian Gulf. In the winter months the gradient is slight, and the data are insufficient for reliable deductions to be made of the velocity of the upper air-currents. An approximate value can, however, be obtained for the summer months, and the estimated velocity of the winds at from 1,500 to 4,000 feet (gradient wind) is given in the following table:

ESTIMATED VELOCITY OF THE GRADIENT WIND IN LOWER MESOPOTAMIA (BAGHDAD TO BASRA)

	June.	*July.*	*Aug.*	*Sept.*	*Oct.*
Metres per second . . .	9.4	7.0	5.4	5.4	10.9
Miles per hour	21.0	15.7	12.1	12.1	24.4

Farther eastward these velocities appear to increase to 30·0, 25·6, 24·8, 23·7, and 24·4 miles per hour respectively.

In the summer half-year the change of pressure (reduced to sea-level) is comparatively rapid as the Tigris or Euphrates is ascended, and the average increase of pressure for Mesopotamia may be taken as being about 1 mb. for 125 kilometres or 78 statute miles (i.e. about 1 mm. for 164 kilometres or 102 statute miles), in going from the head of the Persian Gulf to upper Mesopotamia. In the months before and after July the gradient is less, but from October to April the distribution of pressure is too imperfectly known for isobars of any reliability to be drawn.

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NOTE.—In the tables, figures in italic type are the lowest, and those in heavy type the highest, in each series.

TABLE I

Mean Temperature

	Jan.	*Feb.*	*Mar.*	*April.*	*May.*	*June.*
Upper Mesopotamia :						
Urfeh	*40·3*	47·8	52·3	62·6	71·2	81·7
Diarbekr	*30·9*	40·5	47·5	58·5	68·2	78·8
Mosul	*41·0*	46·0	52·0	62·6	76·5	86·5
Lower Mesopotamia :						
Baghdad	*48·8*	52·8	59·2	68·0	78·8	87·3
Babylon	*46·6*	53·8	61·9	76·1	84·0	91·3
Basra *	*51·8*	55·6	63·0	72·9	81·9	87·3
Mohammareh †	—	—	—	—	86·4	90·1
Persian Gulf :						
Bushire	*57·5*	58·8	64·5	72·9	81·1	84·9
Bahrein *	*61·2*	62·2	67·2	74·3	83·1	87·2
Jask	*66·7*	67·9	71·3	79·0	84·3	88·2
Muscat	*69·3*	69·8	73·2	81·9	87·6	89·7

TABLE II

Mean Daily Maximum Temperature

Upper Mesopotamia :						
Diarbekr	*39·0*	48·2	56·1	67·6	78·6	90·3
Mosul	*50·0*	54·9	61·5	73·9	90·0	100·9
Lower Mesopotamia :						
Baghdad	*59·5*	65·8	72·9	82·8	93·7	104·5
Babylon	*57·2*	66·7	75·4	85·6	97·7	106·3
Basra	*59·9*	65·4	73·6	83·8	93·9	99·7
Persian Gulf :						
Bushire	*64·4*	65·5	72·4	81·2	89·1	91·8
Bahrein	*66·7*	67·5	73·8	81·4	90·7	93·9
Jask	*73·8*	74·8	79·2	86·5	92·2	95·9
Muscat	*73·5*	73·9	78·4	86·5	93·7	95·9

TABLE III

Mean Monthly Maximum Temperature

Upper Mesopotamia :						
Urfeh	*53·2*	60·1	71·4	82·0	90·9	100·6
Diarbekr	*47·5*	54·7	65·3	77·4	87·1	99·9
Mosul	*60·4*	64·8	70·9	84·9	97·0	108·7
Lower Mesopotamia :						
Baghdad	*68·6*	75·9	85·0	93·7	106·1	113·4
Babylon	*69·1*	76·8	87·3	99·9	109·6	114·3
Basra	*70·0*	75·1	83·2	93·3	103·2	106·3
Persian Gulf :						
Bushire	*75·4*	75·6	86·2	94·3	101·2	100·9
Bahrein	76·6	*75·2*	85·7	92·6	102·6	101·4
Jask	*78·7*	81·4	87·9	92·0	101·6	104·5
Muscat	80·7	*79·2*	89·4	96·5	104·5	106·6

* Deduced from $\frac{\text{Max. Min.}}{2}$—a correction derived from the observation of Baghdad and Bushire respectively. † For 1885 only.

July.	*Aug.*	*Sept.*	*Oct.*	*Nov.*	*Dec.*	
						Upper Mesopotamia :
88·9	**88·9**	80·4	70·0	55·4	46·0	Urfeh.
87·4	87·3	76·5	63·9	50·4	40·1	Diarbekr.
94·8	93·4	85·5	73·2	59·0	48·2	Mosul.
						Lower Mesopotamia :
92·1	**92·5**	86·0	76·3	61·5	52·5	Baghdad.
94·8	93·7	88·0	77·2	61·3	50·9	Babylon.
90·2	**90·7**	85·3	77·4	64·9	56·0	Basra.*
94·8	92·1	—	—	—	—	Mohammareh.†
						Persian Gulf :
88·5	**89·4**	85·8	78·2	69·6	61·6	Bushire.
90·3	**91·2**	87·8	80·9	73·7	65·0	Bahrein.*
89·0	88·2	86·3	81·8	75·4	70·2	Jask.
88·2	85·0	84·4	82·2	77·1	72·4	Muscat.

						Upper Mesopotamia :
99·0	98·1	86·0	73·8	58·1	48·0	Diarbekr.
110·1	109·0	101·1	87·4	70·2	57·4	Mosul.
						Lower Mesopotamia :
109·4	**110·0**	103·3	92·3	75·1	63·1	Baghdad.
110·5	**110·7**	105·8	93·0	75·7	62·4	Babylon.
103·3	**104·5**	99·5	89·1	75·3	63·3	Basra.
						Persian Gulf :
95·3	**96·9**	94·0	87·6	77·9	68·5	Bushire.
97·7	**98·4**	94·6	88·5	79·9	70·8	Bahrein.
96·0	94·3	93·0	90·3	83·4	77·6	Jask.
93·2	89·1	89·1	88·2	82·5	76·9	Muscat.

						Upper Mesopotamia :
104·0	**104·2**	95·5	87·4	72·5	59·2	Urfeh.
105·3	105·1	92·8	83·3	68·2	59·9	Diarbekr.
116·6	115·0	109·8	96·1	81·0	65·7	Mosul.
						Lower Mesopotamia :
116·8	**119·5**	112·6	101·8	86·9	72·1	Baghdad.
116·4	**117·0**	114·1	101·7	86·5	73·2	Babylon.
108·5	**109·2**	106·0	97·5	86·8	72·0	Basra.
						Persian Gulf :
102·3	**104·4**	99·7	94·0	88·2	79·0	Bushire.
102·7	**103·8**	100·7	95·2	89·2	79·7	Bahrein.
103·6	101·3	99·8	96·8	88·7	82·8	Jask.
103·1	98·8	98·3	97·0	90·1	83·1	Muscat.

TABLE IV

Absolute Maximum Temperature

	Jan.	*Feb.*	*Mar.*	*April.*	*May.*	*June.*
Upper Mesopotamia :						
Urfeh	*59·0*	69·1	83·1	89·4	97·3	106·3
Diarbekr	*51·1*	60·1	65·7	79·7	91·6	104·9
Mosul	*62·6*	66·4	71·1	87·6	103·5	110·3
Lower Mesopotamia :						
Baghdad	*79·9*	84·8	98·8	99·1	109·9	119·2
Babylon	*75·4*	81·7	95·7	105·3	114·1	120·7
Basra	80·1	83·3	91·9	99·9	114·2	111·4
Mohammareh *	—	—	—	—	98·4	106·3
Persian Gulf :						
Bushire	*80·0*	84·6	104·7	102·5	106·5	109·3
Bahrein	*83·1*	83·2	95·2	96·5	**108·8**	106·7
Jask	*82·2*	88·3	92·3	102·2	110·2	109·8
Muscat	85·9	*85·3*	96·8	103·3	110·3	**114·3**

TABLE V

Mean Daily Minimum Temperature

Upper Mesopotamia :						
Diarbekr	*26·4*	33·4	33·8	49·3	58·5	65·5
Mosul	*32·0*	37·2	42·6	51·4	63·0	72·0
Lower Mesopotamia :						
Baghdad	*38·2*	43·0	49·6	58·1	68·3	76·1
Babylon	*36·9*	42·1	48·7	58·8	68·7	72·7
Basra	*43·7*	49·0	56·3	65·0	74·3	80·8
Persian Gulf :						
Bushire	*51·4*	52·9	59·0	67·1	75·6	80·6
Bahrein	*56·4*	57·6	63·0	69·7	78·0	83·1
Jask	*60·6*	62·0	66·6	73·2	78·4	83·3
Muscat	*67·1*	67·5	72·0	79·7	85·7	**88·5**

TABLE VI

Mean Monthly Minimum Temperature

Upper Mesopotamia :						
Urfeh	*27·1*	31·3	35·6	44·6	52·7	61·2
Diarbekr	*10·9*	22·3	29·5	39·6	51·8	55·9
Mosul	*19·2*	24·4	34·5	39·7	55·2	64·0
Lower Mesopotamia :						
Baghdad	*27·5*	34·0	40·0	50·2	59·6	70·9
Babylon	*26·1*	30·9	38·5	45·9	58·8	65·1
Basra	*32·7*	37·4	45·5	55·7	65·2	75·4
Persian Gulf :						
Bushire	*40·2*	44·9	50·7	57·4	67·7	74·2
Bahrein	*46·7*	49·6	54·4	60·7	70·3	76·1
Jask	*50·6*	54·3	58·5	65·4	72·3	78·1
Muscat	*60·6*	62·8	65·7	71·5	79·3	**83·2**

* For 1885 only.

July.	*Aug.*	*Sept.*	*Oct.*	*Nov.*	*Dec.*	
						Upper Mesopotamia :
110·7	108·5	101·8	90·5	78·8	61·7	Urfeh.
106·2	**107·8**	93·2	84·9	69·8	62·4	Diarbekr.
118·8	117·7	113·9	97·0	86·5	71·8	Mosul.
						Lower Mesopotamia :
120·2	**121·0**	117·2	108·0	95·3	81·0	Baghdad.
119·3	**121·3**	116·1	104·4	90·9	80·8	Babylon.
114·4	113·9	109·4	101·4	92·4	76·6	Basra.
110·5	**113·2**	—	—	—	—	Mohammareh.*
						Persian Gulf :
109·5	**115·0**	107·5	101·0	91·3	86·6	Bushire.
105·7	107·5	105·4	104·7	92·4	84·1	Bahrein.
111·8	106·7	104·8	102·2	92·3	86·3	Jask.
110·3	105·3	102·8	102·3	96·3	88·3	Muscat.

						Upper Mesopotamia :
75·0	74·8	64·0	53·2	44·4	36·1	Diarbekr.
79·5	77·5	70·0	59·0	47·7	39·4	Mosul.
						Lower Mesopotamia :
79·6	79·2	72·5	63·0	50·5	42·6	Baghdad.
75·4	74·5	69·4	61·3	47·8	39·4	Babylon.
81·8	81·0	74·9	66·4	57·0	49·6	Basra.
						Persian Gulf :
84·3	83·9	79·2	71·3	62·3	55·2	Bushire.
85·4	**86·1**	82·5	76·0	68·4	59·7	Bahrein.
85·5	84·1	81·1	75·9	69·0	64·0	Jask.
87·5	84·0	83·1	80·6	75·2	70·3	Muscat.

						Upper Mesopotamia :
69·8	69·4	57·4	51·6	41·4	32·7	Urfeh.
69·3	**69·4**	55·8	44·2	36·5	29·1	Diarbekr.
72·3	70·9	62·1	51·3	36·9	30·9	Mosul.
						Lower Mesopotamia :
74·1	**74·1**	64·9	54·4	41·4	31·8	Baghdad.
68·9	67·6	61·0	50·7	35·1	26·9	Babylon.
76·2	75·4	66·2	57·7	46·5	38·5	Basra.
						Persian Gulf :
77·5	77·4	72·6	64·0	53·7	45·7	Bushire.
80·0	**80·5**	76·4	69·1	60·8	51·0	Bahrein.
82·3	79·9	75·4	69·2	62·1	58·0	Jask.
81·7	78·7	79·2	75·3	69·7	65·6	Muscat

TABLE VII

Absolute Minimum Temperature

	Jan.	*Feb.*	*Mar.*	*April.*	*May.*	*June.*
Upper Mesopotamia :						
Urfeh	23·0	22·1	30·2	39·2	45·5	53·6
Diarbekr	*– 0·4*	17·2	26·1	36·5	46·0	52·9
Mosul	*4·3*	5·2	34·5	37·6	53·2	61·9
Lower Mesopotamia :						
Baghdad	20·8	29·8	33·5	43·8	50·0	62·8
Babylon	20·8	25·9	32·9	41·7	57·7	61·3
Basra	*23·7*	31·1	39·7	52·3	59·1	70·3
Mohammareh *	—	—	—	—	67·8	71·8
Persian Gulf :						
Bushire	*32·0*	37·2	45·4	50·4	57·7	67·2
Bahrein	*40·8*	44·8	51·3	57·3	65·3	72·3
Jask	*41·8*	51·3	47·3	61·3	69·3	73·7
Muscat	*57·5*	62·7	62·1	70·6	78·1	78·3

TABLE VIII

Relative Humidity (Mean of Day)

Upper Mesopotamia :						
Urfeh	50	53	48	43	36	29
Mosul	87	87	78	76	65	43
Lower Mesopotamia :						
Baghdad †	80	72	71	60	52	38
Babylon	67	55	47	42	34	26
Basra †	79	76	71	66	61	58
Persian Gulf :						
Bushire	78	77	71	66	62	66
Bahrein	80	80	78	74	68	66
Jask	74	75	73	68	68	71
Muscat	68	69	68	59	59	64

* For 1885 only † 8 a.m. only.

July.	*Aug.*	*Sept.*	*Oct.*	*Nov.*	*Dec.*	
						Upper Mesopotamia :
66·2	**67·1**	51·8	48·2	37·6	*19·4*	Urfeh.
67·5	66·2	54·3	43·5	32·9	16·3	Diarbekr.
71·2	67·1	58·3	48·9	29·1	27·9	Mosul.
						Lower Mesopotamia :
71·1	68·9	56·0	47·5	29·5	*18·6*	Baghdad.
60·1	**63·0**	57·2	46·0	27·1	*18·9*	Babylon.
70·7	68·7	59·7	52·5	35·7	29·9	Basra.
80·8	75·9	—	—	—	—	Mohammareh.*
						Persian Gulf :
74·0	69·1	63·2	55·4	46·3	39·4	Bushire.
76·8	**79·3**	74·4	55·9	52·9	43·0	Bahrein.
76·2	**76·8**	70·0	65·2	52·3	53·8	Jask.
77·3	77·1	77·3	74·7	67·1	63·5	Muscat.

						Upper Mesopotamia :
26	28	29	34	49	50	Urfeh.
46	64	61	72	80	86	Mosul.
						Lower Mesopotamia :
39	42	44	52	66	80	Baghdad.†
24	22	25	35	51	67	Babylon.
59	59	62	68	71	79	Basra.†
						Persian Gulf :
67	68	67	65	68	75	Bushire.
68	74	74	77	79	82	Bahrein.
74	77	74	69	69	72	Jask.
75	81	75	66	66	68	Muscat.

TABLE IX

Mean Monthly Rainfall (inches)

	Jan.	*Feb.*	*Mar.*	*April.*	*May.*	*June.*
Upper Mesopotamia :						
'Aintāb	3·23	3·54	2·76	2·36	1·30	0·24
Urfeh	2·64	2·64	2·91	1·18	0·87	0·04
Diarbekr	2·05	1·97	4·10	2·84	1·54	0·16
Mosul	2·49	3·06	3·37	2·09	0·48	0·11
Lower Mesopotamia :						
Baghdad	1·04	1·37	1·41	0·81	0·23	—
Babylon	0·95	0·36	1·09	0·20	0·02	—
Basra	1·17	1·05	1·09	0·48	0·46	—
Persian Gulf :						
Bushire	2·68	2·06	0·91	0·48	0·02	—
Bahrein	0·37	0·59	0·38	0·17	0·10	—
Jask	0·79	0·86	0·77	0·06	—	0·05
Muscat	1·08	0·78	0·76	0·11	—	0·15

TABLE X

Rain Days (>0·2 mm. or 0·008 in. of rain)

Upper Mesopotamia :						
Urfeh	7·9	9·2	11·3	8·8	5·9	0·6
Diarbekr	7·0	7·0	13·0	12·0	6·0	2·5
Mosul	8·0	11·0	9·3	9·6	5·3	0·5
Lower Mesopotamia :						
Baghdad	2·2	2·4	3·6	2·1	0·7	—
Babylon	5	4	4	3	1	—
Basra	2·6	2·5	2·1	1·5	1·2	—
Persian Gulf :						
Bushire	4·2	3·8	2·2	1·1	—	—
Bahrein	0·9	1·7	1·1	0·9	0·2	—
Jask	2·2	1·8	1·7	0·2	—	0·1
Muscat	1·8	1·6	1·9	0·4	—	0·2

July.	*Aug.*	*Sept.*	*Oct.*	*Nov.*	*Dec.*	
						Upper Mesopotamia :
0·08	—	—	1·06	3·35	**4·13**	'Aintāb.
—	—	0·16	0·47	1·81	2·72	Urfeh.
—	—	0·04	0·71	3·15	2·68	Diarbekr.
—	—	0·31	0·26	2·10	1·91	Mosul.
						Lower Mesopotamia :
—	0·05	—	0·08	0·79	1·17	Baghdad.
—	—	—	0·40	0·45	0·78	Babylon.
—	—	0·19	0·08	0·89	0·82	Basra.
						Persian Gulf :
—	0·01	—	0·10	1·56	**3·25**	Bushire.
—	—	—	0·01	0·04	**0·81**	Bahrein.
0·01	—	—	0·04	0·32	**1·27**	Jask.
0·02	—	—	0·07	0·35	0·62	Muscat.

						Upper Mesopotamia :
—	—	0·8	3·2	7·8	9·5	Urfeh.
—	—	2·5	4·5	10·0	12·0	Diarbekr.
—	—	0·7	2·5	6·0	7·0	Mosul.
						Lower Mesopotamia :
—	0·1	—	0·3	1·5	3·1	Baghdad.
—	—	—	2	3	**5**	Babylon.
—	—	0 3	0·2	1·8	2·5	Basra.
						Persian Gulf :
—	—	—	0·2	2·4	4 1	Bushire.
—	—	—	0·1	0·3	**1·7**	Bahrein.
—	—	—	0·2	0·6	2·1	Jask.
0·1	—	—	0·1	0·8	1·3	Muscat.

TABLE XI

Wind Directions as Percentages of Total Observations

	Jan.	*Feb.*	*Mar.*	*April.*	*May.*	*June.*
Urfeh :						
N.	14	11	9	9	11	11
NE.	10	13	12	6	11	4
E.	10	**13**	12	6	4	2
SE.	9	11	**14**	12	4	4
S.	3	**7**	6	**7**	2	2
SW.	6	8	9	10	**15**	13
W.	14	15	19	16	12	**20**
NW.	34	22	19	34	41	44
Mosul :						
N.	13·9	14·6	8·4	14·7	**23·1**	21·9
NE.	8·4	4·9	3·3	3·4	5·1	3·9
E.	10·2	**15·0**	14·7	10·2	10·7	3·0
SE.	15·4	15·3	**23·7**	20·6	13·8	4·5
S.	6·6	**11·7**	11·4	6·1	4·5	1·1
SW.	5·5	5·2	4·0	5·9	2·9	6·7
W.	11·7	13·7	14·4	12·1	13·5	19·8
NW.	28·2	19·5	20·1	27·0	26·4	35·7
C.	—	—	—	—	—	3·4
Baghdad :						
N.	12·9	12·4	15·6	13·6	18·1	**30·8**
NE.	0·3	1·9	1·7	4·4	4·8	5·0
E.	1·0	1·9	**3·7**	2·1	1·9	0·7
SE.	1·7	4·3	**5·7**	1·7	1·3	1·0
S.	7·5	9·3	**10·1**	7·0	3·2	0·6
SW.	**2·7**	—	1·3	1·7	2·2	—
W.	**7·5**	5·4	3·7	7·0	5·6	2·0
NW.	12·2	11·6	8·1	13·6	15·8	34·2
C.	54·0	53·1	50·1	49·0	47·0	25·8
Babylon :						
N.	13·1	18·6	15·2	17·8	21·8	**23·9**
NE.	4·9	4·5	5·5	**7·7**	5·7	2·1
E.	5·9	7·4	6·8	**7·2**	7·1	2·4
SE.	18·0	**20·1**	17·3	12·7	9·3	2·7
S.	7·2	5·7	**8·7**	6·7	7·7	2·0
SW.	4·4	5·7	5·3	**5·6**	5·1	2·5
W.	17·0	15·5	13·1	13·0	14·7	15·8
NW.	26·7	20·3	26·0	26·3	26·7	47·0
C.	2·6	2·3	2·4	2·9	1·9	1·6
Basra :						
N.	29·3	21·6	19·8	**33·4**	27·2	27·1
NE.	0·6	2·2	4·5	3·7	2·4	0·7
E.	—	1·3	1·3	1·8	**2·4**	0·7
SE.	6·4	3·6	8·6	3·7	4·5	1·0
S.	17·7	20·6	**23·0**	17·8	10·0	4·2
SW.	5·8	6·8	3·1	6·3	3·9	1·8
W.	13·5	14·4	8·9	11·6	15·1	20·1
NW.	14·4	15·8	12·3	11·6	15·7	**41·6**
C.	12·3	13·7	18·5	10·0	18·8	2·8

C = Calm.

July.	*Aug.*	*Sept.*	*Oct.*	*Nov.*	*Dec.*	
						Urfeh :
6	11	12	9	**15**	**15**	N.
8	7	8	6	11	**15**	NE.
2	5	2	2	8	**18**	E.
3	3	4	8	**17**	9	SE.
4	2	6	5	3	**7**	S.
11	14	**15**	14	5	2	SW.
12	15	12	12	11	15	W.
54	43	41	44	30	19	NW.
						Mosul :
18·6	17·8	16·7	14·3	11·6	14·7	N.
2·5	2·0	3·0	4·2	5·9	**8·7**	NE.
5·9	4·2	3·9	6·0	8·6	5·9	E.
4·5	4·2	6·2	10·0	14·8	10·8	SE.
2·5	3·0	5·3	3·0	4·8	8·5	S.
5·6	7·5	5·9	7·1	7·4	6·2	SW.
20·6	**23·6**	20·8	21·4	13·9	12·7	W.
39·8	37·6	38·0	34·0	33·0	32·5	NW.
—	—	—	—	—	—	C.
						Baghdad :
18·4	20·2	22·5	20·6	14·4	11·3	N.
1·0	1·7	2·8	3·3	1·7	1·0	NE.
—	1·0	1·0	**2·6**	1·7	1·3	E.
0·3	0·7	1·4	1·3	1·7	4·9	SE.
—	—	1·0	2·9	6·2	5·9	S.
—	0·3	0·3	1·6	2·0	1·6	SW.
7·1	6·7	6·5	2·0	2·7	4·3	W.
50·3	38·2	22·5	12·5	11·6	11·2	NW.
22·9	31·2	42·0	53·2	58·0	**58·4**	C.
						Babylon :
15·8	15·0	16·5	18·7	11·0	10·7	N.
1·3	2·1	5·5	**6·6**	5·0	3·7	NE.
1·3	1·2	2·2	5·2	4·9	4·0	E.
1·2	2·6	3·0	9·9	11·4	11·6	SE.
1·3	1·3	2·5	5·8	3·3	7·0	S.
2·2	1·6	3·9	5·1	4·8	3·1	SW.
18·6	**20·6**	17·3	12·4	18·3	18·2	W.
56·5	51·8	43·1	30·8	35·9	34·5	NW.
1·6	3·8	**6·0**	5·6	5·3	5·0	C.
						Basra :
32·8	22·1	6·2	16·1	11·6	15·3	N.
1·2	1·8	**4·7**	2·6	2·0	1·8	NE.
1·2	1·8	2·3	0·6	1·3	1·8	E.
1·5	2·4	3·1	4·5	**10·7**	5·7	SE.
5·2	6·7	2·3	9·7	14·0	11·5	S.
3·6	10·7	**14·8**	3·9	3·0	6·1	SW.
21·3	25·3	**40·6**	31·0	26·0	28·5	W.
27·9	22·5	13·3	10·3	16·7	18·5	NW.
5·2	6·7	12·5	**21·2**	14·7	10·8	C.

TABLE XI (*continued*)

Wind Directions as Percentages of Total Observations

Summary

	Nov.–March.			*April–May.*		
	W., NW., & N.	NE. & E.	SE., S., & SW.	W., NW., & N.	NE. & E.	SE., S., & SW.
Urfeh	52·4	24·4	23·2	61·5	13·5	25·0
Mosul	52·6	17·1	30·3	58·4	14·7	17·9
Baghdad	30·0	3·2	13·0	53·3	6·2	2·8
Babylon	58·8	10·5	26·7	60·2	13·9	23·6
Basra	53·3	3·4	29·3	57·3	2·1	23·1

TABLE XII

Thunderstorms

	Jan.	*Feb.*	*Mar.*	*April.*	*May.*	*June.*
Upper Mesopotamia :						
Urfeh	—	0·4	1·2	2·1	3·0	1·4
Diarbekr	—	0·3	1·0	4·0	1·7	2·5
Lower Mesopotamia :						
Babylon	1·0	2·0	2·4	4·8	4·6	0·8
,, Maximum in any year	2	5	4	8	10	2

TABLE XIII

Mean Amount of Cloud ‡

Upper Mesopotamia :						
Urfeh *	3·9	**4·7**	**4·7**	3·6	2·8	0·9
Mosul *	5·2	5·5	5·1	**5·6**	3·6	1·4
Lower Mesopotamia :						
Baghdad †	2·8	2·7	**2·9**	2·1	1·6	0·3
Babylon *	**4·3**	3·9	3·6	3·9	3·2	0·9
Basra †	3·6	3·4	**3·9**	2·7	2·6	0·1
Persian Gulf :						
Bushire †	**3·9**	2·7	3·7	3·2	2·2	0·1
Bahrein †	**2·4**	1·8	1·8	1·0	0·9	0·2
Jask †	**2·8**	**2·8**	2·4	1·5	0·5	1·0
Muscat	2·8	2·3	2·3	1·1	0·7	1·8

* 8 a.m. only.
† Three observations, at 8 a.m., 2 p.m., and 7.30 or 8.30 p.m.
‡ 0 = cloudless sky ; 10 = completely overcast.

June–Sept.			*October.*			
W., NW., & N.	NE. & E.	SE., S., & SW.	W., NW., & N.	NE. & E.	SE., S., & SW.	
70·2	9·5	20·2	65·0	8·0	27·0	**Urfeh.**
77·7	14·2	7·8	69·7	10·2	20·1	**Mosul.**
64·9	3·3	1·4	35·1	5·9	5·8	**Baghdad.**
85·5	9·0	6·7	61·9	11·8	20·8	**Babylon.**
75·2	3·6	11·5	57·4	3·2	18·1	**Basra.**

July.	*Aug.*	*Sept.*	*Oct.*	*Nov.*	*Dec.*	
						Upper Mesopotamia :
0·3	0·2	0·6	0·8	0·3	—	Urfeh.
—	—	2·0	1·3	1·5	0·3	Diarbekr.
						Lower Mesopotamia :
—	—	—	1·3	1·5	1·5	Babylon.
—	—	—	3	3	3	„ Maximum in any year.

						Upper Mesopotamia :
0·4	0·4	1·0	2·3	3·8	4·7	Urfeh.*
0·2	0·5	1·4	2·4	4·8	5·3	Mosul.*
						Lower Mesopotamia :
0·1	0·3	0·5	1·5	1·9	2·3	Baghdad.†
0·3	0·2	0·6	2·6	3·1	4·2	Babylon.*
0·1	0·2	0·5	1·9	2·2	3·5	Basra.†
						Persian Gulf :
0·7	0·8	0·6	1·1	2·7	3·2	Bushire.†
0·1	0·4	0·1	0·3	0·5	2·4	Bahrein.†
2·0	2·7	1·5	0·9	1·9	2·6	Jask.†
3·2	2·8	1·1	0·6	1·5	2·5	Muscat.

CHAPTER III

MINERALS

Introduction—Coal—Other minerals—Oil and bitumen—Mineral waters.

Introduction

The available information with regard to the minerals of Mesopotamia is very defective. Their exploitation has been hindered by lack of means of transport, by insecurity, and by other causes, and those deposits which have been worked have been dealt with by more or less primitive methods, except where the Anglo-Persian Oil Company has undertaken operations. Scientific examination of mineral-fields has been carried out only in a very few parts of the country, and then generally within very narrow limits, and information as to deposits in the hills depends largely on native reports, which are vague, and usually more or less untrue. In these circumstances it is generally impossible to say anything about the probable amount and quality of the deposits, or to do more than indicate the regions in which minerals are reported to exist.

The mineral wealth of the area lies mostly in or on the edge of the hill-country to east and north. So far as is known at present, the most important mineral of lower Mesopotamia is the oil which is found mainly in the foot-hills bordering Arabistan and the Tigris plains, but the mountain-country beyond the foot-hills has hardly been examined. In the north uncertain quantities of various solid minerals (iron, copper, lead, coal, &c.) exist in the mountains and hills; these form an extension of the rich mineral-field of the Armenian plateau. Lastly, the plains of upper Mesopotamia are in parts petroliferous.

Most of the oil probably lies in comparatively accessible districts, from which, with the general development of the country, means of transport could be organized more or less easily; but in the higher hills and mountains much labour and expense would generally be needed to provide outlets for the produce of mines.

On the exploitation of minerals see pp. 229–31.

Coal

The areas whence coal is reported are enumerated from south-east to north-west:

(*a*) Coal and lignite occur on the Kūhgalū plateau, and according to native reports there is much 'coal' (which may mean lignite) in the Bakhtiyāri mountains.

(*b*) In southern Kurdistan coal is worked at Nāsāleh near Kufri (Salāhiyeh). There is said to be a good deal of coal in the hills near Halebjeh SE. of Suleimāniyeh. Lignite is fairly common in the province of Kirmanshah.

(*c*) On the southern edge of central Kurdistan N. of Mosul deposits of coal exist over a fairly wide area. Here coal is reported in the Dohuk district, at Harbol and Sherānish N. of Zakho, near Shernakh NW. of Zakho, and farther east in the country N. of Amadiyeh. There are said to be indications of large quantities of coal near Harbol, but the quality of what is obtained at present is poor. The Sherānish coal appears to be impregnated with bitumen. According to reports (apparently native information) a better quality is found in the Jebel Abyadh in the Dohuk district.

(*d*) Coal is reported vaguely from other parts of central Kurdistan, as in the districts of Bāsh Qal'ah, Nurduz, and Sairt.

(*e*) There are seams of coal near Hazro on the lower slopes of the eastern Taurus NE. of Diarbekr. To the south of Diarbekr brown coal has been noticed near Mardīn.

Other Minerals

Iron has been reported in the Kūhgalū district, but is apparently not mentioned as occurring between the most southerly part of the mountain-belt and the Dohuk—Amadiyeh region N. of Mosul. Iron-ore is said to exist in large quantities in the Sergusa hills, four and a half hours to the north of Amadiyeh; it used to be worked, but insecurity caused the abandonment of the mine. Other deposits are reported E. of Amadiyeh, and in unnamed localities in the Dohuk district. Iron occurs farther north in central Kurdistan, in and near the Bohtan valley; and oxide of iron is reported from the Dīzeh district towards the Turco-Persian frontier.

Lead occurs in central Kurdistan, as in the neighbourhood of Amadiyeh, near Julāmerk in the Zāb valley, and in the Bohtan valley. It is also said to exist farther west, in the eastern Taurus. In the hills S. and SW. of Diarbekr there are lead-mines, reported to be valuable, which have been worked intermittently.

Silver-lead is found in central Kurdistan (in the Shattakh district and near Sairt).

Silver exists near Amadiyeh, and is reported to be found in the Dohuk district. It used to be mined in the lower Bohtan valley.

Gold was formerly worked in the lower Bohtan valley, and may exist in the eastern Taurus.

Platinum and *zinc* are mentioned as occurring in the eastern Taurus.

Copper is found at Arghana Ma'den in the Taurus NW. of Diarbekr. It was worked there on a considerable scale, though by clumsy methods (see p. 229). Copper and *tin* are reported from the Shemdinan and Oramar districts in central Kurdistan towards the Persian frontier. In the Dohuk district SW. of Amadiyeh there are said to be copper-ores.

An *orpiment* mine in the Julāmerk region was abandoned some forty or fifty years ago owing to lack of transport.

Ozokerit is said to be obtainable in large quantities at Gulraman in the Dohuk district.

There is apparently a good deal of *borax* in the desert between the rivers NW. of Baghdad and W. of the Euphrates near Kerbela. Borax has been worked at Bāsh Qal'ah.

Salt-fields, where salt is produced over large areas by evaporation, are frequent in the plains both in Irak and in upper Mesopotamia, and especially in the desert of the Jezīreh between the Jebel Sinjar and Baghdad. In Irak the principal salt-fields S. of Baghdad are those in the neighbourhood of 'Azīzīyeh, Kerbela, Nejef, Samāweh, and Shatrat el-'Amāreh. There is a less important field near Baghdad outside the Bāb et-Tilism. In the Jezīreh N. of Baghdad there is a large field at the southern end of the Wādi Tartar; others are El-Ashkar (30–35 miles SW. of El-Hadhr), El-Edejd (SE. of Meyyadīn), and Bevara (ENE. of Meyyadīn, S. of the Roda hills). There are also salt-beds S. of Hīt, E. of Samarra, and near Beled Ruz and Mandali. In the northern hills the largest group of salt-fields is that round Sairt on the lower Bohtan in central Kurdistan; the produce obtained here is exported to other districts. Rock-salt occurs at Tūz Khurmatli S. of Kirkuk and elsewhere.

Gypsum abounds along the foot-hills under the mountain-belt from the Persian Gulf up to the neighbourhood of Kirkuk. It is also found on the edge of the Arabian Desert and elsewhere in the plains.

There is naturally a lack of easily available *building-stone* in Irak. Below Baghdad stone is to be obtained near Samāweh and at the Jebel Sinam, a volcanic hill some 30 miles SW. of Basra. Lime-

stone can be quarried at Hīt, and accessories for building, as sand, shingle, and lime, can be obtained on the edges of the desert. In upper Mesopotamia the principal quarries are those in the hills near Mosul, where a hard limestone and a soft marble are obtained. Building-stone can be found in the Euphrates valley between Feheimeh and Ānah, and farther north at Deir ez-Zor and Qishlāq Ma'den. Basalt is common in the hill-country S. of Diarbekr and in parts of the northern Jezīreh plain. Lime plaster and marble are found in Kurdistan along the Turco-Persian borderland.

Oil and Bitumen

In the southern and central parts of this area there are extensive belts of country where the presence of oil is known or suspected. But the examination of these belts is still on the whole very incomplete. Thorough geological examination and testing are being carried out in Arabistan by the experts of the Anglo-Persian Oil Company, and the Hīt and Mandali districts have recently been inspected. So far as such investigation goes, the results are said to be promising. But the extent of the supply in any area that has been 'proved' must remain more or less uncertain, and even when a well or group of wells is working and is producing abundant oil, it is impossible to say how long the yield will last. Elsewhere thorough examination has taken place only at a few scattered points. For the most part there is only a presumption from the general geological structure of the country and from indications of oil or bitumen on the surface; in such cases the amount of the supply and its economic value are unknown. On the whole there is a fairly good chance that in such a large region, which is certainly or probably petroliferous, more or less valuable oil-fields exist besides that of Maidān-i-Naftūn, which is now being worked by the Anglo-Persian Oil Company, but the course of future development remains very uncertain.

(*a*) *The Persian Gulf—Kirkuk Belt.*—From the Persian Gulf north-westwards to Kirkuk there extends a belt of country which is in some parts certainly, in others probably, petroliferous. Indications of oil occur in the gypsum and sandstone ranges which form the foot-hills on the south-west side of the Persian mountains. At its southern end this petroliferous country is continued by the oil-line along the northern side of the Persian Gulf; at its northern end it may be connected with the petroliferous area of the middle Tigris.

There are two parts of this belt which are at present worked: (i) the Shushtar—Ahwāz—Ramuz district: here the Anglo-Persian Oil

Company has its producing field at Maidān-i-Naftūn 26–30 miles SE. of Shushtar; (ii) the Kirkuk—Qasr-i-Shīrīn—Mandali region: here oil is known to exist on the Turkish side of the frontier in or close to the hills near Kirkuk, Tūz Khurmatli, Kufri (Salāhiyeh), Chīah Surkh, and Mandali, and on the Persian side of the frontier oil and bitumen occur at many places in the area between the Turkish frontier on the west, the Mahidesht neighbourhood on the east, the Sirwan (upper Diyāleh) on the north, and the border of Luristan on the south. Though production has not been attempted on any large scale in the Kirkuk—Qasr-i-Shīrīn—Mandali region, some experts are inclined to think that it may prove richer than the Shushtar area. The Neft Khāneh or 'Mandali' field, between Khanikin and Mandali, has been lately examined and has been found to be most promising. Paraffin base oils are present here, and the geological conditions are favourable to the existence of an abundant supply. The field lies at about lat. 34° 2′ N., long. 45° 27′ E., just on the Turkish side of the Turco-Persian frontier.

Between the two areas above mentioned much of south-eastern Luristan and Pusht-i-Kūh is probably petroliferous, and oil is found on the surface in a number of places (e. g. Dehhurān and Dalparri).

(*b*) *The Middle Tigris Belt.*—This belt extends along the Tigris from south of Mosul to the Fethah gorge in the Hamrīn hills. At present oil is worked only at Kaiyara about 50 miles by river and 40 miles by road below Mosul. North of Kaiyara there are oil-oozings in the warm springs of Hammām 'Ali (15 miles S. of Mosul); and at the Fethah gorge there are oil-oozings and bitumen on the rocks near the river. It is possible that the line of the Hamrīn hills to north-west and south-east of this gorge is also petroliferous. The economic prospects of this area are quite uncertain, but a favourable opinion has been passed by one observer on the possibilities of the Fethah gorge. The area could be made easily accessible from Mosul in the north and from Baghdad in the south along the line of the Tigris.

There are indications of oil in the plains W. of this section of the Tigris. Thus there are said to be oil-oozings in the streams flowing S. from the Tōq hills between Tel A'far and Beled Sinjar, and farther south there is an oil-spring at El-Hadhr some 30 miles WNW. of Qal'ah Sherghat. It is uncertain whether the petroliferous area extends across the Jezīreh from the Tigris to the Euphrates, and in any case its value is unknown.

(*c*) *The Euphrates Belt.*—A petroliferous area extends along the Euphrates from the neighbourhood of Ramādiyeh up to an undetermined point above Deir ez-Zor; there is an indication of oil on the right bank above Lubtar Island 12 miles above Deir. The principal

indications (in the form of bituminous springs and lakes) occur in the Hīt—Ramādiyeh region. Here, besides the bitumen springs at Hīt, which are worked for the production of pitch, there are bitumen lakes at Abu Jir (or Abu Qir: 30 miles WSW. of Ramādiyeh), at Jebhah (7 miles NW. of Abu Jir), and at 'Ain el-Awasil (15 miles NW. of Abu Jir). Of these three lakes Abu Jir is much the largest, covering an area of 200 acres. There is also a petroliferous locality at Nafatah on the left bank of the Euphrates, 70 miles W. of Baghdad. The crude oils in the Hit—Ramādiyeh region are asphaltic. The geological conditions are reported to be sufficiently favourable to make the field well worth testing.

There are bitumen wells at Tel Mughaiyir S. of Nāsirīyeh and again near Koweit.[1]

Mineral Waters

Over wide areas in this country there is a good deal of sulphur in the water-supply, as in the gypsum country that lies on the southern side of the hills from the Persian Gulf to Kirkuk, and again on the Tigris between Mosul and the Jebel Hamrīn, in the neighbourhood of the Jebel Sinjar, and at Ras el-'Ain, and in parts of central Kurdistan. Some of the sulphurous springs are thermal. Ferruginous waters are found in central Kurdistan; a large group of thermal ferruginous and cold or thermal sulphurous springs occurs a few miles SW. of Sairt. Gaseous waters (carbonate and bicarbonate of soda) exist at Bitlis and in the valley of the Zāb between Julāmerk and Bāsh Qal'ah.

Some of the thermal and gaseous springs are frequented for their curative qualities by the inhabitants of neighbouring districts, e.g. the warm sulphurous springs at Hammām 'Ali S. of Mosul, those S. of Sairt, a carbonated ferruginous spring near Bāsh Qal'ah, and the carbonated springs of Bitlis.

[1] The theory has been put forward by Höfer that the oil-supply of Mesopotamia is distributed along four lines:

(*a*) The line Mosul—Persian Gulf. Starting at Hammām 'Ali on the Tigris S. of Mosul, this line would pass through Kirkuk and Tūz Khurmatli to Qasr-i-Shīrīn, and on through the Pusht-i-Kūh and the northern borders of Arabistan to the Persian Gulf.

(*b*) The line Kaiyara—Kufri.

(*c*) The line El-Hadhr—Fethah gorge—Mandali.

(*d*) The Euphrates line from Deir to Hīt, and on along the edge of the desert bordering the Euphrates valley through Tel Mughaiyir to Koweit.

The evidence available seems hardly sufficient either to prove or to disprove this theory.

CHAPTER IV

FAUNA AND FLORA

Fauna

In Mesopotamia there are few kinds of wild animals that are of economic use.

Both in the northern and southern plains gazelles, wild pig (in the marshes and the tamarisk jungle along the rivers), and jackals are common. Hyenas, foxes, long-haired desert hares, jerboas, porcupines, and rats are said to abound in upper Mesopotamia. In Irak and Arabistan hyenas, foxes, hares, porcupines, and jerboas are mentioned as occurring. Wolves are now rare in the plains (especially, it seems, in the south), and the wild ass of upper Mesopotamia has now almost disappeared. There are said to be still a few lions in Arabistan, and perhaps on the Khabūr in the western Jezīreh. Of birds ravens, crows, owls, vultures, kites, hawks and falcons, wild pigeons, sand-grouse, partridges, bustard, duck, snipe, quail, and geese are found, and especially the permanent marshes of southern Irak and Arabistan teem with many sorts of aquatic birds—various kinds of duck, bittern, heron, coot, &c.

In the rivers there are several kinds of fish, but these are mostly unfit to be eaten, at any rate by Europeans. The best known are the *bizz*, which is often 6–7 ft. long and over 100 lb. in weight; the *shabūt*, which weighs from 2 to 6 lb.; and the *bunni*, which is a smaller but better-tasting fish than the *shabūt*. Sharks frequent the Shatt el-'Arab and the lower Tigris, sometimes reaching Baghdad and even Samarra in the hot season: they are also found in the Kārūn. Water-tortoises are common. Otters occur in Irak and on the lower Kārūn, and are sometimes hunted by the natives for their skins.

In the mountains the bear (black or brown), the hyena, the lynx, the fox, the wild pig, and the wild goat are fairly common. Leopards and panthers are said to be found here and there in the Persian mountains. Squirrels of various kinds exist, and the marten is trapped for its fur. There are eagles in the higher altitudes. Both the Kurds and the Lurs take honey from wild bees.

Mosquitoes are common, especially in the marshy districts, where they are dangerous as carriers of infection. Flies are numerous and troublesome in the summer heats, and may spread disease. Locusts sometimes invade parts of the country, and may cause great destruction over wide areas. The plains E. of the Tigris are especially liable to be ravaged by locusts which come in April and May from the Kurdish hills. Poisonous snakes and scorpions are in general fairly common.

On domesticated animals see Chapter XI, pp. 182–8.

Flora

On cultivated plants see Chapter XI, pp. 176–82.

In the plains of Mesopotamia the natural vegetation consists chiefly of grass and low-growing plants; wild trees are in general very scarce. In the hills there is a good deal of scattered wooding, and areas of woodland and forest occur; but on the whole the hill-country is not very rich in timber; much has been destroyed by the wastefulness of the inhabitants.

The Great Plains

As a very large proportion of the inhabitants of Mesopotamia are dependent on their live-stock for their prosperity and even for their existence, vegetation which supplies grazing is of the first importance.

The grasses of the plains are produced by the winter and spring rainfall. They are most abundant in spring (about April), when they cover enormous areas, and are interspersed with many kinds of flowers. In the summer heat they are for the most part soon dried up; only here and there, where the soil is particularly well watered, as along wadis or rivers, or in oases, is grass to be found in the late summer and early autumn. This decrease of vegetation in the summer drives the Kurds to migrate from the edges of the plain-country to the highlands, while the nomad Arabs occupy the parts of the plains where grazing is still available.

There are a number of plants on which camels can find grazing throughout the year, e. g. the thorny plant *agul* (camel-thorn), which is very common.[1]

In addition to these forage-plants the deserts are dotted here and there with mimosa scrub.

[1] *Agul* is used for cooling rooms or tents in summer. It is made into screens on which water is poured so as to cool the air in its passage.

Reeds abound in the marshes, and are used by the inhabitants for matting and for hut-building. Coarse marsh-grasses are also used in the construction of huts.

Two natural vegetable products have a commercial value as articles of export, liquorice and colocynth. Liquorice is found near water, generally on the concave side of river-bends. On the Tigris it occurs to some extent in the Diarbekr lowlands, but mainly in the great plains from the neighbourhood of Jezīret-ibn-'Omar at least down to the district of Kut el-Amara. On the Euphrates it is found on the middle course of the river in the upper Mesopotamian plain, and in Irak as far down as Diwāniyeh. It also grows on the Khabūr (the tributary of the Euphrates), the Zābs, the Diyāleh, the northern end of the Shatt el-Hai, and in Arabistan on the Diz. Colocynth is found in many districts, especially between Baghdad and Hilla; it is said to be inferior to the Syrian colocynth.

Wild trees hardly exist except along the rivers and canals. On the banks of the Euphrates and Tigris in Irak there are some groves which have been protected by the Turkish Forests Department, but these are not large. The *gharab* (Euphrates poplar), a tree of no great size, is comparatively common. A kind of osier called *safsaf*, giving a good shade, occurs in Irak. The *ber* is fairly common in Arabistan. Mulberries, several kinds of acacia, sumachs, and planes are also found growing wild. There is a good deal of tamarisk jungle or scrub by the rivers, especially in parts of the Euphrates valley in upper Mesopotamia.

The Hill-country (including the Upland Plains)

The grass in the lower valleys is mostly burnt up in the course of the summer, but grazing is to be found throughout that season on the high mountain-slopes and plateaux, which form the summer pasture-grounds of nomadic and semi-nomadic tribes.

Gum-producing plants, and especially the species of *Astragalus* yielding gum-tragacanth, grow in Kurdistan, Luristan, and the Bakhtiyāri country.

Of trees the oak, often in a stunted form, is the most common: there occur ilex, cork-tree, and the *Quercus infectoria*, from which gall-nuts (an article of export in Kurdistan) are obtained. Walnuts, poplars, junipers, elms, sumachs, mulberries, planes, maples, briars, and hawthorns are also found. Some walnut wood used to be exported to France, and the leaves of the sumach are collected and exported for medicinal and industrial purposes.

CHAPTER V

HYGIENE

As regards Europeans, the principal disease of the country is malaria. This is most incident in the neighbourhood of marshes and inundation-areas, and it is therefore especially prevalent in lower Mesopotamia and above all among the swamps of southern Irak in the flood season and in autumn. It is also to be apprehended in certain low-lying marshy localities of upper Mesopotamia.

In the plains during the summer months fatiguing work in the open is likely to bring on heat-stroke. This is specially likely to occur in a humid atmosphere, so that in this respect also southern Irak in its present condition is the most unhealthy part of the country. Prickly heat also is very prevalent in the damp part of the country.

There may also be danger at times, or under certain conditions, of cholera, choleraic diarrhoea, plague, or typhus. The spread of cholera and choleraic diarrhoea is much increased by flies. On measures necessary to protect camps, &c., from flies see *Field Notes on Mesopotamia*, published by the General Staff, India, 1917 edition, pp. 52–4.

A boil which is called by various names (e.g. 'Baghdad boil', 'Basra date-mark') attacks both Europeans and natives in many of the cities. Natives of the towns where the boil is prevalent are generally attacked in infancy at an age of from one to three years. Newcomers are almost always attacked within a year of their arrival in a town where the disease is prevalent. The boil usually appears on the face, hand, wrist, or ankle. It lasts for about a year, causes discomfort, and leaves a scar, but is not dangerous. It is believed to be caused by a parasite, called *Leishmania*, injected by the bite of some noxious insect, probably a sand-fly. Treatment by carbonic acid snow may possibly reduce the boil for a time, but in that case it is likely to return sooner or later. If the boil is left alone, the disease will not come back when once it has run its course. Natives inoculate the sore on the arm to prevent a disfiguring scar on the face.

Outside malaria-infested districts, if proper precautions can be

taken against the summer heat, against insects, and against the rather sharp contrasts between day and night temperatures which occur in autumn, winter, and spring, and if, further, such care is taken with regard to water, &c., as is necessary in a country the inhabitants of which are unacquainted with European rules of sanitation, the health conditions for Europeans in Mesopotamia may be regarded as in general fairly good. The winters in the plains and lower hills are bracing; and outside the region of marsh and flood the atmosphere in summer is dry.

In the plains both of upper and of lower Mesopotamia the hot weather, which begins in April and ends in September or October, is very trying to European residents as well on account of its length as owing to the very high temperatures which occur in it. During this season European residents in the towns have been accustomed to spend the hottest parts of the day in *serdabs* (underground cellars), with which all the larger houses are provided. Punkahs also are used. On the hottest days it is almost impossible for Europeans to remain in the upper rooms of houses built in the native style. The flat roofs are used as sleeping quarters in the summer. In Basra the nights are hotter and damper than in Baghdad, and it is advisable to sleep under an awning which serves as protection against the morning dews.

Even in Irak the cold of winter, which is often bitter at nights, makes thick clothing necessary. For the hot season, besides thin day and night clothing, spine-pad and topee are essential. 'A good pair of dark or amber glasses with dust-proof sides fitting closely (or motor goggles) are absolutely essential all the year round, as the dust storms are extremely bad, and the glare from the water and desert extremely trying to the eyes.' Mosquito curtains are necessary.

The following notes are quoted from *Field Notes on Mesopotamia*, edition of 1917, p. 287:

> '*Water* (in Irak).—The river is the best supply, when available; it is muddy as a rule, and requires sedimentation with alum; it should always be boiled or chlorinated.
>
> The water for drinking purposes should always be taken from the middle of the main stream if possible, and never from the small creeks, which are always badly polluted.
>
> The other source of water is from wells on the desert; it is nearly always brackish and very unpleasant to taste and extremely hard; a pinch of Soda Bicarb. often improves it; this water is liable to cause diarrhoea. Some of these wells are quite good as far as organic pollution is concerned, but one occasionally finds them polluted with dead cattle.

Medical.—Officers are advised to take the following :

A clinical thermometer.
Phenacetin.
Aspirin.
Quinine.
Chlorodyne.
Cascara.
Citronella (for mosquitoes and sandflies).
Keating's Powder.
A small quantity of alum and bicarbonate of soda.'

Among the natives of Irak malaria is the chief endemic disease, and is especially common in the southern part of that country. It is prevalent also in certain parts of upper Mesopotamia.

Other diseases, more or less common among the native population of Mesopotamia, are small-pox, diphtheria, dysentery, various diseases of the eye, typhoid fever, ankylostomiasis, tuberculosis (which is on the increase), syphilis and other venereal diseases (especially in the towns; syphilis is said also to have spread much lately among the Kurds). Bilharziasis occurs in the marshes, and is due to drinking stagnant marsh-water. There is some leprosy, which is most common in the neighbourhood of Amara in Irak. The hill-tribes suffer very much from various forms of rheumatism, which is also common in Baghdad and other towns in the plains. Epidemics of cholera and bubonic plague occur from time to time.

Under Turkish rule the towns have been left in a most insanitary condition.

The houses are generally built with a courtyard in the middle enclosed by the living quarters. Under the courtyard is a large cesspool taking all the refuse of the house and cleaned out once in every few years. At Basra the inhabitants have been accustomed to drink the water of the Ashar creek, which serves them also as wash-tub, bath, dustbin, and cesspool. At Baghdad drinking-water is supplied mainly by water-carriers, who draw water from the river, usually at pools in the openings in the bank, and bring it thence in skins carried either on their own backs or by donkeys. Before the war only about 300 houses were supplied with Tigris water, raised by a 20-h. p. oil-engine and distributed through pipes. Water is filtered in the houses through large porous jars called *zeers*, and these and the house-wells, being left uncovered, are breeding-grounds for mosquitoes (chiefly *Culex* and *Stegomyia*).

Almost the only sanitary measures taken by the Turkish authorities have been those of quarantine. In particular, a number of quarantine

stations dealt with the pilgrims to the Shiah shrines of Kerbela and Nejef. These come every year from Persia, India, and other Mohammedan countries, generally in numbers varying between 150,000 and 200,000. Quarantine is the more necessary as many of them bring the corpses of their kinsfolk for burial in Nejef.

Under the Turkish régime in Irak there was a sanitary department at Baghdad, controlled by a medical officer (the *mufattish* or inspector), who received his orders direct from the International Board of Health at Constantinople. One of his principal subordinates was a doctor with three assistants at Khanikin, whose duty it was to inspect all corpses entering the country from Persia for interment at the holy places; there were also establishments for the maintenance of sea quarantine at Fāo and Basra. After these the sanitary posts at Nejef and Kerbela ranked next in importance, while *mamurs* of the department were stationed also at Amara, Haji Qarah (in the Khanikin kaza), Mandali, Bedrah, Samarra, Kazimain, and Museyib—all places frequented or passed *en route* by Shiah pilgrims. The department also levied a tax upon all corpses transported for burial, with a view to the upkeep of these sanitary services, which tax must be distinguished from the fees charged at the actual places of burial by the religious authorities according to the sanctity of the locality selected.

Sanitation is being introduced into the towns occupied by the British.

CHAPTER VI

HISTORY

To 1914 A.D.

The kingdoms of ancient Mesopotamia—Mesopotamia under foreign rule

THE history of Mesopotamia falls into two clear divisions: first, the period when it contained great independent states; secondly, the period of its subjection to one after another of the great military Powers—Persian, Greek, Parthian, Sassanian, Arab, and Turk—which in succession have held the Near or Middle East in dominion. The first period dates from before the dawn of history till 539 B.C., when Cyrus the Great conquered Babylon; the second has continued from that date to the present time.

THE KINGDOMS OF ANCIENT MESOPOTAMIA

The early history of Mesopotamia is that of Babylonia and Assyria. The strength of Assyria lay in the plains east of the middle Tigris in the neighbourhood of the Great and Lesser Zāb; the root of Babylonian civilization was firmly planted in Irak—at first in its lower half, but from about 2100 B.C. onwards permanently in its upper portion, where for the past 4,000 years the cities of Babylon, Seleucia, Ctesiphon, and Baghdad (all lying within a circle of 30 miles radius at the point where the Tigris and Euphrates approach each other) have, one after another, been the capital cities of Mesopotamia and the chief commercial centres and emporia of the Near East. Babylonia was incomparably the more important; Assyria was only an episode in comparison. Babylonia had a widespread civilizing influence on the peoples of Nearer Asia. All the surrounding nations looked up to and were attracted towards the seat of this ancient civilization, whether they were under its supremacy or whether they imposed their own rule on it. Indeed during one period cuneiform writing and the Babylonian language were the medium of diplomatic and commercial international correspondence throughout the countries from Egypt to Asia Minor, from the Mediterranean to the Persian Gulf. Babylonian religion, Baby-

lonian weights, measures, and currency, astronomy, divisions of time, and banking system profoundly influenced the successors of Babylonia in culture and civilization.

In Babylonia a vast alluvial plain with a soil of astonishing fertility and an abundant supply of water for irrigation favoured the creation of a wealthy and populous agricultural and industrial community. Here too, where main routes of international communication crossed each other, commerce flourished, and the Babylonian kingdom showed many of the qualities of a commercial state, for example, a preference for the employment of diplomacy rather than of force. Assyria on the other hand was and ever remained a purely military community, relying on violence, and subject to a sudden and total collapse when violence failed.

The very earliest records show lower Irak in the possession of a non-Semitic people already in a high state of civilization. They seem to have come from central Asia originally. In their final home between the Tigris, the Euphrates, and the sea they must have spent thousands of years before they had reached the point of having introduced an elaborate system of canalization; industries had made much progress; they had invented cuneiform writing and had evolved an elaborate religious system and ritual; they lived in cities around which the population was grouped in a series of small city-states independent of and warring with each other; complicated laws and customs, which had been reduced to writing, regulated social and commercial relations and transactions. It is impossible to be sure of the origin of this comparatively advanced civilization; only one thing is certain, that before 3000 B.C. it was in full vigour and flourishing. Sumer, as this country was called, and its inhabitants, the Sumerians, were defended from aggression to the south by the lagoons and marshes then existing at the head of the Persian Gulf, and to the east by the mountains of the Persian plateau, which formed an effective barrier to the irruption of less civilized races. These moreover had first to penetrate the territory of Elam, an ancient and highly civilized power which acted as a buffer on the eastern flank of Sumer; and, although Elam was rarely friendly to the Sumerians, it saved them from worse neighbours. On its other sides Sumer was indeed open to attack; but it must always have been in contact with the peoples of Arabia—the Semites. The Arabian Desert has been described as one of the earth's great reservoirs of men. At various dates, in prehistoric times, its overflow must have found its way directly into the Euphrates valley, while other movements, advancing *via* Palestine and Syria, acquired some civilization and agricultural habits on the road, and moved

slowly eastwards to the upper Euphrates and Tigris; it was probably by this latter route that Assyria received her early Semitic population while that of upper Irak was reinforced.

The coming of the Semites into Babylonian life seems to include both the chief forms of contact between the nations of antiquity, viz. the bodily migration of a whole people and commercial traffic, the latter probably preceding and leading to the former. What happened before 3000 B.C. it is as yet impossible to say. But that there had been a Semitic immigration *en masse*, there can be no doubt. For the Semites are found firmly settled and forming the bulk of the population in upper Irak, at first in small city-states after the fashion of the Sumerians, but, as a consequence of reinforcement from their own stock, coalescing into a firmly knit, homogeneous nation. Their receptive genius enabled them, in a short time, it seems, to assimilate the Sumerian civilization and religious system to a remarkable extent, and without losing their national speech, or their national characteristics of superior energy, driving power, and capability to organize, develop, and consolidate. First, they proceeded rapidly to annex the Sumerian south, and then were able with united forces to cross the Tigris and occupy Elam. Other campaigns covered the Jezīreh up to the foot-hills in the north and opened up trade-routes towards Syria, the Mediterranean, and Asia Minor. Both in Sumer and for a time in Elam the Semites succeeded in imposing their own language on their subjects—in Elam only for official purposes (much as Persian is still used in Afghanistan), but in Sumer to the exclusion of the native tongue, except for ritual and religious uses. For these special purposes it survived as a purely literary language till the time of the Greeks.

Another great wave of Semitic immigration appears to have occurred *circa* 2300 B.C. The immediate consequence of this is seen in the rise of a dynasty of great vigour and prestige in Akkad (northern Irak). It definitely conquers and incorporates the south, assumes the title of Kings of Akkad and Sumer, borne ever after by the kings of Babylonia, and makes Babylon—hitherto a city of insignificant rank—into the capital of a compact and united kingdom, and a pre-eminent political, commercial, and industrial centre, which was to endure for 2,000 years. Hammurabi (*circa* 2100 B.C.), king and founder of the united Babylonian state, is famous as the ruler who issued the earliest legal code known to history. In his reign can be first discerned the working of the Babylonian state policy, a stable line of action which steadily aimed at the expansion of commerce, the opening of trade-routes, and the spread of civilization. Under him and his successor the Babylonian empire embraced

the whole of Mesopotamia, Assyria being held as a garrisoned province, and stretched across the upper Euphrates into Syria; a firm grip was laid on the one side upon the trade-routes from the Euphrates through the Syrian Desert to the west, and on the other side through Elam eastward. The policy thus initiated by Hammurabi and his dynasty was never dropped by the Babylonian state, but was reasserted whenever an opportunity offered.

The Semitic incursions which thus led to the founding of Babylon also gave rise to Assyria, at first, as stated above, a province of Babylonia, but afterwards to become the rival and enemy of the southern kingdom. Here the Semites appear to have amalgamated with an indigenous population more barbarous than the Sumerians, and to this pre-Semitic element may perhaps be traced the strain of brutal ferocity which appears in the Assyrian character.

The brilliant first epoch of Babylonia was eclipsed by the invasion of the Kassites, who overthrew the Semitic dynasty and reigned in its stead at Babylon, becoming rapidly absorbed in the local population. They appear to have been of Iranian extraction and to have descended on Mesopotamia from the Persian plateau through Elam. And since it is at this period that the then civilized world became acquainted with the domesticated horse, there is some reason to believe that the Kassites brought the horse with them and owed their success to this most important factor in war, which must have worked a revolution in the methods of the fighting of the time.

The Kassites ruled over a diminished Babylonian empire for 400 or 500 years, and then their dynasty fell before a further incursion of Semites, which appears to have entered Mesopotamia, after 1500 B.C., from the north in the shape of the Aramaic horde, followed at a later period in the south by the Chaldaeans. In the anarchy which followed the collapse of the Kassites came the first chance of Assyria, which, between *circa* 1280 B.C. and 1100 B.C., established an empire that reached the Mediterranean seaboard, penetrated into Asia Minor, and treated on equal terms with the kings of Egypt. At this time the Assyrians attempted to secure their conquests by sending out colonies of the peasantry which composed the bulk of their armies.

Meanwhile Babylonia was assimilating its new rulers. Now again the advanced civilization of the country and its dense population were influences too strong for foreign conquerors to withstand. Shortly after 1100 B.C. the Assyrian empire declined; the causes are obscure, but were probably chiefly connected with pressure from Asia Minor and the highlands to the north-east. In proportion Babylonia rose for a time, resisting its Assyrian and Elamite neigh-

bours, and, though later it fell under the suzerainty first of Elam and then of Nineveh, it apparently never lost its identity as a corporate unit.

In the second half of the eighth century the Assyrian monarchy recovered its strength and built up a new empire more powerful and more closely organized than the old. The Assyrian kings fought and conquered in Media, Armenia, Syria, Palestine, Egypt, Asia Minor, and Babylonia. But these victorious wars gradually drained the strength of Assyria, which was further sapped by the Scythian invasion; and the second empire fell at the end of the seventh century B.C. before a political combination of Media and Babylonia. In its second phase the Assyrian empire had lost what would otherwise have proved a firm base for its continued existence—its peasants. They had been used up in the series of constant wars and colonizations; those who remained in their original home had become serfs, and the state had been driven to the employment of mercenary armies whose pay had to be defrayed by a policy of spoliation and oppression of conquered territories. In consequence the fall of the empire was complete and irretrievable. Its territory was divided between the Medes and Babylonians, the former taking the north and the latter the south.

Now came the final epoch of Babylonian independence, the period in which Nebuchadnezzar was the most notable figure. Apparently some sort of balance of power was arranged, the Medes being given an open door to Asia Minor, and Babylonia reserving for herself Syria with Palestine and the trade-routes to the west from Mesopotamia, and also the right of dealing with Egypt. The arrangement worked for 70 years, and was then overthrown by the sudden rise of Cyrus the Persian. After conquering Media, Cyrus appeared at the gates of Babylon in 539 B.C., and the native dynasty vanished. Henceforward the history of Babylonia is that of a province. She had fulfilled her mission. Mainly owing to Babylonian influence and Babylonian policy, the seeds of civilization had been spread far and wide throughout the Near East.

Mesopotamia under Foreign Rule

The establishment of the Persian Empire was on the whole not unfavourable to the economic interests of Mesopotamia, for the imperial government was tolerant of local institutions and customs, and promoted commerce and industry in so far as it kept the peace in the countries under its rule. The ancient system of irrigation

was preserved. Babylonia was the richest province of the empire and had the reputation of being the richest country in the world. The city of Babylon remained the great market and industrial centre which she had been in the days of the Babylonian kingdom. The spring residence of the Persian court was at Susa (Shush, near Dizfūl).

In 331 B.C. Alexander the Great invaded Mesopotamia, defeated the Persian king between Mosul and Erbil, and entered Babylon and Susa. Alexander undertook irrigation and drainage works on the Euphrates, and seems to have contemplated the development of the Tigris as a commercial highway. He is said to have planned the improvement of the waterway of the middle Tigris, and he may have entertained the plan, afterwards carried out by Seleucus, of transferring to the banks of the Tigris the capital of Babylonia. He actually founded a port at the head of the Persian Gulf in the neighbourhood of Mohammareh.

When after Alexander's death at Babylon in 323 B.C. his empire broke up, one of his marshals, Seleucus, acquired Mesopotamia together with Iran, Syria, and part of Asia Minor. It was Seleucus who shifted the centre of trade and industry in Babylonia from the Euphrates to the Tigris. No doubt he was moved to this step by the superior advantages of the Tigris as a channel for water-borne traffic. But inasmuch as it was always a natural necessity that there should be a centre in northern Babylonia round which its dense population could gather, and at which merchants, passing along the trade-routes that here crossed each other from the four corners of the earth, could meet and do business, he selected a site only 40 miles north of Babylon and 18 miles south of the modern Baghdad, on the right or western bank of the Tigris. Seleucia grew rapidly in size and importance. It was equally suitable with Babylon for the purposes of inter-continental land trade and better adapted for water-borne traffic; moreover it was one of the capitals of the Seleucid kingdom. Without any sensible pressure on the part of royal authority, the population of Babylon gradually migrated to Seleucia; and after the lapse of two or three generations little more than mounds and ruins were left to mark the site of the older city. Seleucia remained a centre of Hellenism long after Babylonia had reverted to Asiatic rule.

From 312 B.C. Mesopotamia was for 175 years a possession of the house of Seleucus, and then again passed under an Asiatic government. The Parthian dynasty, which, originating in Khorassan, had gradually extended its power westwards over the Iranian plateau at the expense of the Seleucid empire, made repeated attempts to seize Mesopotamia, and succeeded at last, when the Seleucids had

exhausted their strength in their struggles with the Romans. Following the usual custom of Orientals, the new rulers chose a capital city of their own making, and founded Ctesiphon, on the left or eastern bank of the Tigris, exactly opposite to Seleucia, which, however, in no way suffered thereby. Arab historians state, 700 years later, that at the time of the Moslem conquest of Mesopotamia both cities were great and flourishing. In A.D. 226 the Parthians gave way to the Persian dynasty of the Sassanids, who thereafter held Mesopotamia until the Moslem invasion.

The monarchy of the Parthians and Sassanids was constantly at war with the Roman Empire, which was established in Syria. At first the middle Euphrates was the boundary between the two Powers. There was a long struggle for the protectorate of Armenia, which ended in a compromise favourable to Rome. Trajan (A.D. 115–117) tried to settle the Eastern question by the conquest of the whole of Mesopotamia down to the Persian Gulf, but his gains could not be maintained, and under his successor Hadrian the original boundaries were restored. In the middle of the second century A.D. a successful war gave Rome the western part of the upper Jezīreh (region of Urfeh and Harrān), and at the end of the same century the eastern portion of the Jezīreh north of the Sinjar hills also came under her control. A number of Roman fortresses were established in the country, the principal of which was Nisibis. The upper Jezīreh was thenceforward the scene of numerous campaigns, but, though successful Persian invasions were not uncommon and the frontier shifted backwards and forwards, the country was generally under Roman rule. In northern Jezīreh there are still to be seen memorials of the Roman Empire in city-walls (Urfeh, Diarbekr) and remains of bridges, forts, &c.

Under Parthian and Sassanid in the south and Roman rule in the north, Mesopotamia long continued to flourish. Like Cyrus and his successors, the Parthian and Sassanid kings spent their winters at Ctesiphon. The great arch of Ctesiphon belongs to the Sassanid period. Babylonia was still extraordinarily rich; under Sassanid government the irrigation-system of Irak was probably brought to the highest pitch of development which it has ever attained. The Jezīreh contained some considerable cities and, besides fertile irrigated areas, much pastoral wealth. But towards the end of the Sassanid age civil and foreign war and weak government were beginning to affect the prosperity of the country.

During this period Christianity spread both in the Roman and in the Persian provinces of Mesopotamia, and, after it had been adopted as the State religion of the Roman Empire (fourth century), it became

the dominant faith in the northern part of the country. (See further on the origins of the present Christian sects in Mesopotamia pp. 128–30.) Moreover the influence of Hellenism, after its first introduction by Alexander, did not entirely die out in Mesopotamia, but survived through the Parthian and Sassanian epochs and indirectly inspired the best achievements of the older populations which became nominally Arab under Arab rule and speech.

The wealth of Mesopotamia, its pasture-lands, and its rich cultivation had long attracted the nomads of Arabia, and from time to time, when the civilized governments of the country were weak, Arab tribes had established themselves within its borders. In the Sassanid age there were Bedawis in the steppes of the Jezīreh, many of them subject to the emirate of Hatra (El-Hadhr). At Hira, on the western edge of Irak near Nejef, Arab immigrants who had given up their nomadic habits were ruled by a dynasty of Arab princes. Thus the way was to some extent prepared for the most notable of all the Arab invasions of Mesopotamia.

In A.D. 628 Mohammed sent to the Roman Emperor and to the Persian king a summons to acknowledge God and His Prophet. But for the remainder of his life Mohammed was occupied with conquering Arabia for the Faith. His death in A.D. 632 was the signal for fresh trouble in Arabia, but this was rapidly suppressed by the Caliph Abu Bekr, and by the end of A.D. 633 Islam went forth to attack at once the Roman Empire and the kingdom of the Sassanids.

These great Powers had recently been waging war on each other for about a quarter of a century, and both were suffering from the effects of this conflict as well as from internal troubles. In the Persian Empire the murder of Khosrou (Chosroes II) in A.D. 628 had been followed by a struggle among the nobles over the succession to the throne, and this had not yet been settled when a Moslem army under Khalid-ibn-Walid, the 'Sword of God', invaded the lands along the lower Euphrates. The Moslems were at first successful, and then suffered a check, due to the withdrawal of Khalid with a part of the Arab forces to assist in the conquest of Syria. But the fall of Damascus in A.D. 635 set free reinforcements for Mesopotamia, and in A.D. 636 the Moslems utterly defeated the Persians in a most stubbornly contested battle at Kadisiyeh, on the fringe of the desert, 15 miles west of Kūfeh. This battle practically settled the fate of the Persian monarchy. That it was a complete rout is clear from the leisurely manner in which the Arabs proceeded to settle and colonize Mesopotamia. Ctesiphon, with Seleucia, fell in A.D. 637, and in the same year Kūfeh and Basra were founded as Arab strongholds, the latter superseding the Sassanian port of Ubuka for the

trade with the Persian Gulf and India. There followed a migration *en masse* of Arabs with their families and belongings, who descended upon the country and made it their own. Many of the resident population perished by the sword; many fled; others fell victims to the floods and to plague and famine, which raged at this period. But there is little doubt that a large proportion embraced Islam and adopted Arabic speech, and it is to them that we must trace in great measure the administration and cultural achievements on which rests the fame of the Abbasid rulers of Baghdad. The Arab conquest was eventually carried up to the Taurus range. In northern Mesopotamia a numerous Christian population continued to exist under Moslem rulers.

About the time of the Mohammedan conquest Babylonia was visited with a catastrophe which in the southern and south-eastern part of the country had permanently disastrous results. Towards the end of the fifth century A.D. a heavy flood in the Tigris burst its banks and overflowed the lands to the south and south-west, probably impeding the current of the Euphrates. The Sassanids, however, repaired the damage, and most of the flooded lands were brought back into cultivation. But about the year A.D. 629 the Euphrates and the Tigris came down in such floods as had never before been seen. Both rivers burst their banks in innumerable places, and finally laid all the surrounding country under water. The Sassanid king, Parvez, made desperate efforts to reclaim the country, sparing neither money nor men's lives; 'indeed', the Arab historian reports, 'he crucified in one day forty canal-workers at a certain breach and yet was unable to master the flood'. During the succeeding years of anarchy, when the Moslem armies began to overrun Mesopotamia, and the Sassanian monarchy perished, the dykes, such as still existed, naturally remained uncared for, 'and breaches came in all the embankments, for none gave heed, and the landowners were powerless to repair the dykes, so that the swamps every way lengthened and widened'. It seems to have been at this time that the main stream of the lower Tigris was diverted to the channel now known as the Shatt el-Hai, where it remained until the sixteenth century. The new Arab rulers of the country were hardly qualified by their previous training or their temperament to take the charge of complicated works of irrigation. These nomads were not without the ability to appreciate civilized influences, but the fame and success of the empire which they founded depended mainly upon the work and genius of their Greek and Persian ministers and administrative staffs. But it must not be supposed that the circumstances of Mesopotamia were even then, or for cen-

turies to come, anything like what they are at the present day. Northern Irak remained well irrigated; some districts in upper Mesopotamia were still rich and productive; the government of the Abbasid Caliphs, till it lost its vigour and power, attended carefully to what had been saved from the wreck of the older world; and it required six centuries of subsequent Mongol and Turkish misrule and apathy to bring the country to its present miserable condition.

Mesopotamia was but a province of the Arabian empire from the battle of Kadisiyeh, A.D. 636, till A.D. 762. The Caliphs of the Omayyad dynasty had their capital at Damascus. But it was during this period that northern Irak became the holy land of the Shiahs. The converts to Islam in Mesopotamia and Persia brought something of older religions and philosophies to their new faith, and the character of their Mohammedanism showed itself in the rapid growth among them of sects and strange mysticisms. In the dissensions that arose in Islam over the Caliphate this neo-Moslem spirit devoted itself to the claims of 'Ali and his family. It was too undisciplined to give 'Ali or his sons the victory over the Omayyads, but it gathered strength from its defeats. At Kūfeh 'Ali was murdered, at Kerbela Husein his son was slain, and on their deaths the religious fervour of the Shiahs has been nourished. (See also on this subject pp. 125–7.)

The Abbasid caliph Mansūr, after the destruction of the Omayyad dynasty, which ruled from Damascus, perceived that a new capital was needed for the new dynasty. The decay of the Arab tribal system, on which the military power of the Omayyads depended, and the support given to the Abbasids by the neo-Moslems of the former Sassanian territories, decided him to move the seat of government to Mesopotamia. The causes which led to the selection of the sites of Babylon, and subsequently of Seleucia and Ctesiphon, which are mentioned above, were still in force, and accordingly Mansūr, in A.D. 762, founded Baghdad on the Tigris, 20 miles above Ctesiphon. For the same reasons that led to the rapid growth and permanence of its predecessors, Baghdad soon rose to eminence. It was second only to Constantinople in size during the Middle Ages, and was unrivalled for splendour throughout western Asia. Wars and sieges, the temporary removal of the seat of government to Samarra (A.D. 836–892), and even the almost entire destruction of the city by the Mongols in A.D. 1258, have never permanently affected the supremacy of Baghdad in Mesopotamia.

The country shared in the general prosperity of the golden age of Islam, which culminated during the reign of the Caliph Harūn

er-Rashīd, A.D. 786–809. After Harūn's death the decay of the Abbasids began. The Caliphs fell under the control of their mercenary army; and even the Turkish soldiers who ruled in their name lost all authority outside Irak. The rest of the empire was in dissolution, and in the tenth century the whole of northern Mesopotamia became an Arab kingdom under the Hamdanids.

Order was for a time partially restored by the advent of the Seljuk Turks, whose chief, Toghrul Bey, was invested in A.D. 1005 by the then caliph, with what practically amounted to the temporal sovereignty of Iran, Mesopotamia, and so much of Asia Minor, Syria, and Palestine as was in the power of Islam. The Caliphs were mere honorary figure-heads living in a mysterious seclusion—the fountains of honour and title like the later emperors of Delhi, and sacrosanct as being the successors of the Prophet, but practically without any temporal power.

By the end of the eleventh century the Seljuk power had broken up into a number of quarrelling principalities, and the Crusaders were able not only to establish themselves in Syria, but to cross the Euphrates and found at Edessa (Urfeh) a Christian State which lasted for about fifty years.

In the first half of the twelfth century a Turkish kingdom was built up in northern Mesopotamia by Zangi, the son of a lieutenant of a former Seljuk governor of Aleppo. Zangi destroyed the County of Edessa in 1144, and extended his influence over northern Syria. His son, Nūr ed-Dīn, won Damascus and Egypt, and finally Nūr ed-Dīn's governor in Egypt, Salāh ed-Dīn (Saladin, born at Tekrit), succeeded to his master's power, combining under his rule Egypt, Syria, and northern Mesopotamia. But after Salāh ed-Dīn's death (1193) his monarchy dissolved into a number of independent states. In the general political confusion there was some revival of the temporal power of the Abbasid Caliphate; but about the middle of the thirteenth century the Abbasids were extinguished, and Mesopotamia was ruined, by the cataclysm of the Mongol invasions.

In February, 1258, Hulaku Khān took Baghdad; the city was sacked, and the last Caliph of the Abbasids was taken prisoner and killed. The wealth and treasures of ages were plundered; priceless literary and artistic remains were destroyed. An irreparable blow was delivered at the heart of Moslem civilization. This is the end of Arab rule in Mesopotamia. It was accompanied by the ruin of the whole system of irrigation, and the country which had known prosperity for thousands of years became a waste of unfruitful waters in arid plains of dust and sand. 'The work of three hundred generations of men was destroyed in a single year'; and the desolation of

the Mongols has endured to this day. The destruction of the sources of wealth in Mesopotamia had a profound effect on the Middle East; it was as if the keystone had been taken out of the ancient structure. Though Baghdad continued to exist, shorn of its splendour, Mesopotamia practically disappears from history for the next 300 years. Instead of being the focus of the Oriental world it became a blank. It followed the fortunes of whatever dynasty or tribe rose to be a brief power in its neighbourhood. For a short time it was included in the dominions of Timur. Eventually the Turks laid hands on it in A.D. 1534, and till 1914, with one short interval, it has been at least nominally a Turkish possession. In 1603 Shah 'Abbās of Persia conquered Mesopotamia, but it was retaken by the Turks in 1638. At this time the fortunes of Baghdad had reached their lowest ebb, and the city contained only 14,000 inhabitants.

Turkish sovereignty could not be vigorously enforced. The Kurds of the northern and eastern hills were practically independent, and in the plains the nomad Arabs, taking advantage of the absence of strong government, the decay of irrigation, and the decline of population, had been gradually encroaching on the settled areas, and could not be brought under control by the Turks. The most important movement of nomad Arabs in this period was the Shammār invasion. About the middle of the seventeenth century the Shammār migrated from central Arabia to the Syrian Desert, pushing before them various smaller tribes into Mesopotamia. Following on their occupation of the tracts west of the Euphrates, the Anazeh came up behind them from Arabia. After a protracted struggle the Shammār were compelled to move on, and, crossing the Euphrates, gradually came to dominate the whole of the Jezīreh, exclusive of the hills, driving out or subduing the Tai, the Jebūr, the Baqqarah, the Weldeh, and others. Similar incursions took place from time to time in Irak. Till the recent consolidation of Turkish authority, which gradually asserted itself during the last century, the pashas maintained a semblance of power by playing off one Bedawi tribe against another, Anazeh against Shammār, Muntefiq against Beni Lām, &c. In consequence the condition of the nomads, except in the vicinity of the cities and settled tracts along the rivers, varied from semi-independence to complete freedom from all control. The remaining centres of order and civil life, to a great extent isolated by the unsettled areas, were beyond the effective control of the Sultan's Government. When in 1732 Nadir Shah laid siege to Baghdad, he was driven off by a Turkish pasha who was for all practical purposes an independent ruler. From the end of the seventeenth to the end of the eighteenth century

Mosul was governed by a local aristocracy. In Basra a local noble, Afrasiāb, succeeded in founding a virtually independent state, which collapsed in 1779; at this time the population of Basra had shrunk to a few thousands. From 1817 to 1832 Daud Pasha, a Georgian, held office at Baghdad, and under his energetic and intelligent administration the city and province began to recover, in spite of a terrible epidemic of plague during 1830–1, which is said to have carried off 50,000 persons in Baghdad alone. Heavy floods in the Tigris simultaneously swept the country. Famine followed these disasters, and in 1837 there are said to have been only 40,000 inhabitants in Baghdad.

On the conclusion of the Crimean War, the Porte found itself in possession of a large army and plenty of money, and determined to assert itself in Mesopotamia. Omar Pasha, then governor of Aleppo, marched down the valley of the Euphrates at the head of a considerable number of troops, and took possession of Ja'abar and Deir ez-Zor. Deir had previously been held by Fellahin Arabs, who had enjoyed a semi-independence under Anazeh protection. It now became the head of a Turkish province, under the vali of Aleppo. This policy of enforcing Turkish authority was carried on by Midhat Pasha, who was governor of Baghdad between 1869 and 1872, and made great efforts to develop Mesopotamia. His administration was at least vigorous, and, if he sometimes failed rather disastrously, he was certainly honest in intention. He was an enthusiastic reformer on Western lines, but failed in many cases to foresee the cost or consequences of his innovations. He built forts to protect the Euphrates navigation and the route to Aleppo, and he initiated a service of Ottoman steamers on the Tigris. He attempted, without success, to drain Lake 'Aqarqūf NW. of Baghdad. To protect Baghdad from the flood-water of the Euphrates he closed the Saqlāwiyeh canal, but as he provided no compensating escape he thus originated the diversion of the main volume of the river down the Hindiyeh canal and the disastrous drying of the Hilla arm (see p. 26). He is said to have tried to get the treasures accumulated at Nejef devoted to public improvements. His reforms in land-tenure are described on pp. 193–4. He adopted the policy of encouraging nomad Arabs to settle down as cultivators, and he endeavoured, with indifferent success, to get Turkish suzerainty recognized by Arab chiefs whose autonomy had hitherto been practically unquestioned, such as the Sheikhs of Koweit and Bahrein.

During the reign of Sultan Abdul Hamid (1876–1909) the Turkish administration on the whole effected some progress, in spite of its mistakes and crimes. The Kurds were brought under some

degree of control, partly by force, but more by the congenial employment which Abdul Hamid found for them as *hamidiyeh*, irregular cavalry in the Sultan's service used for the purpose of repressing such elements in the population of northern Mesopotamia and Armenia as were suspected of disloyalty. The *hamidiyeh* were in fact privileged to behave as they chose; and their excesses, though mainly directed against Christians, did not spare Moslems; yet economic development was not altogether checked by their depredations. The efforts of the Government to control the Arabs were still spasmodic and marked by an impolitic mixture of laxity and oppression; yet, in spite of outbreaks of disorder, Turkish power was growing, and cultivation and trade were developing more or less slowly in the river-valleys. A considerable proportion of the nomad Kurds and Arabs were compelled or induced to take to a more settled way of life. The action of the Sultan in converting into his private property (*sanīyeh*) 30 per cent. of the best cultivated lands in the vilayets of Basra and Baghdad, and a considerable amount in the northern provinces, although accompanied by much injustice, was probably of some economic benefit to the country. The Sultan's estates were comparatively well managed, and law and order were enforced at least within their limits. The native population generally was living in expectation of greatly increased prosperity which was to be the result of the projected Baghdad Railway.

Nevertheless the methods of the Sultan's Government—its corruption, fraud, and violence—aroused considerable discontent throughout Mesopotamia. The Turkish Revolution of 1908 was welcomed by the bulk of the population, as most sections of it hoped to profit by the change. These hopes were generally disappointed by the determination of the Young Turks to carry through a centralizing and levelling policy, and by their methods, which were not more scrupulous than those of the old régime. The Government achieved some successes: Ibrahim Pasha, the head of the Milli Kurd confederacy, was put out of the way; Nazim Pasha obtained the submission of the Northern Shammār and appointed a paramount chief in the Turkish interest; and strong measures were taken against the depredations of the Hamawand Kurds near Kirkuk. But there was much disorder in Irak, and the unsuccessful Turkish wars with Italy (1911) and the Balkan States (1912) made matters worse. The permanent ill feeling of the Arabs against the Turks was now taking shape in a Pan-Arab movement, and in this way the Arab disaffection in Mesopotamia was brought into connexion with the anti-Turkish movement in Arabia. Opposition to the Government grew even in Basra and Baghdad. Ajaimi Ibn Sa'adun, para-

mount chief of the Muntefiq, who has opposed us in the present war, was on bad terms with Ibn Rashid, the comparatively pro-Turkish Emir of Jebel Shammār, and was reported to be planning an attack on Basra; the waterways between Baghdad and the Persian Gulf were rendered insecure by the prevalent disorder; and a general rising of the southern Mesopotamian Arabs was feared, but did not come to a head. Meanwhile lawlessness was increasing in Kurdistan, where a number of chiefs were entering into relations with Russia. The whole situation was still uncertain when the European war broke out.

Arabistan was formerly the Persian province of Khuzistan. In the first half of the nineteenth century the southern part of the country eastwards from Mohammareh and the Kārūn was dominated by the Ka'ab, an Arab tribe whose head-quarters were at Fellāhīyeh, while Hawīzeh was under a hereditary vali. Mohammareh, which belonged to the Muhaisin Arabs, was for some years in dispute between the Turkish and Persian Governments, until by the Treaty of Erzerum (1847) it was assigned to Persia. After the Persian War of 1856–1857, when a British force captured Mohammareh, the power of the Ka'ab was broken by the Persian Government. The sheikhs of the Muhaisin then became dominant in southern Arabistan, where they were formally recognized by Persia as governors of the country. They became practically independent (see pp. 150–1). In northern Arabistan a Persian governor continued to reside, either at Shushtar or at Dizfūl, but in fact he had generally very little authority. In the politics of northern Arabistan the chief factors were the influence of the Bakhtiyāri chiefs and of the Sheikh of Mohammareh, the Sagwand Lurs and the Arab tribes of the country, and the *mujtahids* (religious leaders) of Dizfūl and Shushtar. The Behbehan district, which had been a sub-governorship under Fars, fell under the control of the Bakhtiyāri chiefs (see further p. 152). In 1907 Sheikh Khaz'al of Mohammareh and the Bakhtiyāri khāns concluded a treaty of alliance, of which the general purport was that the parties were to act together in controlling Arabistan. There remains, however, a good deal of rivalry between them.

An attempt was made in 1847 to create a fixed boundary between Turkey and Persia in place of the vague and shifting borderland which had long been a source of trouble. By the Treaty of Erzerum (1847), certain concessions having been made on each side, the definition of the frontier was assigned to a Turco-Persian Commission. The Commission failed to arrive at a settlement, and in 1851 Great Britain and Russia intervened. A belt of country, 20–40 miles broad, was taken as indicating the general lie of the frontier,

and was surveyed. But there were many areas of disputed land on which no final settlement was reached. Provisional agreements kept matters in suspense without too great inconvenience, until the Young Turks began encroachments in Arabistan and towards Urmia. Then Great Britain and Russia again intervened. The boundary between Turkey and the territory of the Sheikh of Mohammareh was fixed by an agreement of July 29, 1913. A Protocol, signed at Constantinople on Nov. 4 (17), 1913, by Great Britain, Russia, Turkey, and Persia, laid down the course to be followed by the frontier from the Gulf to Ararat, leaving the settlement of details at many points to a Delimitation Commission. This Commission, which comprised representatives of all four Powers, completed its work in the first eight months of 1914. The frontier was surveyed, the details of its course were settled, and it was marked out with boundary-pillars.

The interests of Great Britain in Mesopotamia had grown up before the revival of the authority of the central Turkish Government. A British Resident was first appointed to Baghdad at the end of the eighteenth century. These interests were partly commercial, partly political. Great Britain established and maintained order and security in the Persian Gulf, which she cleared of slavers and pirates, policed, and charted, and in protecting her commerce she established a paramount political influence along the shores of the Gulf and up to Baghdad. She was also concerned to guard the interests of the large numbers of Shiah Indians who made the pilgrimage to Kerbela and Nejef, and the British Indian Government was trustee for a number of endowments founded by Indians at these places. Moreover British predominance in the Gulf and in Irak was considered necessary for the security of India against attack from without. In the early part of the nineteenth century, before the cutting of the Suez Canal, the possibility of establishing a regular commercial and post route between India and England across Mesopotamia was much discussed, and the famous expedition of Chesney (1835–7) was a reconnaissance made with this scheme in view. A railway was projected which was to connect the Mediterranean at Alexandretta with the Persian Gulf along the line of the Euphrates. The opening of the Suez Canal and the acquisition by the British Government of a controlling interest in it caused the Euphrates Valley Railway scheme to be dropped. But British commerce continued to develop without serious competition on the Shatt el-'Arab and lower Tigris,[1] British protection was afforded to the

[1] An arrangement of 1846 gave British merchant vessels the right to navigate the Mesopotamian rivers. The Turkish Government ignored this Convention and

practically independent Sheikhs of Koweit and Mohammareh, and British prestige in Irak remained very great. There was, however, much latent jealousy on the Turkish side, and this was stirred to activity about the beginning of the present century, as the result of German influence, by this time predominant in Turkey.

In the original German plan of a railway to Baghdad a line by Angora, Sivas, Diarbekr, Mosul, and Kirkuk had been chosen. This route was given up owing to Russian opposition, which was grounded on strategical considerations. When the project took definite shape in the Convention of 1903 a line was chosen more remote from the sphere of Russian interests, namely, by Konia, Baghcheh, Jerablūs, Nisibin, Mosul, and Samarra. Further, there was to be an extension of the line from Baghdad to some point on the Persian Gulf, and north of Baghdad there were to be a number of branches, of which the most important within our area was that from Sa'diyeh to Khanikin (see further pp. 264–5). The proposal to carry the Baghdad Railway to the Persian Gulf was an obvious menace not only to Great Britain's commercial interests in Irak and the Gulf coasts but also to her political position in southern Asia. Moreover Russia still viewed with dislike the prospect of a line to Baghdad as threatening her interests in Persia.

About the same time the Turks were beginning to show signs of wishing to increase their power in north-eastern Arabia and the Persian Gulf at the expense of Great Britain. The Germans thought of making Koweit the terminus of their railway, and when the Sheikh of Koweit refused to sell them land the Turks tried to seize the town, but were warned off by the British. Turkish intrigues became more persistent after the Revolution of 1908 and the rise to power of the German-controlled and chauvinistic Committee of Union and Progress. An unsuccessful attempt was made to induce the Sheikh of Koweit to renounce his connexion with the British Government, and an encroachment was made on the territory of our other ally in this region, the Sheikh of Mohammareh. Arabistan had recently become exceedingly important to Great Britain from a military as well as from a commercial point of view, owing to the discovery of the oil-wells in the Shushtar region; these are now worked by the Anglo-Persian Oil Company, in which the British Government has acquired a predominant interest. The Turkish intrigues failed, and the troubles of the Turkish ad-

closed the Mesopotamian waterways above Basra to foreign mercantile shipping with the exception of a limited number of vessels owned by the British 'Euphrates and Tigris Steam Navigation Company' (Messrs. Lynch). (See further on the commercial navigation of the Tigris p. 200.)

ministration led to a partial cessation of these attacks. Meanwhile determined efforts were being made by the Germans to compete with British trade in Irak and Arabistan (see pp 204–5), and the question of the Baghdad Railway seemed about to be settled on terms favourable to Germany. In 1911 Russian opposition to the railway, and in particular to the Sa'diyeh—Khanikin branch, had been withdrawn, and it was arranged that this branch should be linked on to the projected Russian railway system in northern Persia; and shortly before the present war the British Government was ready to permit the extension of the Baghdad Railway as far as Basra, in return for what was in effect to be British control of the Shatt el-'Arab, of steam-navigation on the Tigris and Euphrates between Basra and Baghdad, and of any extension of the railway that might be made from Basra to the Persian Gulf.

CHAPTER VII

INHABITANTS

Numbers and distribution of population—Movement of population—Ethnography (Arabs—Lurs—Kurds—Other groups)—Principal languages—Education.

Numbers and Distribution of Population

There are no exact statistics of the population of this area; in fact the estimates that were made before the war were only more or less rough guesses, and sometimes they conflict with each other in a remarkable way.

As a rule the recorded estimates seem to be too high, and some of the exaggerations appear to be very gross.

The following estimates may perhaps be worth giving, but may be very wide of the truth:

Irak (Basra and Baghdad vilayets) .	About a million souls.[1]
Arabistan, Behbehan, and the Persian Highlands (including the Kūhgalū and Bakhtiyāri countries, Pusht-i-Kūh, and the western half of the province of Kirmanshah)	A few hundred thousand souls, probably not more than half a million.
Upper Mesopotamia, with southern Turkish Kurdistan, central Kurdistan south of the Tigris—Lake Van watershed, and the country north of Diarbekr up to the line of the eastern Taurus .	About a million souls, or perhaps somewhat less.
Total	Perhaps between two and two and a half millions.

[1] Between 1900 and 1908 the population of Irak was estimated at various figures between a million and a half and three millions. According to the *Gazetteer of the Persian Gulf* (1908) it probably amounted to '1,500,000 souls or rather more', including a very small proportion of Bedawis. The total number of the settled and semi-nomadic population was given by the same authority as 1,480,000. This estimate had been 'compiled, district by district, from information collected for the . . . Gazetteer'.

But a census taken at Basra in July 1916 showed that the estimate given in

This total includes a number of tribes which either are wholly nomadic, or belong to that class of 'semi-nomads' in which at least a large part of each tribe moves every summer to a considerable distance from its winter quarters. If all the nomads and the semi-nomads of the class described, to whatever race they may belong, are counted in, and those who are within or just on the limits of this area for a part of the year only are included, they may amount to between 15 and 20 per cent. of the above total. But their numbers are really quite uncertain, and are even more difficult to estimate than those of the settled population.

In the course of the present war the population of certain districts in upper Mesopotamia has been very considerably reduced; for example, in those parts of the Diarbekr vilayet where Armenians have been massacred or deported, and in central Kurdistan where the Christian Hakkiari tribes and the Armenians south of Lake Van have been massacred, or have been driven from their homes to die in great numbers in the course of their flight. On the other hand large numbers of deported Armenians have been brought down to the upper Mesopotamian plain and the middle valley of the Euphrates; but the rate of mortality among these deportees, who arrived in 1915, appears to have been very high.

Irak

In Irak over 90 per cent. of the population is grouped along the rivers and canals. The rural population is on the whole densest in the following areas: (*a*) along the Shatt el-'Arab; (*b*) along and near the Euphrates, especially between Museyib and Diwāniyeh on the Hilla branch or Kūfeh on the Hindiyeh branch, and again in the Nāsirīyeh—Sūq esh-Shuyūkh area; (*c*) on and near the Shatt el-Hai; (*d*) to the north and north-east of Baghdad, along the Tigris and in the country watered by the Khālis canal between the Tigris and the Diyāleh, and in the Bāqūbeh district; (*e*) in the country round Amara on the lower Tigris.

Of these areas the Shatt el-'Arab district contains the most closely settled population; here the villages and hamlets are set close along the river-banks on narrow strips ½–2 miles wide among the date-groves irrigated by the tidal rise of the river.

The line of the Euphrates is far more densely inhabited than the

the Gazetteer for Basra and its environs was considerably exaggerated. It was discovered that the population of Basra, Ashar, and some outlying villages 'could be at the outside 35,000', whereas the Gazetteer put it at 58,000. If the case of Basra is typical, the population of the whole of Irak may be only about 900,000.

line of the Tigris; perhaps the population on or within 20 miles of the Euphrates between Museyib and Kurna is about six times as great as the population on or near the Tigris between Ctesiphon and Kurna. This greater concentration on the Euphrates has existed for thousands of years. It remains to-day, and is likely to remain, because the slope of the ground-levels[1] and the work of past ages in distributing the water of the Euphrates make that river more applicable than the Tigris to the purpose of irrigation.

The number of pure nomads whose movements are confined to Irak is very small, but the desert south and west of the Euphrates is visited by tribes from the Nejd and elsewhere at certain seasons of the year, and in Irak itself a proportion of the inhabitants still keep to a 'semi-nomadic' life (see p. 97).

Towns of Irak.—The position of the chief town of Irak, *Baghdad* (140,000)[2], is eminently favourable to the existence of a great city. For Baghdad stands where the Euphrates and Tigris approach within 40 miles of each other, and where the country between the rivers begins to be easily traversable below the arid part of the Jezīreh that lies to north. On Baghdad converge naturally, in conformity with physical features, all the lines of communication which enter Irak from the north-west, the north, and the north-east: the Euphrates valley line leading from northern Syria and south-eastern Anatolia; the line of the middle Tigris from Mosul; the other line from Mosul that runs under the southern Kurdish hills by Erbil, Kirkuk, and Kufri; the line from Kirmanshah by Qasr-i-Shīrīn, leading from Persia through a natural gate in the mountains. To the south there is easy communication with the thickly populated Kerbela—Hilla region, with its agricultural districts and its pilgrim-centres; and lastly there is the waterway of the Tigris leading from the Persian Gulf and navigable to Baghdad by river-steamers. For its food-supplies Baghdad can draw easily both on the Euphrates to the south and on the Bāqūbeh—Khālis canal area to the north.

Basra (33,000) is the port at the southern gate of Mesopotamia; ocean-going steamers can ascend to it by the Shatt el-ʿArab. *Kerbela* and *Nejef* (60,000 and 30,000) are pilgrim-centres which attract Shiahs from all parts of the Mohammedan world (chiefly from Persia and India); Nejef is also the starting-point of a pilgrim-route to Mecca,

[1] Almost the whole country between the rivers in Irak, down to the line Kut el-Amara—Nāsirīyeh, is commanded by the flood-levels of the Euphrates, and can be irrigated by its water.

[2] The figures given for the population of towns must be taken as guesses, giving perhaps some rough indication of their size; they may be often wide of the truth by some thousands.

and both towns, situated on the edge of the Arabian Desert, are markets for the Bedawin. Kūfeh (5,000) and Samarra (3,000) are places of pilgrimage for Shiahs, but much less important than Kerbela and Nejef. Of the *other towns* some are markets along the Euphrates, Tigris, or Shatt el-Hai, the centres of fertile districts, or owing their importance to their positions at the junction or diverging-point of waterways, e.g. Kurna (5,000), Sūq esh-Shuyūkh (10,000), Nāsirīyeh (10,000), Samāweh (500 houses), Diwāniyeh (500 houses), Hilla (30,000), Tawarīj or Hindiyeh (4,000), Museyib (6,000), Amara (10,000), Kut el-Amara (4,000), Kut el-Hai (4,000), Shatrat el-Muntefiq (500 houses). Others are strung along the great Baghdad—Kirmanshah road, as Bāqūbeh (6,000), which is the centre of a very fertile district, Qizil Ribat (2,000), Khanikin (5,000). Others are in oases, as Beledruz (3,000), Mandali (6,000), which is supported partly by the oil-wells in its neighbourhood, and Bedrah (3,000). Zobeir (1,500), on the edge of the desert near Basra, is a starting-point of desert-routes and a centre of intercourse with the Bedawis. Some of these towns have small local industries—boat-building, weaving, &c. A very ancient bitumen industry, as well as boat-building and the passage of caravans, supports Hīt (1,600).

Arabistan

Here the population is gathered mainly on the left bank of the lower Shatt el-'Arab, in the very fertile Shushtar—Dizfūl area, and in other fertile watered areas, such as those of Fellāhīyeh, Ramuz, and Behbehan.

The proportion of nomads and semi-nomads to the whole population is higher than that of Irak. Some of the Arab tribes move backwards and forwards over the Irak-Arabistan border, or have sections in both territories.

Towns of Arabistan.—*Mohammareh* (12,000) derives its political supremacy in southern Arabistan from its position at the junction of the Kārūn with the Shatt el-'Arab. Its population has increased considerably since the opening up of the Shushtar—Ahwāz oil-field and the establishment of the Lynch trade-route across the Bakhtiyāri country to Isfahan.

Dizfūl (15,000) and *Shushtar* (10,000) lie in plains of great fertility. There are ways across the mountains north of Dizfūl which are easier than any other routes into Persia between the Gulf and the Qasr-i-Shīrīn depression. Both towns have decayed owing to anarchy in south-eastern Luristan and the consequent closing of trade-routes, and also owing to the general insecurity in northern Arabistan.

Both (and especially Dizfūl) would be revived with a good government in the country, with the construction of the projected railway from the Shatt el-'Arab to Dizfūl, and with the further exploitation of the neighbouring oil-fields.

Ahwāz-Naziri (7,000) has importance as being at the head of the lower and easier section of the navigable part of the Kārūn, which is divided from the upper section by the Ahwāz rapids. Ahwāz is the starting-point of the Lynch route over the Bakhtiyāri mountains to Isfahan.

The Persian Highlands adjoining Irak and Arabistan

In the Kūhgalū country, in the Bakhtiyāri country, in the south-eastern corner of Luristan, and in the Pusht-i-Kūh there are nomadic or semi-nomadic tribes moving to and fro, according to the season, between the higher and the lower pastures. In the western part of the Kirmanshah province there is a certain settled population, of late reduced in prosperity and numbers by insecurity here and in the rest of Persia.

Kirmanshah town (40,000) is outside our area, but may be mentioned here as the eastern end of the main highway from Mesopotamia into Persia, whence important routes radiate to north, north-east, and south-east. Along the Baghdad road a number of small towns or large villages occur on Persian territory. The most important of these is *Qasr-i-Shīrīn* (5,000), near the Turkish frontier.

Upper Mesopotamia

Rural Population.—A scanty rural population is spread out over the hill-country, varying in density according to the soil, the water-supply, the extent to which the inhabitants have suffered from their neighbours or the Government, &c. The fertile upland plain of Diarbekr and the comparatively secure plateau of the Tur Abdin have maintained a fair number of settled inhabitants, but the former area—the lowland of Diarbekr—did not before the war contain nearly as large a population as it might be made to support, and the formerly considerable Armenian element was much reduced, if not almost annihilated, in 1915. As regards central Kurdistan, estimates published in 1891 represent the eastern part of the country (along the Zāb valley and towards the Persian frontier) as more thickly populated than the western, but the figures for the eastern districts (amounting to about 250,000 for the part of the sanjaq of Hakkiari within the limits of our area) were probably too high. It is true,

however, that in the neighbourhood of the Zāb valley the defensibility of the country had made it the home of a Christian population, which was larger than might have been expected from the barren and rugged nature of much of this region. This Christian population was for the most part either massacred or expelled in 1915. In southern Kurdistan the population is very small in proportion to the area of the country. Its settled element is mainly to be found scattered in the lower valleys north of Erbil, or, south of Erbil, grouped here and there among the last foot-hills on the edge of the Tigris plains, or, farther east, occupying valleys and basins between the lower hills and the higher ranges.

In the plains the sparse population is distributed chiefly in the following areas: (*a*) in parts of the middle Euphrates valley (as from Hīt to Ānah, from Abul Kemal to Deir ez-Zor, and from Abu Hureireh northwards); for the past forty or fifty years the valley has been gradually recovering a settled population, after it had been nearly emptied by anarchy; (*b*) between the rivers on the north-western and northern sides of the plain, e. g. in the Sajur district, the country south of Urfeh, the Nisibin district and the edge of the plain from Nisibin to Jezīret-ibn-'Omar; moreover a population which is at least partly agricultural has been growing up, in spite of insecurity, along the Belikh and the Khabūr; (*c*) between the rivers, in the Jebel Sinjar and the country at the foot of that range to south and east; (*d*) east of the Tigris, in the Mosul—Erbil plains; also at various points under the Kurdish foot-hills from Altun Köprü down to Kufri.

Both in the plains and the hill-country of upper Mesopotamia nomadic and semi-nomadic tribes pass to and fro on their yearly rounds.

Towns.—The towns of upper Mesopotamia are markets and administrative centres, and support some small trades and industries.

There is a group of towns lying on that caravan-route from Aleppo to Mosul which has avoided the open plains and the southern end of the Qarajeh Dāgh country as too insecure and too waterless, and has made a détour north by Diarbekr. These towns are Birijik (7,000), Urfeh (30,000), Diarbekr (40,000), Mardīn (15,000), Nisibin (5,000), Jezīret-ibn-'Omar (5,000), and Zakho (3,000). Of these *Diarbekr* is by far the most important, for here the route passing west and east is met by the main routes from the Black Sea, eastern Anatolia, and Armenia. Diarbekr also has the advantage of its fertile neighbourhood, which, among other things, provides raw material for its silk-weaving industry.

It is to be observed that the Baghdad Railway now strikes across

the plain of the north-western Jezīreh, which the old main route avoided, and thus leaves Birijik, Urfeh, and Diarbekr a good way to north.

Mosul (70,000) not only lies on the trade-route between Diarbekr and Baghdad, but is the chief collecting and distributing centre for the commerce with central Kurdistan. Here come the raw goods exported from that hill-country, and its manufactured imports that are sent from Aleppo or Baghdad—from the Mediterranean or the Persian Gulf. Moreover Mosul has had some decreasing caravan-trade with north-western Persia through Rowanduz. Its proximity to large quarries enables it to supply the southern plains with building-stone, and its tanneries are supplied with the hides of Kurdistan, but its weaving industry, once famous, has sunk into insignificance, and it depends chiefly on the transit of commerce attracted to it by its position as a route-centre.

Of the group of towns north, east, and south-east of Mosul only the more important are mentioned here. *Bitlis* (30,000) in its gorge occupies one of the main gates of Mesopotamia towards the Armenian plateau, and to it come routes from Diarbekr and Jezīret-ibn-'Omar; these meet at *Sairt* (10,000) in the Bohtan valley, a place which has some small local industries and an export of salt. *Van* (30,000), in a plain of great fertility, lies outside the limits of our area, but has been a market for its north-eastern fringe and the administrative centre of all the eastern part of central Kurdistan. Owing to disorders and the insufficiency of communication, the trade of Van, in the years before the war, was not flourishing. *Bāsh Qal'ah* (5,000) lies on the Van—Urmia caravan-route, and its position as a meeting-point of local tracks made it an important military post from which the tribes were watched. *Amadiyeh* (3,000), on the southern edge of central Kurdistan, is a trading centre for the Hakkiari country.

In southern Kurdistan *Rowanduz* (5,000), as mentioned above, lies on a caravan-route from Mosul to Tabriz, but the roads are bad, and the trade is declining. *Suleimāniyeh* (12,000) is the chief market of southern Kurdistan, and has a commercial connexion with Baghdad in the first place and with Mosul in the second. Its plain is naturally fertile, but the place has decayed owing to disorders within and around it.

On the edge of the hills Erbil (6,000), Altun Köprü (3,000), *Kirkuk* (20,000), and Kufri (or Salāhiyeh : 4,000) lie along the Mosul—Baghdad road, and from these routes branch eastwards to the hill-towns. Tūz Khurmatli (1,200) and Kufri have some small trade in oil, and the former also in salt, the latter in coal. On the Tigris Tekrit (3,000) lives mainly by the downstream raft traffic from Mosul to Baghdad.

To turn westwards again, there are a few small towns in the country between Diarbekr and the eastern Taurus, e. g. Farqīn (about 800 houses) on the road from Diarbekr to Bitlis, and Lijjeh (about 1,000 houses) on the road from Diarbekr to Erzerum. South-east of Diarbekr, Midiat (3,000) is the local centre of the Tur Abdin. In the northern Jezīreh Beled Sinjar (2,500) and Tel A'far (6,000) lie in cultivable lands south and east of the Sinjar hills, and Beled Sinjar is the post from which the Yezidis of these hills are watched. The Baghdad Railway has yet to make its towns in the north-western Jezīreh.

Lastly there are the towns in the middle Euphrates valley below Birijik: Deir ez-Zor (12,000) and Ānah (5,000). They live partly by their position on the valley road from Aleppo to Baghdad and on the waterway of the Euphrates (the Ānah men are the best boatmen on this part of the river). They are also centres of contact with the Bedawis. *Deir ez-Zor* holds a very important position. Not only is it near the mouth of the Khabūr, but the Syrian Desert to west of it and the Jezīreh to east, being less arid here than farther south, are traversed by caravan-routes, from Deir to Damascus on the one hand, and from Deir to Mosul on the other.

Movement of Population

Increase and Decrease

As there are no statistics of births, deaths, migrations, &c., nothing definite can be said about any change in the total number of the population. On the whole it seems to have been growing slowly in the years preceding the present war, but the increase in some districts had been at least partly compensated by a decrease (generally due to disorder) in others. (For effect of the war on population of upper Mesopotamia and central Kurdistan see p. 88).

There was a tendency among the nomadic population to settle down and take to cultivation. The Turkish Government tried to encourage this tendency, but also in some degree checked it by failing to create confidence or to give adequate protection against disorder.

The inhabitants of the country in the years before the war had lively, though somewhat vague, expectations of benefits to be derived from the Baghdad Railway, and the completion of the line would probably lead rather rapidly to a considerable shifting in the distribution of the population.

On the relation of the labour-supply in Mesopotamia to the prospects of agriculture see p. 171.

Emigration and Immigration

There has been no appreciable amount of emigration to other countries from Irak.

From northern Mesopotamia there has been a certain emigration of Christians, usually to America. From the vilayet of Diarbekr it was reported in 1908 that at least forty families of Armenians were leaving every year, in spite of the difficulties put in the way of the movement by the authorities. This tendency to emigration had its main cause in insecurity; it had apparently become appreciable since the massacres of 1895. There has also been a movement of individuals who left their homes to seek their fortunes, intending to return with their profits. Armenians and Syrian Christians emigrated in this way.

There has been little immigration in recent times—the yearly flow of pilgrims to the Shiah shrines in Irak not being considered under this head. Persians, to the number perhaps of 50,000 to 60,000 (including Persianized Baluchis), are settled in Irak for trade or religion (see p. 116); but there is no evidence as to the rate at which this settlement has taken place. There were a few Indian traders in Irak (at Basra and Baghdad), but they were not much in evidence. Persians from the Gulf have lately come to seek work in the Basra district, but it is doubtful whether many of these, or of the Lurs who come from the hills to work in Irak or Arabistan, are to be counted as permanent settlers. Small colonies of Indian Shiahs were to be found at the holy cities of Kerbela, Nejef, and Kazimain. Pathans and Afghans used to come to Baghdad to seek their fortunes as doorkeepers, or in other employments for which their masterful character suited them. Nearly, if not quite, all the Indians in Irak before the present war were Mohammedans.

Ethnography

It is often impossible to disentangle racial elements in Mesopotamia, especially those of the non-Arab population, and in the following lists are included divisions of the population which are more clearly marked off by religious and other peculiarities than by their race.

It may be remarked here again that the tendency of most authorities is to exaggerate the numbers of the population and of its racial and other groups.

ARABS

Numbers and Limits

The Arabs form the great majority of the population in the plains, where other races are hardly found except (*a*) in some of the towns, and (*b*) on the northern and eastern fringes of the plain country.

The Arabs of the Jezīreh, Irak, and Arabistan may number in all about a million and a half.

The Mesopotamian Arabs form the north-easterly part of the main body of their race. In various ways they are in close connexion with their own people to south and west.

On the north the limit of the predominantly Arab country is, roughly, on a line across the Jezīreh from Jerablūs to between Jezīret-ibn-'Omar and Mosul. Here, along the fringes of the plain, under the spurs of the Qarajeh Dāgh and the southern face of the Tur Abdin, the Arabs are in contact with Kurds and Syrian Christians. Along this borderland runs the Baghdad Railway. West of Mosul there is a large group of Yezidis islanded among Arabs in the Jebel Sinjar.

On the east the Arabs are practically not found beyond the Tigris above Mosul, but south of Mosul (which is a predominantly Arab city) they share with the Kurds the plains east of the Tigris and north of the Jebel Hamrīn. In the neighbourhood of the Diyāleh the Jebel Hamrīn marks roughly the frontier between Arab and Kurd, and farther south the boundary between Arabs and Lurs runs along the foot of the Pusht-i-Kūh hills to the western border of Arabistan.

In Arabistan the Arabs hold the greater part of the plains. On the northern edges of these plains, in the districts of Dizfūl, Shushtar, and Ramuz, they are in contact with Lurs of various kinds (Sagwand, Bakhtiyāri, and Bahmai Kūhgalū). East of the lower Kārūn, about the Jerrāhi and the Hindīyan, they have Lurs (Kūhgalū, &c.) or Perso-Arab cross-breeds (Behbehanis) for their neighbours. The inhabitants of the towns under the hills are of mixed blood.

Modes of Life: Characteristics

As regards their mode of life, the Arabs of Mesopotamia may be divided conveniently into nomads, semi-nomads, and a wholly settled element, rural or urban. But it is to be remembered that in fact the classes of nomads, semi-nomads, and settled cultivators are not divided by hard and fast lines; the first shades off into the second, the second into the third.

(*a*) *Nomads.*—The nomad Arabs are to be found mostly on the borders of the western deserts and in upper Mesopotamia; there are only a few in Irak, fewer, proportionately, it seems, than in Arabistan. They are pastoral tent-dwellers, and breeders especially of camels, sheep, and horses. For much of what they eat, drink, and wear they are dependent on the urban markets. They are tribally organized. Each tribal unit has certain pasture-grounds, which it visits or leaves, according to the season of the year, its movements being dictated by the need of pasture and water. Some of the tribes which at certain times appear on the western borders of Irak or upper Mesopotamia, are at others far away in the Syrian Desert or in the Nejd. Much of desert policy and warfare hangs on these tribal rights over certain areas. A stronger group will sometimes oust a weaker from a part or the whole of the latter's territory, and this may set up a wide-spreading movement. Some of the nomad sheikhs own, or have some more or less recognized claims over, cultivated lands in oases or near rivers; these lands are worked for them by negroes or fellahin.

(*b*) *Semi-nomads.*—The tendency of the nomads to settle down and turn to agriculture has had the result that there are a number of Arab tribes living in various intermediate states between pure nomadism and the condition of wholly settled cultivators. The process of settlement is liable—especially at first—to be easily suspended or broken off; a tribe may do a little cultivation for some years, and then, owing to a quarrel with its neighbours or the Government, or a failure of its crops, may go off elsewhere. A community may cultivate first one piece of ground and then another more or less in the same neighbourhood, shifting its dwellings as it moves its fields. The semi-nomads are generally mainly dependent on their live-stock—sheep, cattle, horses, sometimes camels. In the spring, when there is abundant pasture in the open desert or steppe, the greater or a considerable part of a semi-nomadic tribe will range over the plains with its flocks and herds. Some semi-nomads live in tents all the year round, even where they raise their crops; others have villages of mud or reed huts near their fields.

(*c*) *Settled Arabs.*—Most of the Arabs who can be regarded as wholly settled cultivators still keep more or less to their tribal organization, but in some of the most highly cultivated areas Arabs belonging by blood to several different tribes will be found living together in the same village, and here the tribal bond will be weak or absent. This is the case on the right bank of the Shatt el-'Arab, except in so far as the Sheikh of Mohammareh has kept his hold on his tribesmen who have settled on this side of the river.

General Characteristics.—The Arab is generally intelligent, quick, and impressionable; often he has a certain subtlety of mind which is capable of a high state of culture. But he is slovenly and uncreative in practical matters, and is lacking in the power of co-operation and of sustained labour in the face of difficulties. The Arab ideal of conduct is humane, and includes courtesy, generosity, and hospitality, and may express itself finely in action if it is not stifled by the desires of the moment. The Arab is often grasping and unscrupulous in his pursuit of gain. He has a natural bent for intrigue, is much under the sway of personal ambitions and jealousies, and is very much of a time-server. In any conflict he may be expected to drop a cause which he thinks the loser, but is not likely to change sides till it seems safe to him to do so. His word is generally easily broken unless given under certain forms or in certain circumstances which make it a point of honour with him to keep it. For the wilder tribesman blackmail and thievery are normal and proper ways of earning a living. The town-rabbles, often of very mixed blood, are generally in bad repute.

The Arab tribesman is used to continual but fairly harmless warfare, made up of raids, loose skirmishes, and running fights. He frequently commits acts of treachery and he is generally ready to rob or blackmail a weaker neighbour; but in inter-tribal warfare he does not show himself bloodthirsty, and surrenders are readily accepted. In warfare with regular troops he usually confines himself to guerilla methods, the harassing of retreats, or sudden but not very determined attacks. The Arab is said to be an inferior horse-master and a poor shot. A really strong wave of religious fanaticism, which is always to be counted on as a possibility in a Mohammedan country, might make the tribal levies far more dangerous; but in modern times the Mesopotamian Arabs have had the reputation of being comparatively free from fanatical religious feeling.

As regards his economic capacity, the Arab has a certain aptitude for trade, but in Mesopotamia he is outrivalled in this respect by other races—Jews and Armenians especially. The Bedawi has a contempt for manual labour as degrading. As a cultivator the settled or semi-nomad Arab is usually rather slovenly and sketchy, and inclined to take the line of least resistance; but the conditions under which he at present works in Mesopotamia are against the development of his capacity in this respect. The quality of his agricultural work has been observed to improve with an improvement in his circumstances; and it seems quite likely that under a good government which gave him security, water (justly distributed), and instruction, he would be capable of using his opportunities

well. Arab labourers are intelligent and give good results when put on piece-work and well managed. Labour on a large scale has to be obtained through the sheikhs and mukhtars.

Probably over 90 per cent. of the Arabs of Irak and Arabistan are Shiahs; the Arabs of upper Mesopotamia are Sunnis. (See Chapter VIII.)

Tribal System

Outside the larger towns and a few rural areas the tribal system prevails among the Arab population, and tribal custom and the authority of tribal sheikhs have been much more potent forces in the social life of the Mesopotamian Arabs than Ottoman law and administration.

Mesopotamia has been repeatedly invaded by nomads from the Arabian peninsula, and from these immigrants are descended the Arabs who now inhabit the country. At the present time the nomad Arabs of Mesopotamia and the Syrian Desert 'are regarded by the peninsula Bedawis as forming one great social block with themselves', and, though the Mesopotamian tribes which have taken to a more or less settled agricultural life have thereby lost caste in the eyes of the Bedawis, they too have retained the memory of their peninsular origins and to some extent the sentiment of their peninsular traditions.

The successive waves of Arab invasion have in many instances broken up the old tribes or tribal groups into widely separated fractions. One part of a tribe, or confederation of tribes, may have remained in Arabia, while another is to be found east of the Euphrates. Different sections of a tribe may now be far apart from each other in Mesopotamia, or some sections may be dwelling on the Tigris while others are on the eastern borders of Syria. Where such separation has happened, the sentiment of common kinship survives, and may still in certain circumstances be of practical importance.

The largest unit in the tribal world is the group or confederation of tribes. Some of these groups are of very considerable size (e. g. those of the Muntefiq in southern Irak and of the Anazeh in the Syrian Desert). The greater groups may contain sub-groups, and the tribes again are divided into sub-tribes and clans. Corresponding to these divisions are sheikhs of various degrees. The composition of the tribal group, its divisions and subdivisions, the number of its paramount sheikhs and the extent of their authority, are continually liable to fluctuation. The power of the

sheikhs over their tribesmen will depend on a multitude of circumstances, such as their capacity, their wealth, their relations with other members of their family, the amount of prestige they have inherited from their predecessors, or, again, the tribe's relations with its neighbours or with the Government. Tribal groups may split into two or more divisions, a small tribe may be absorbed into a larger unit, or a section of a tribe may break away and become independent. In general, tribal government depends on the free consent of the tribesmen, and that consent has to be obtained in councils where the Arab love of diplomacy and argument produces interminable and tortuous discussions.

Disputes between tribesmen are settled (if they are settled peaceably at all) by the sheikhs and their councils, in accordance with tribal custom, or by the arbitration of holy men. The sanction of these decisions lies in this, that if they are not accepted the parties are involved in the inconveniences of reprisals or the blood-feud. But honour may demand that the blood-feud be taken up, and tribal vendettas have been a terrible scourge of the country.

Tribal Groups

The following are some of the more important Arab tribal groups in Mesopotamia:

(*a*) *In Irak* (*South of Baghdad*)

Muntefiq and Other Groups on the Lower Euphrates. Muntefiq tribes are to be found in the country north of Nāsirīyeh along the southern part of the Shatt el-Hai, and in the neighbourhood of the Euphrates from Durāji down to Sūq esh-Shuyūkh, and also (apparently) below Sūq esh-Shuyūkh. The Muntefiq are 'a large and loose confederation of tribes of different origin, all of whom acknowledge to a less or greater degree the overlordship of the Sa'dun clan'. The Sa'dun are Sunnis, the tribes under their overlordship Shiahs. Some sections of the Muntefiq are nomadic, but most of them are settled or semi-nomadic. They are well provided with modern rifles. The authority of the Sa'dun has been weakened of late owing to dissensions between its members, and the confederation has lost much of its former extent and cohesion. Before the war the Beni Mālik on the Tigris between Kurna and Ezra's Tomb, and several groups on the Euphrates below Sūq esh-Shuyūkh seem to have broken or loosened their connexion with the Muntefiq. The Arabs of the Euphrates marshes were then completely out of hand; neither the Turkish Government, nor, in many instances, their own sheikhs, could control them. In the Sūq esh-Shuyūkh and Hammar districts

are the *Mujarrah* and *Beni Khaiqan* confederations. The *Beni Humaid* are a confederation north of Nāsirīyeh and on the left (E.) bank of the lower part of the Shatt el-Hai. The *Beni Rikab* occupy the opposite bank.

Beni Huchaim. Between Durāji and Samāweh. This large group of settled tribes has lately lost much of its cohesion.

Khaza'il. On the Euphrates from Samāweh up to Kūfeh. A large tribe or tribal group, described as 'strong and warlike but not naturally pugnacious'; generally hostile to the Anazeh and Southern Shammār. Some sections are nomadic, others semi-nomadic or settled, cultivating rice, wheat, and barley. The sections in the desert are horsemen and well mounted; those in the Euphrates marshes depend on their *mashhūfs* (canoes), like other marsh Arabs. Shiahs.

Beni Hasan. On the Euphrates in the kazas of Nejef, Shamīyeh, and Hindiyeh. Partly settled, partly semi-nomadic. Shiahs.

Āl Bū Fatlah. In the kaza of Hindiyeh, especially between Tawairīj and Hilla, and near Tel Nimrūd, and in the Shamiyeh kaza about Ja'ārah. Cultivators.

Janābiyin. On the left bank of the Euphrates above Museyib. Cultivation. Mostly Sunnis.

Zobeid. A large group between the Euphrates in the Museyib—Hilla region and the Tigris above Bogheileh. Among the Zobeid tribes are the Beni Ajīl, the Āl Bū Sultān, the Mu'amrah, the Khafājah, the Juheish, and the Jebur. Semi-nomads, cultivating wheat, barley, rice, and maize, and owning sheep, cattle, horses, and camels. Shiahs, with some exceptions (e. g. the Beni Ajīl). The Zobeid are apparently generally hostile to the Northern Shammār and friendly to the Dilaim.

Āl Bū Mohammed. In the marshes along the Tigris between Azair and Amara; sections of them are found scattered elsewhere in lower Irak. A socially inferior people of non-Arab origin. Rice-growers and breeders of buffaloes. Well armed with rifles. Shiahs, with some exceptions.

Beni Lām. On the left bank of the Tigris between Amara and Kut el-Amara; also in Arabistan. Semi-nomadic, rice-growers, cattle-breeders; their horses and camels are reckoned the best in Mesopotamia. Good shots, especially from the saddle. Shiahs, with some exceptions.

Beni Rabiah. Near Kut el-Amara and on the northern part of the Shatt el-Hai. A turbulent tribe. Its fighting strength is estimated at about 8,000 rifles. Important sections of the Beni Rabiah are the Amarah (on the right bank of the Tigris below Bogheileh; about 900

fighting men), the Maiyeh (between the Tigris and the right bank of the Shatt el-Hai; about 800 fighting men), the Serai (between the Tigris and the left bank of the Shatt el-Hai; about 500 fighting men), the Maqasis (on the right bank of the Tigris above Sheikh Sa'ad), and the Kawam (on the left bank of the Tigris). The Beni Rabiah cultivate wheat, barley, and maize; and own sheep, cattle, horses, and camels. They are Shiahs, with the exception of the Kawam.

Shammār Toqah. A group of tribes mainly on the left bank of the Tigris from below Baghdad to opposite Bogheileh, and in the country between the Tigris and the Persian hills. (It appears that some Shammār Toqah tribes are to be found, at least occasionally, between the Euphrates and Tigris, and west of the Euphrates about Kerbela.) Semi-nomads; cultivate wheat, barley, and maize. Shiahs.

Part of the *Northern Shammār* (see below, p. 104) may come down in winter as far south as the country between Hilla and Azīzīyeh.

Three important tribal groups of the Arabian Desert range at times on the borders of Irak south of the latitude of Baghdad. These are the Dhafir, the Southern Shammār, and the Amarat branch of the Anazeh. The *Dhafir* (reckoned at 2,500 tents) move in summer from the Batin towards the Euphrates about Nāsirīyeh and Samāweh. They are active raiders and fighters and have been hostile to Ibn Rashid of Ha'il. The *Southern Shammār* (Ibn Rashid's people) are reckoned at something under 4,000 tents. The Southern Shammār range almost as far north as Nejef. On the *Amarat* see below under *Anazeh.*

(*b*) *In Arabistan*

Muhaisin. The Sheikh of Mohammareh, the ruler of southern Arabistan, is of this tribe. The Muhaisin number perhaps about 12,000 souls. They are found along the lower Kārūn between Mohammareh and Wais, and on Turkish territory along the Shatt el-'Arab between Basra and Mohammareh. Settled cultivators; Shiahs.

Ka'ab. Mainly in the Fellahīyeh district; also in 'Abbādān Island. They form the largest tribal group in Arabistan, numbering perhaps about 50,000 souls, and up to some fifty years ago they dominated the country. They are now subject to the Sheikh of Mohammareh. Settled cultivators; Shiahs. The majority of the tribesmen are armed with rifles.

Bāwīyeh. On the left bank of the Āb-i-Gargar and lower Kārūn, and east of the Kārūn towards the Jerrāhi. Mostly nomadic. It appears that in 1908 between a half and a third of the fighting men

(who were perhaps some 2,000 in all) were armed with rifles. Subject to the Sheikh of Mohammareh.

In the Hawīzeh district, between the Kārūn and the Tigris, are the large groups of the *Beni Turūf* (20,000 souls?) and the *Beni Sāleh* (15,000 souls?), a branch of the *Beni Tamīm* (10,000 souls?), and some sections of the *Beni Lām*. These tribes are mainly semi-nomadic, grow rice, wheat, and barley, and own live-stock consisting, in different proportions, of cattle, buffaloes, sheep, donkeys, horses, and camels. (The Beni Turūf are said to own no sheep.) They are partly marsh-dwellers and partly range over the dry steppes. The majority of the Beni Tamīm are Sunnis, the other tribes are Shiahs. Before the war a large number of their fighting men were armed with rifles. The Beni Turūf are specially noted as turbulent robbers.

Anāfijeh. Mainly on the Dīz within 20 miles of its mouth, on the right bank of the Kārūn, and on the Āb-i-Shatait. Mostly semi-nomadic. Fighting-men estimated in 1908 at 1,140, the majority armed with rifles. The Anāfijeh pay tribute to the Sheikh of Mohammareh.

In northern Arabistan the chief Arab tribes are:

Kāthir (generally pronounced *Chāthir*). Along the Dīz above the Anāfijeh and between the Dīz and the Korkeh. They are mostly nomads. Their fighting men are all armed with rifles.

Beit Sa'ad. Along the Dīz, where they are interspersed with the Kāthir, and in the Miyanāb. They are mostly hut-dwellers. Their fighting men are armed with rifles, but few of them are mounted. They are under the paramount chieftainship of the sheikhs of the Kāthir, who are believed to be of Beit Sa'ad extraction.

Beni Lām. See p. 101.

(c) *North of Baghdad*

Dilaim (about 3,000 tents). On both sides of the Euphrates, from Fellūjeh almost to Ānah. Their paramount sheikh, 'Ali Suleiman, has a house and palm-gardens at Ramādiyeh. The Dilaim are Bedawis, own large numbers of sheep, but do not breed camels. They are generally friendly with the Amarat Anazeh and hostile to the Northern Shammār and to Beni Hasan and other Shiah tribes of Irak. Sunnis.

Anazeh. This people forms a great group of Bedawi tribes, probably the largest in the Arab world. They occupy 'the triangle of the Syrian Desert, which has its base on the Nefud, about lat. 30°,

and its apex near Aleppo, about lat. 36°'. In the eighteenth century the Anazeh pushed the northern branch of the Shammār out of the Syrian Desert across the Euphrates, and have remained at feud with that people. It is to be noticed that the Anazeh are not a confederation; their large sections are in general friendly to each other, but have their occasional bickerings, and the whole Anazeh people has not been known in recent times to act together. The Anazeh are great breeders of horses and camels. They are Sunnis.

Two great Anazeh tribes range about the middle Euphrates valley —the *Amarat* (about 3,000 tents), and the *Fed'an* (about 3.500 tents). Of these the Amarat are to be found in the Syrian Desert between Kerbela and Hīt, and also at times move across the Euphrates into the Jezīreh. Their paramount chief, Ibn Hadhdhal, owns palm-gardens at Ghazāzeh near Kerbela, at Baghdadīyeh above Hīt, and elsewhere on the Euphrates. The Fed'an (about 3,500 tents) range from Deir almost up to Aleppo, and along the lower Khabūr.

Other Anazeh tribes are the Sba' in the central Syrian Desert, and the Ruweilah and Wuld 'Ali on the western side of the desert from Homs and Hama in the north to the Wādi Sirhān on the south. The Ruweilah are Nuri Ibn Sha'lan's people, and they and their allies, the Wuld 'Ali and some smaller tribes, number about 7,000 tents.

The paramount sheikhs of the four largest Anazeh tribes, Ibn Hadhdhal of the Amarat, Ibn Muheid of the Fed'an, Ibn Sha'lan of the Ruweilah, and Ibn Smeir of the Wuld 'Ali, could each, it is believed, put into the field from 1,500 to 2,000 men armed and mounted on camels with a small proportion of horses. The Sba' sheikhs could muster about 1,000 men.

Northern Shammār (variously estimated, 'probably a total of 2,000 tents is not far from the true figure; but they have been put as high as 10,000 tents'). In the Jezīreh plains between the Tigris and Euphrates, and occasionally east of the Tigris about the Lesser Zāb. In summer their sections are to be found on the Khabūr and in the plains south of Nisibin and about El-Hadhr. In winter they may come down into the 'Aqarqūf region or farther south into northern Irak. The Shammār are the dominant group in the Jezīreh; they are at feud with the Anazeh and generally on bad terms with the Kurds to north and east. Their ruling house is that of Jerban. In the last quarter of the nineteenth century the paramount chieftainship was shared by two brothers of this house, Faris on the Khabūr and near Nisibin, and Ferhan whose head-quarters were at El-Hadhr on the Wādi Tartar. In 1911, when the Shammār were rounded up at El-Hadhr by Hasan Riza Bey, Asi, the eldest of Ferhan's sixteen

sons, was appointed by the Government paramount sheikh of all the Northern Shammār. Asi, who is now an old man, frequents the Mosul region, while his cousins, the sons of Abdul Kerim, Abdul Mehsin, and Mohammed, range on the Khabūr. The sons of Faris are said to be of not much account. Some of Ferhan's sons own land on the Tigris.

Among the half-settled Arab tribes of upper Mesopotamia are the following:

Jeghaifeh (2,000 tents). Euphrates valley, between Ānah and 'Irsi.

Āl Bū Kemal (2,000 tents). Euphrates valley, from 'Irsi to Meyyadīn.

Āl Bū Mueyt (1,500 houses) and *Āl Bū Hleyhil* (1,200 houses). Euphrates valley round Meyyadīn.

Baqqarah (1,200 tents). In summer near Deir ez-Zor and Qal'at en-Nejm; in winter about the Jebel 'Abdul Azīz. A despised tribe of *shweya* ('herdsmen'), paying tribute to the Shammār.

Afadleh (2,000 tents). In the region of Belikh. A *shweya* tribe paying tribute to the Shammār.

'Assaf (800-900 tents). In the region of the Belikh. A *shweya* tribe paying tribute to the Shammār.

Khamis (2,000 tents). In summer at Membij NE. of Aleppo, in winter at 'Ain el-Beidhā west of Sheddādi.

Qeys (2,500 families, 400 nomad). Near the Belikh, and in the Euphrates valley as far north as Jerablūs. A fairly powerful tribe.

Weldeh (1,000 tents). In summer at Qal'at Jabir about 25 miles below Meskeneh, in winter at Jubb Shair east of Serūj.

Tarfāwi (2,000 tents). East of the Belikh.

Hadīdiyin (1,500 tents). In summer between Nisibin and Urfeh, in winter in the Jebel 'Abdul Azīz. Pay tribute to the Shammār.

'Adwan (900 tents). Near Veirānshehr. Pay tribute to Shammār.

Jebūr. A numerous group. On the middle Tigris between Mosul and Samarra. There are also Jebūr in the neighbourhood of the Khabūr and Ras el-'Ain. They pay tribute to the Shammār.

Tai (2,000 fighting men). Partly near Nisibin, partly east of the Tigris about the Zābs. A powerful tribe.

'Ubeid. East of the Tigris between Tekrit and Kufri.

In the country between Baghdad and Samarra and between Baghdad and Kufri or Khanikin there are a number of minor Arab tribes, partly settled, partly nomadic. Of these may be mentioned the *Khazraj* round Beled and Sumeikeh, the *Biyat* in the neighbourhood of the Jebel Hamrīn west of Kufri, and the *Beni Tamīm*, who are found both east and west of the Tigris. There is a section of

the Beni Tamīm on and east of the Baghdad—Khanikin road between Shahreban and Qizil Ribat; their neighbours here are the *Beni Wais.*

LURS

Mainly in the hills from the Persian Gulf to the northern end of the Pusht-i-Kūh country, 30–40 miles south of Qasr-i-Shīrīn, where they border on the Kurds. In northern Arabistan and Behbehan Lurs and cross-breeds of Lur, Arab, and Persian blood are found in the plains under the hills. For Faili Lurs in towns on the Tigris and Shatt el-Hai see p. 108. The numbers of the Lurs are very variously estimated. Perhaps the hill-tribes who range within the limits of the area dealt with here, including the Kūhgalū, the Bakhtiyāri, the tribes who appear at certain seasons in the neighbourhood of Dizfūl, and the Faili Lurs of the Pusht-i-Kūh, do not amount to much more than a quarter of a million souls. But most estimates of these groups would make their total much greater.

Ethnologically the Lurs are related to the Persians and Kurds, though they would consider it an insult to be classed with the Kurds, whom they despise. They speak, in various dialects, a language of their own which is allied to Kurdish and Persian, and shows the effects of contact with the Arabs. The Lurs as a whole have occupied their country from time immemorial, though particular tribes may have shifted their ground within this country comparatively recently.

All these groups of mountain-tribes are at least mainly nomadic or semi-nomadic. They cultivate the ground, and often have permanent villages near their fields, but being mainly dependent on their livestock, they are obliged to move with the seasons between the high and the low pastures. They live in tents either all the year round or when they move from their villages with their flocks and herds. In general they bear the usual character of wild highlanders. The Lurs may possibly supply Mesopotamia with a useful quantity of labour. They are employed almost exclusively by the Anglo-Persian Oil Company, 'whose experience is that the Lur is more likely to stay continuously at the same job, and, therefore, better able to develop into a skilled workman than the Arab'.

(*a*) *Kūhgalū.* The bulk of the Kūhgalū are a little-known collection of mountain-tribes living at the southern end of the mountain-belt from south of Lurdagan to the Gulf. Their country is difficult of access, being cut off from the plains by a lofty range of limestone mountains. In dialect, manners, and customs they re-

semble the Bakhtiyāri, but they live a more secluded life than the latter, and are wilder and more lawless. They are more or less nomadic, but their annual migrations are shorter than those of the Bakhtiyāri, and are often restricted to movements between the valley-bottoms and the neighbouring mountain-slopes.

There are also Kūhgalū in the plains under the hills between Behbehan and the Gulf near Bandar Dilam. Some of these are nomadic, but most are sedentary.

The numbers of the non-sedentary Kūhgalū are quite uncertain. An estimate of 1910 gives them 25,000 families (100,000 souls ?), but this is probably an exaggeration.

Some of the Bahmai Kūhgalū in the Ramuz district are subject to the Bakhtiyāri chiefs. The main body of the Kūhgalū are hostile to the Bakhtiyāri.

(*b*) The *Bakhtiyāri* occupy a great area of very difficult mountain-country between the plains of Arabistan and the Isfahan province. From the northern borders of Kūhgalū their territory extends NW. to the upper Diz and the Faridan district. They are for the most part semi-nomadic, cultivating patches of crops, but moving every year considerable distances between their high pastures (e. g. on the northern or north-eastern side of the Garreh mountain) and the lower valleys bordering Arabistan. Recently their chiefs have acquired a good deal of fertile land in northern Arabistan; and settled Bakhtiyāri are to be found here as well as in parts of the lower hill-country. The Bakhtiyāri are of muscular build, but many of them are more or less broken by fever, rheumatism, and eye-diseases. They are described as having the qualities usual among highland tribesmen—loyalty to tribal ties, courtesy and hospitality, dirt, thievishness, and a capacity for outbreaks of savagery. Their chiefs have some tincture of civilization.

The title of the paramount chief of the Bakhtiyāri is Ilkhan; subordinate to him is the Ilbegi; and under these are a number of minor chiefs. The paramount chieftainship resides in two families—Ilkhani and Haji Ilkhani—belonging to the Haft Lang, the northern division of the Bakhtiyāri. The custom is that the Ilkhan be chosen from one of these families, the Ilbegi from the other.

Before the war the Bakhtiyāri chiefs farmed the tolls on the Lynch Road from Ahwāz to Isfahan, and had an agreement with Messrs. Lynch for the upkeep of the road and its bridges. They also had an agreement with the Anglo-Persian Oil Company by which they furnished a guard for the protection of the company's oil-fields and pipe-line.

The numbers of the Bakhtiyāri are unknown. An estimate gives

them 240,000 souls, another would make them three times as strong as the Kūhgalū, who are put at 100,000. Both these estimates in their different degrees are probably much exaggerated.

(*c*) *Lurs between Khurramābād and Dizfūl.* The nomadic Lurs of the highlands above Dizfūl are noted mule-breeders—especially the Sagwand. They cultivate patches of ground both in the lower and in the higher valleys. The Sagwand descend in winter to the plains about Dizfūl, where they have made themselves troublesome by their depredations. The country between Dizfūl and Khurramābād had been in a state of anarchy for some time before the war.

(*d*) The *Faili Lurs* are a group of tribes in Pusht-i-Kūh under the paramount chieftainship of the Vali of Pusht-i-Kūh. They cultivate the lower valleys in winter and spring, and have some permanent villages here, but almost the whole body move into the mountains in summer.

The summer quarters of the vali have usually been at Deh Bālā under the Manisht Kūh, on a track from Kut el-Amara to Kirmanshah, but in 1916, to make sure that his neutrality would not be compromised, he retired to a spot on the Mama River near Zarinābād. There are colonies of Faili Lurs to be found in the towns and villages on the lower Tigris (Amara, Kut el-Amara, Bogheileh) and on the Shatt el-Hai (Kut el-Hai, Qal'at Sikr).

KURDS

Distribution

North of Luristan (i. e. north of a line drawn from near Mandali eastwards to Kangavar) the Kurds are spread over all the hill-country which borders the Mesopotamian plain on the east and north, and along the edges of the plains under the hills. Within our area they are found:

(*a*) In the Persian province of Kirmanshah and in the hills of southern Turkish Kurdistan; some Kurdish tribes moreover spend a part of the year in the plains east of the middle Tigris, where they are in contact with the Arabs. (Beyond the eastern limit of our area the Kurds in Persian territory extend about as far as the line Miandūāb—Bijar—Kangavar.)

(*b*) In central Kurdistan, where they live interspersed with other elements of the population—Armenian and 'Syrian' Christian. Some of their tribes move between the high central Kurdish mountains, or the Van plateau, and the lower valleys and the plains north and north-east of Mosul and near Jezīret-ibn-'Omar.

(*c*) In the country between the eastern Taurus ranges, forming the northern limit of our area, and the great plains of the Jezīreh. Here also they form a part of a mixed population, which includes Armenians, 'Syrian' Christians (Jacobites), Turkomans, &c. Kurdish tribes descend to the northern edges of the Jezīreh plains for some months of the year and come into contact with the Arabs. (Beyond the eastern Taurus the Kurds are spread over the Armenian plateau, and are found in eastern Anatolia.)

The Kurds within our area probably number less than 500,000.

Race, Language, Modes of Life, Characteristics

The Kurds are mainly of Iranian stock, but in some regions they include a good deal of wreckage and cross-breeds of other races (Aramaean, Arab, &c.). and the name covers a very heterogeneous collection of tribes. The race is on the whole least mixed in southern Kurdistan (Turkish and Persian), though even here on the Turkish side there is known to be a certain amount of Arab blood in some of the Kurdish communities.

The main body of the Kurds speak many dialects of Kermanji, a language allied to Persian. The Zaza group of tribes, which speaks what may be regarded as a language of its own, though of Iranian type, is found mainly north of the eastern Taurus. Mixtures of Kermanji and Aramaic (Syriac) and of Kermanji and Arabic occur here and there.

The Kurds outside the towns are partly nomads or semi-nomads, and partly settled cultivators. Almost all are tribally organized, and the sedentary as well as the nomad communities are usually addicted to tribal feuds, raiding, and general lawlessness.

Among the nomads and semi-nomads there is the movement between the lower and the higher grazing-grounds which is usual among pastoral hill-tribes. Sometimes they move considerable distances, e. g. from the neighbourhood of Jezīret-ibn-'Omar up to the Van plateau. The tribes who winter in the plains east of the Tigris mostly go up in summer to the Persian plateau (e. g. to the Wazneh district).

Many of the sedentary Kurds are industrious cultivators.

There is a Kurdish element in the population of most of the towns in the hill-country, and sometimes, e. g. at Suleimāniyeh, Köi Sanjaq, Rowanduz, Amadiyeh, Bitlis, it predominates.

Great differences of character are found among the Kurdish tribes. Some are described as very low sets of thieves, e. g. some of the tribes frequenting central Kurdistan and others in the Qarajeh Dāgh. But the Kurds of most tribes—nomad or settled—though they may

be brigands and murderers, are fine men in their way, especially perhaps where the Iranian blood is purest or mixed only with good Arab blood. It is remarkable that Englishmen who have travelled in Kurdistan generally show a strong liking for the typical Kurd. The other races of Mesopotamia are inclined to look down on him as a stupid and dangerous animal; and the Kurd is often strangely ready to admit his mental inferiority.

Yet the Kurd often shows considerable practical shrewdness. He has not the subtlety and imagination of the Arab, but of the two he is the more industrious and capable worker. In danger he is steadier and cooler than the Arab; he has a better physique (the Kurd is generally of big-boned, muscular build; the small, wiry Zazas form a special type which hardly appears within our area). Altogether, compared with the Arab, the Kurd has greater physical and mental stamina. But he is also more callous than the Arab, and is extraordinarily reckless about taking human life. He is capable at times of extreme brutality; and of that and of his courage and simplicity the Turkish Government has taken advantage. On the other hand he is often jovial and good-humoured, hospitable, and in some ways frank and loyal, though in war and brigandage he is little hampered by scruples of good faith. The best Kurdish tribes treat their women remarkably well, and respect them.

As fighters the Kurds are generally brave and determined. The semi-nomadic Kurds are admirable horsemen, and it has been thought that they might provide material for an excellent mounted infantry.

The Kurd has the makings of a good cultivator and a good workman. He has generally neither the good nor the bad qualities that are likely to make a successful trader.

In religion the Kurds of this area are mostly Sunnis, but there are some Shiah tribes among them. (See Chapter VIII.)

Kurdish Tribes

Of the many Kurdish tribes or tribal groups within our area the following are some of the more important:

(*a*) *Between Luristan and the Line Bitlis—Sairt—Jezīret-ibn-'Omar*

(The tribes in this section are arranged approximately in order from south to north.)

Kalhur (3,000 horsemen ?). In Persian territory; summer in mountains NW. of Pusht-i-Kūh, winter in plains of Zohāb and Qasr-i-Shīrīn. Mainly nomadic, but some sections are sedentary. There are twelve divisions of Kalhur. A powerful tribe.

Sinjābi (1,000 horsemen ?). Mahīdesht district; nomads and noted mule-breeders.

Gurān (3,000 horsemen ?). In the country NW. of the Mahīdesht plain, towards the plain of Zohāb where the nomad sections of the tribe winter.

Jaff (4,000 horsemen ?). This group winters in the country east of Kufri and about Khanikin, and for the summer moves northwards *via* Halebjeh to the Penjevin district; a part of it has been in the habit of going farther and crossing the frontier into Persian territory, where it pillaged the country-side. Some sections (e. g. Sadani and Badaghi) occasionally winter west of the Diyāleh between Chaman Köprü and Qara Bulaq. The Jaff group, formerly very powerful, is in a state of disintegration, the family of its paramount chiefs (the Begzādeh of the Pushtamala section) having lost almost all influence. The family still owns considerable property in Suleimāniyeh, Halebjeh, Penjevin, and Qizil Ribat. The depredations of the Jaff were the cause of much friction between Turkey and Persia.

The *Bajlan*, on the left bank of the Diyāleh north of Qasr-i-Shīrīn, formerly belonged to the Jaff group, but are now separated from it owing to blood-feuds, which are still kept up. The Bajlan used to furnish a guard for the Chīah Surkh oil-wells.

Hamawand (2,000 souls ?). Between Kirkuk and Suleimāniyeh. The centre of the Hamawand country is the Baziyan valley in the Qara Dāgh. Semi-nomadic. Very famous as raiders and fighters.

Dāūdiyeh (4,000 families ?). In the plains east of the Tigris, on the banks of the Lesser Zāb. Warlike semi-nomads.

D'sdiyeh (or 'Dizzai'? 5,000 families ?). Between Altun Köprü and Erbil and about the Qara Chok Dāgh; head-quarters at Makhmur. Mainly sedentary.

Shūān (15,000 souls ?). In the hills north of Kirkuk and east of Altun Köprü. Apparently a strong but fairly quiet tribe.

Sheikh Bezeini (4,000 families ?). Villagers in country NNE. of Altun Köprü; move to Wazneh Pass in summer. 'A great and warlike tribe, turbulent and fierce.' Noted robbers. Make Martini-Henry rifles.

Girdi (6,000 families ?). East of Erbil, about Ashqaf Saqqā; move to Wazneh district in summer. A powerful tribe.

There is a sedentary branch of the Girdi SW. of Shemsdinan.

Khoshnao (2,000 families ?). About Shakhlawa. Sedentary; are said to work for the Girdi and Sheikh Bezeini and to be unwarlike. There are apparently other Khoshnao south of Rowanduz about Belassan.

Mengur (2,000 families ?). Lahjan plain, Pishdir plain, Raniyeh

plain, and, in summer, Wazneh highlands. Warlike semi-nomads. (See below under *Bilbas.*)

Mamash (2,000 families ?). About Passova (NE. of Lahjan plain), between Suj Bulaq and Lesser Zāb, and in Raniyeh plain ; in summer, at Wazneh. (See below under *Bilbas.*)

Piran (900 families ?). Lahjan and Raniyeh plains and Wazneh highlands. Semi-nomadic. Warlike robbers.

Pishdir. In mountains south of Ser Desht ; descend to Marga plain ; a small tribe, but with a reputation for being fierce and warlike.

Bilbas. Given by Sykes as a semi-nomadic tribe of 400 families, on the Turco-Persian frontier near Raniyeh. In *Mil. Report on E. T. A.*, vol. iii, 'Bilbas' is apparently used as a general term for a number of tribes on both sides of the frontier in the region of Wazneh ; and the *agha* of a section of Mengur (see above), at Elwatan, is described as 'theoretically head of all the Bilbas'. The Mamash, who in *Mil. Report on E. T. A.* are placed under the heading 'Bilbas Kurds', are said by Soane to be a section of the Mukri of the Suj Bulāq district.

Baliki (1,000 rifles ?). East of Rowanduz.

Pirastini (1,100 families ?). North-east of Rowanduz. Sedentary.

Surkhi (300 families ?). West of Rowanduz on both sides of the Great Zāb. Partly sedentary, partly nomadic.

Baradost (2,000 families ?). In the Baradost district some twenty-five miles NNW. of Rowanduz.

Shirwan (1,800 families ?). North-westerly neighbours of the Baradost. Sedentary ; warlike.

Zebar (30 villages ?). In the district of that name west of the Great Zāb and of Baradost. Warlike. At feud with the Sheikhs of Berzan.

Berzan (750 families ?). North of Zebar on the left bank of the Zāb. Warlike. The Sheikhs of Berzan are holy and therefore influential.

Shemsdinan (20 villages ?). In the Shemsdinan district, under the Sheikh of Neri, who derives considerable importance from his hereditary holiness.

Heriki. A large, widely-scattered group of nomads. Sections of the Heriki range in the country west, north, and east of Shemsdinan. Branches of the Heriki are found near Mosul and also about Erzerum. The Heriki are apparently rather a low class of Kurds. They generally move in small detachments.

Shekak (6,000 families ?). On the Persian frontier north of Diza. A confederation of several semi-nomadic tribes. A southern, nomad

branch of the Shekak ranges between Baradost and the Persian frontier.

Pinianishli. A large group, the head of a confederacy of tribes, in the Hakkiari highlands east of the Great Zāb valley.

Hartoshi. A large and powerful group, mainly consisting of nomads, who range between the Zakho district, on the Mosul plains, and the highlands south of Lake Van. According to Sykes the Sharafan are the largest section of the Hartoshi (3,000 families) and 'descend south of 'Aqreh in spring'. According to *Mil. Report on E. T. A.* the Sharafan number only 150 tents, and the largest sections are the Gavdan (300 tents) and the Mamkhoran (15 villages). The *Gavdan* are found in the valley of that name, and also, in summer, on the Maidān-i-Lalishi, and, in spring, near Zakho. They are said by Sykes to have had a bad reputation as thieves. The Mamkhoran (in the valley of that name and, in summer, on the Farishi Yaila) are described by Sykes as 'very warlike nomads'.

Miran. A large tribe of nomads who move between the Mesopotamian plains, near Jezīret-ibn-'Omar, and Lake Van. The Miran, who have a bad reputation among their neighbours, were at the head of a large confederation in central Kurdistan until their chief, Mustafa Pasha, was slain in battle with the Goyan.

Goyan (1,500 families?). In the Goyan valley near the Hazil valley. A strong and warlike tribe under a number of small *aghas.* Partly sedentary, partly nomadic.

Shernakhli (600 families?). A sedentary tribe near Shernakh, said to be a branch of the Goyan.

Atmanikan (5,000 families?). A wealthy nomad tribe moving between Til and the Mush plain, and frequenting the Bitlis valley.

(*b*) *Northern Jezīreh*

Milli. A great group of tribes which moves annually between the Qarājeh Dagh and the Mesopotamian plains near Veirān Shehr. It can probably put into the field a few thousand mounted men, of whom a fair proportion would be armed with Mausers.

Ibrāhim Pasha, the late chief of the Milli, made himself the head of a great confederacy which included some Arab tribes (e.g. the Adwan, reckoned at 1,000 guns). In Ibrāhim's day this confederacy was said to contain 11,000 men armed either with rifles or flintlocks. Of these fighting men 8,000 were mounted, and from them were furnished three regiments of *hamidiyeh* (irregular cavalry).

In 1908 the Committee of Union and Progress determined to break the power of Ibrāhim Pasha, and stirred up trouble in his

confederacy during his absence in Damascus. He was hurrying homewards when he died—'probably from natural causes'.

He left six sons, who were thrown into prison by the Turks. The eldest, Abdul Hamid (generally known as Hamud), died in captivity; the others—Mamu (now about 30), Ismail (28), Khalil Pasha (26), Abdul Rahman (18), and Tama (16)—were at length released, and a part of their father's estates was restored to them.

Beraziyeh. A large group of tribes in the Sajur district, including nomadic, semi-nomadic, and sedentary sections. They have a reputation for brigandage. Partly Arabized; many wear Arab dress and speak Arabic.

Qaragechi. Between Veirān Shehr and Diarbekr. Nomads. Reported by Sykes to belong to the Beraziyeh confederacy and to contain about 500 families. The *Mil. Report on E. T. A.*, vol. iv (1904), reckons the Qaragechi at 3,650 guns, about two-thirds of their fighting force being mounted men. It gives their rifles as 250, but this number may have greatly increased in recent years. The tribe is warlike and turbulent.

Miran. See above, p. 113.

OTHER GROUPS

Turks and Turkomans. (*a*) In the cities of Diarbekr and Urfeh, and in the districts between Diarbekr and the Euphrates there is a Turkish-speaking element in the population. There are apparently some nomad Turkomans in the Diarbekr vilayet.

(*b*) There are settled Turkomans west of Mosul at Tel A'far, and also in the plains east of Mosul.

(*c*) There is a settled Turkoman population in a narrow strip of country along the western border of the southern Kurdish hills, extending from the neighbourhood of Altun Köprü through Kirkuk to Tūz Khurmatli. They form the main part of the urban population at Altun Köprü and Kirkuk.

(*d*) In some of the towns of Irak (and especially, it seems, in Baghdad) there are to be found persons claiming to be Turks, often without justification.

(*e*) There are a few nomad Turkomans in northern Arabistan.

Syrian Christians. (*a*) *Chaldaeans* (including both the Arabic-speaking and the Syrian-speaking sections, and Chaldaean Uniates and Chaldaean 'Nestorians', see p. 132). These are found chiefly in the country north and east of Mosul, in the plains and lower hills, and in the Hakkiari mountains of central Kurdistan, on both sides of the Zāb valley (and eastwards, beyond the limits of our area, in

Persian territory in the Urmia—Salmas district). There are also Chaldaean communities in several towns—Baghdad, Mosul, 'Aqreh, Köi Sanjaq, Kirkuk, Amadiyeh, Zakho, Jezīret-ibn-'Omar, Sairt Bāsh Qal'ah, Mardīn, Diarbekr.

(*b*) *Jacobites.* These are to be found principally in the country north and east of Jezīret-ibn-'Omar, on the Tur Abdin plateau, along its southern foot, and in the neighbourhood of Mardīn, the headquarters of the sect. They are found in several towns besides Mardīn, e. g. Urfeh, Diarbekr, Midiat, Nisibin, Jezīret-ibn-'Omar, Mosul, Sairt, Bitlis, and Baghdad. Jacobites and Chaldaeans overlap to some extent, but on the whole the Jacobites are the more westerly, the Chaldaeans the more easterly group.

Possibly both groups together numbered within our area something between 100,000 and 200,000 before the present war. But the 'Nestorian' Chaldaean mountaineers, who may have been somewhere about 50,000 strong in 1914, lost terribly in 1915, and a large part of them had to flee to Persian territory. The Jacobites suffered a good deal in certain districts.

The Syrian Christians probably represent in the main an Aramaic population which lived in upper Mesopotamia before the Arab conquest. But in the plains and foot-hills they are much mixed with Arab blood and speak Arabic. In some of the villages of the Tur Abdin, and probably elsewhere, they speak Kurdish. Aramaic (Syriac) is the language of the 'Nestorian' Chaldaeans of the central Kurdish mountains.

The Chaldaeans and Jacobites of the plains and lower hill-country are mainly a rural population of sedentary village-dwelling cultivators. In the towns they are traders and artisans. They work on the Tigris rafts between Diarbekr and Mosul, and Chaldaeans of Tel Kaif, a village north of Mosul, used to form the crews of the river-steamers on the lower Tigris in Irak.

The 'Nestorians' of the Hakkiari country are tribally organized, sedentary mountaineers of the ordinary type. They are under the paramount chieftainship of their Patriarch, Mār Shimūm, who before the war resided at Kochannes near Julāmerk. His Nestorian tribes occupied the neighbourhood of the Zāb valley from the Tiari district, some ten or twelve miles north of Amadiyeh, to the neighbourhood of the Harefta Dāgh above Julāmerk. They are a brave and warlike people, who have fought well against their Kurdish neighbours and enemies, and recently against the Turks.

It may be noted that 'Syrian' is generally used as equivalent to Christian in upper Mesopotamia.

Armenians. Within our area there was, in 1914, a considerable

population of Armenians in the northern part of the central Kurdish highlands south of Lake Van, and on the south side of the eastern Taurus in the country north of Diarbekr. The Armenians here formed a southward extension of the main body of the race. There were large Armenian elements in the population of Bitlis, Sairt, Diarbekr, and Urfeh ; there was an Armenian colony at Mardīn ; and there were some thousands of Armenians in Baghdad.

The total number of Armenians in upper Mesopotamia in 1914 was probably something between one hundred and two hundred thousand. On the massacres, deportations, and flight of Armenians in 1915, and on the introduction of Armenian deportees into the plains of the Jezīreh and the middle Euphrates valley see p. 88.

The Armenian villagers and cultivators who are (or were) to be found in the highlands south of Lake Van, in the eastern Taurus ranges, among the southern foot-hills of those mountains, and in the lowlands of Diarbekr, were peasants. The urban Armenians were merchants, shopkeepers, &c. The typical Armenian of the towns was an astute man of business and an ardent nationalist, who had an unfortunate faculty for making himself disliked by the Government and his neighbours.

Jews.—There are Jewish communities in most of the towns, notably at Baghdad, where they seem to form the largest racial group.

The Jews are merchants, usurers, and shopkeepers. The rich Jewish merchants at Baghdad form a very wealthy and influential community, and have to a great extent eclipsed their Mohammedan and Oriental Christian rivals. But the mass of Jews in the Mesopotamian towns are poor and engaged in very petty business.

On Jewish places of pilgrimage in Irak see pp. 134–5.

Persians. There are Persian communities in the towns of Arabistan. In Irak they are to be found in many of the towns, but are concentrated especially at the Shiah holy cities: thus at Kerbela they form the majority of the population, at Nejef about a third. At Baghdad there are some thousands of them, and they occur in the towns of Kurdistan, where the most important Persian colony on the Turkish side of the border seems to be that at Suleimāniyeh.

Yezidis. Their main strength is in the Jebel Sinjar, which they have to themselves. They occur between the Jebel Sinjar and Mosul. There are a good many Yezidi villages in the country east and north of Mosul. At Sheikh Adi, some twenty-seven miles north of Mosul, is the principal Yezidi shrine.

The Yezidis speak a dialect of Kurdish, and probably have more

or less Kurdish blood in them, but they form a very distinctly marked group, owing to their peculiar religion, which has cut them off from their neighbours and has made them disliked and feared by Moslem and Christian alike (see pp. 133–4). They are mostly settled cultivators, though there are some Yezidi nomads between Mosul and the Jebel Sinjar. Travellers generally describe them as a harmless, peaceable folk, but the Yezidis of the Jebel Sinjar appear to be a rather wild set, capable of fighting in their own defence and of raiding out into the plains, as they are said to have done in the present war.

The Yezidis of the Sinjar are organized in a number of tribes. Of these the most important at present appear to be:

The Bakura (under Mahmud e-Uz or el-Bajwal), who number only about 100 fighting-men, but are renowned for their fierceness. Their chief is said to control the northern part of the Sinjar, perhaps by having the Jowana (400 men) and the Aldaki (100 men) as his allies.

The Kiran (under Kalil e Kesum), numbering about 600 fighting men. The head-quarters of their chief are at Sukeni (Sekenik?) in the south-west part of the Sinjar, and he is said to control the southern part of the region.

The Samukha (under Mato Lalo or Ahmed Lalo) in about six villages in the plain to north-west of the mountain. Their strength is estimated at 1,200 guns. Their chief guards the Sinjar on the west.

According to another account the paramount chief of the Sinjar Yezidis is Hamo Sharo, who is said to be about 85 years old and to live at Millik in the centre of the Jebel Sinjar. (He may be the Hamo Sharo mentioned elsewhere as chief of the Fakir tribe.) The same account gives the following Yezidi tribes of the Sinjar country as important:

'Mairi Khan' (possibly the Mihrkā, 200 guns, east of the Sinjar range); chief, Sheikh Dāūd.

'Taraf' (possibly the tribe called elsewhere the Jefra, 50 guns, on the north side of the mountains); chief, Husein Birjis.

'Hassi Khan' (the Haska, 200 guns, on the north side of the range); chief, Ami.

Samukha: see above.

'Kharan'(?); chief, Khidhr.

Mandi Khan (possibly the Mendika, 300 guns, on Soluk Chai); chief, Jirdo. This tribe is said to be Mohammedan.

Hababa (400 guns, in the middle of the range); chiefs, Adhi Ismail and 'Ali Khidhr. (According to another account an 'Audi Ismail' is chief of the Delka, 100 guns, east of Beled Sinjar.)

Sabians. In lower Irak, chiefly at Nāsirīyeh. They are said not

to number more than two or three thousand. On their religion see p. 134. They are craftsmen—boat-builders, goldsmiths, &c.

Circassians. Very few are left of the Circassian Mohammedans settled in Mesopotamia by the Turkish Government after the Russian war of 1877–8. Their numbers have been reduced by their failure to adapt themselves to the climate and by quarrels with their neighbours. There are small Circassian villages at Ras el-'Ain and at Raqqah. There appear to be a few Circassians in the vilayet of Diarbekr. They are a high-spirited, warlike people.

Indians, Afghans, Pathans. Mostly at Basra, Mohammareh, Baghdad, Kerbela, and Nejef. They have been noticed on p. 95.

Unimportant groups are: the *Shabbaks*, of unknown origin, living east of the middle Tigris, apparently in the region of Erbil; they are said to number about 500 families (see further p. 135); the *Bajwan* east of Mosul, estimated at 800 families; and the *Gipsies* (*Nowar*) near Hovek and Urfeh.

Lastly, in the Diarbekr vilayet there are a few *Qizilbāsh* communities. The Qizilbāsh, most of whom live on the Armenian plateau and in eastern Anatolia, speak a dialect of Kurdish. Their origin is unknown.

Europeans. The total number of Europeans resident in the country before the war was perhaps between two and three hundred; they were missionaries (French, British, and American), representatives of commercial enterprises and engineers (chiefly British and German), consuls, and archaeologists. The missionaries were principally in upper Mesopotamia; the Europeans engaged in business or engineering were mostly in Irak and Arabistan. The principal European business communities were at Baghdad, Basra, and Mohammareh. Except among the missionaries, there were hardly any Europeans who were permanently settled in the country.

Principal Languages

In lower Mesopotamia Arabic, Lur dialects, Kurdish dialects, and Persian are spoken, the distribution of languages following the distribution of races described above.

Arabic naturally predominates in Irak and southern Arabistan, but Persian has considerable importance for commerce, especially of course in Arabistan and Kirmanshah.

In upper Mesopotamia, Arabic and Kurdish are the principal languages; of these Arabic is far the more important for commercial

purposes, being not only generally spoken in the plains of the Jezīreh, but being also more or less in use and understood at such trade-centres in the northern hills as Urfeh, Mardīn, Diarbekr, Sairt. It is of course the predominant language at Mosul. At the trade-centre of Suleimāniyeh, while Kurdish is generally spoken, Persian is widely understood.

Various dialects of Turkish are spoken by the Turks and Turkomans.

Other languages are Armenian and Syriac. The latter is spoken by the Christian tribes in the highlands of central Kurdistan. See above, p. 115.

It may be noticed that there are marked forms of patois here and there, the result of a mixture of languages. For example, Shushtar and Dizfūl has each its own speech, apparently compounded of Arabic, Lur, and Persian.

As regards European languages, the commercial and social predominance of French in other parts of the Turkish Empire has its influence on Mesopotamia. There is a certain acquaintance with French to be found among members of the business class in the chief trade-centres. The higher Turkish officials usually had some, though often a very imperfect, knowledge of this language; and it has been spread by the educational work of French Catholic missions as well as by Jewish schools. Before the war some knowledge of English was possessed by persons—chiefly Christians of northern Mesopotamia—who had visited America or had been educated in American mission schools. A few men of business were acquainted with English, but it seems to have been much less widely known than French, even where, as at Baghdad, British commercial influence was predominant. Since 1914 acquaintance with English has naturally spread among the population of the area occupied by the British.

Education

While Kerbela and Nejef are flourishing seats of Shiah religious learning, the general level of education among the Mohammedans of Mesopotamia is very low. In the elementary schools attached to the mosques the pupils are taught to repeat, read, and copy the Koran. In the Holy Cities are more advanced religious schools. Turkish Government schools (mostly primary) existed in and near some of the principal towns. But in subjects other than Moslem theology and religious law the most important educational work done in the

country has been that of the mission schools (American, French Catholic, and English), whose influence was exercised chiefly on the Oriental Christians. There are also Jewish, Armenian, and Chaldaean schools. Thus the native Christians and Jews have been considerably better educated for practical purposes, such as business, than the Mohammedans.

In the area occupied by the British the organization and extension of education have been taken in hand.

CHAPTER VIII

RELIGIONS

Islam—Christian sects—Yezidis—Sabians—Jews—Qizilbāsh and Shabbaks.

Islam

The preponderance of Islam in Mesopotamia rests not only on the great numerical superiority of Moslems over non-Moslems, but also on the historic part played by Irak in the development of the Mohammedan power and faith. It was here that the events occurred which gave birth to the Shiah schism, here too was the seat of the Baghdad Caliphate, and here—at Kerbela, Kazimain, Nejef, and Kūfeh—are shrines venerated at least equally with Mecca and Medina in Shiah Moslem estimation.

Tenets

The tenets of Islam, which claims to be a divinely revealed religion, given to the world by Mohammed as the last of a succession of inspired messengers, may be briefly summarized under (*a*) *Doctrine*, (*b*) *Worship*.

(*a*) The doctrine and practices are to be found in (i) the Book of God—the Koran—which was sent down from the highest heaven to Gabriel in the lowest, who revealed it in turn by sections to Mohammed; (ii) the collections of tradition (*hadith*) containing the sayings and manners of life (*sunna*) of the Prophet; (iii) the use of analogy (*qiyas*) as applied to (i) and (ii); (iv) the universal consent (*ijma*) of the believers. Orthodox Islam recognizes the Koran as the work not of Mohammed, but of God; but Moslem theologians recognized some revelations as inconsistent with others, and so developed the doctrine of *nasikh* and *mansukh* (abrogation), whereby it is taught that in certain definite cases a later revelation supersedes an earlier. Upon the nature of God Islam is very explicit. God is one and universal from the beginning, His unity being emphasized as against the Christian Trinity. The cosmology of Mohammedanism is too elaborate to be here reproduced, but some reference to its ethics is essential. These latter are based on belief (*iman*), good works, complete surrender to God's will (*islam*) as the necessary condition of religious life, and fear of His judgement. The eschatology of the

Koran includes resurrection, last judgement, paradise, and hell. *Qiyas* is the process by which a belief or practice is justified on the ground that something similar is expressly enjoined by the Koran, tradition, or *ijma*. *Ijma* is the universal consent, which is held to justify practices or beliefs, although they are not warranted by the Koran or tradition, and may be inconsistent with the teaching of one or both. Law in Mohammedan countries is in theory essentially religious, based on the Koran and the traditions (see further on this point pp. 146–7).

(*b*) The acts of worship enjoined by Islam are five in number: (i) the recital of the creed; (ii) observance of the five daily prayers; (iii) fast in the month of Ramadan; (iv) giving of alms; (v) the pilgrimage to Mecca. The *creed* ('there is no God but God, Mohammed is the messenger of God') is the main article of belief, to be professed without hesitation at any time until death. The *prayers* consist of prescribed ejaculations, petitions, and recital of parts of the Koran, accompanied by certain gestures of the body, at the following five stated times: dawn, just after noon, before sunset, just after sunset, and after the day has closed. The worshipper must be in a state of ceremonial cleanness, for which certain ablutions are required. In order to prevent contact with anything unclean, prayer is usually performed on a praying-carpet. The extent to which this obligation is discharged varies greatly in different places, and with social and other conditions: it is on the whole more scrupulously observed in the towns than in the desert, and by the poor than by the rich. Where prayer is offered in assembly, there is a leader who repeats the formulae in front of the congregation. The *mosque*, where public prayer is offered, has one or more minarets, from the top of which the *muezzin* call the devout to prayer at the appointed time. Attendance at public prayer is theoretically obligatory on Fridays at noon, when a short sermon of about 5 minutes' length is delivered. Hostility may be aroused by Christians who at any time enter, or show curiosity in, a mosque; this applies especially to the principal Shiah mosques. The *fast* is in the month Ramadan, 'wherein the Koran was revealed': it is perhaps borrowed from the Jews or Eastern Christians. By fasting is meant abstinence from food, solid and liquid, and from smoking from sunrise to sunset. Owing to the fact that the Moslem calendar is lunar, Ramadan falls at different periods in different years. In 1919 it will last from May 31 to June 30. The fast, when it comes in summer, is a cause of great suffering to those who observe it, who are the same class as those who perform their prayer with regularity. So far as is possible the inconvenience is met by sleeping in daytime. The fast is thought

not to be incumbent on those who are travelling or on service, though they should compensate for such neglect by fasting at another period of the year. The day which follows the end of Ramadan is one of the great feasts of the year, the other being the tenth day of the month of pilgrimage. That month in 1919 will begin on August 28. Other feasts are not common to the whole Moslem world, but are merely sectarian. *Alms* are of two kinds, legal and determined (*zakat*), and voluntary (*sadaqat*). The *pilgrimage* (*Hajj*) is to be performed once by every Moslem 'if he is able', that is, if he can provide or obtain the means to support himself on pilgrimage and his family during his absence, and if he is physically capable.

Food and Drink Taboos.—The pig is as much of an abomination to the Moslem as to the Jew, from whom this taboo seems to have been taken over by Islam. The normal sentiment is also very strongly against the use of wines, spirits, &c., though there is a certain amount of laxity in this matter among Moslems accustomed to European ways. The use of tobacco is very widespread, though it has been condemned by certain of the more recent sects, and opinion in religious circles has recently been setting against it.

Denominations

The two chief denominations of Islam are the Sunni and the Shiah sects. In the southern part of our area—that is, in Irak, Arabistan, and the neighbouring Persian highlands—the very great majority of Moslems are Shiahs. In the north—that is, in the Jezīreh and in Turkish Kurdistan—the great majority of Moslems are Sunnis (the Arabs of the Jezīreh are practically all Sunnis; there are some Shiah tribes among the Kurds). In Baghdad there are more Sunnis than Shiahs. Persia is Shiah, Arabia Sunni.

In northern Irak are the Shiah holy cities, the objects of Shiah pilgrimage from all parts of the world, and especially from Persia and India. (See immediately below and p. 125.)

(*a*) *Shiah Sect*

The division between Sunni and Shiah is based primarily on political theory. The Sunnis regard as legitimate successors of the Prophet the first three Caliphs who ruled as heads of the Moslem community, whereas the Shiahs hold that they and all the Caliphs who followed them were usurpers, the rightful succession lying in their view with 'Ali, the cousin and son-in-law of the Prophet, and with 'Ali's descendants. 'Ali himself, who was assassinated at Kūfeh, his son Hasan, who is said to have been murdered at the instigation

of the Caliph Mo'awīyeh at Medina, and above all Husein, the second son of 'Ali, who with his followers was slain at Kerbela by the troops of Yazid, Mo'awīyeh's successor, are venerated by the Shiahs as martyrs and even as semi-divine. These persons, in the sentiment if not in the theory of the Shiahs, almost take precedence of the Prophet himself. Shiah religious feeling centres especially round the story of Husein's death, which is commemorated on the 10th Moharrem, the first month, which in 1919 will begin on September 26. The inspiration and semi-divine powers that belonged to the true head of the Moslem world were continued in a series of *Imāms* or *Mahdis*, the last of whom is believed to have disappeared mysteriously either at Nejef or at Samarra in A.D. 873. This Imām, or a reincarnation of Husein, is expected to return some day to establish the true faith among men. Meanwhile the Shiahs may give their adhesion to the constituted temporal authorities of the countries in which they live. The Sultan of Turkey may be obeyed as Sultan, though not as Caliph.

The Shiah system of belief, which arose in Irak and spread to Persia and India, has accumulated round it much mystical theology and philosophy which are abhorrent to Sunnis as perverting or, in their view, contradicting the revelation of the Koran. The sects also differ in a number of points connected with ceremonial: e. g. whereas the Sunnis recognize meat slaughtered by Jews and Christians as lawful, the Shiahs do not.

Shiah Shrines in Mesopotamia.—The Shiah shrines of Mesopotamia may be divided into three groups: (i) those connected with the death of 'Ali, (ii) those connected with the battle of Kerbela, and (iii) those connected with Imāms later than Husein.

(i) *Sacred places associated with the death of 'Ali.*—The spot where 'Ali received his mortal wound is still shown at Kūfeh, enclosed by iron gratings, in the great mosque 1½ mile from the present town. His reputed tomb is at Nejef, though some authorities maintain that he was buried where he fell, at Kūfeh. The tomb rises in the centre of the town of Nejef, and surpasses in splendour even the shrine of Husein at Kerbela. The town about it contains a population of 30,000, most of whom live on doles from pilgrims.

(ii) *Sacred places connected with the battle of Kerbela.*—The authenticity of the shrines at Kerbela is not disputed. They are five in number:

1. The tomb of Husein, called Dargah Hazrat Husein, stands in the old town towards its western end. It consists of a large enclosure (*Sahn*) with seven entrances, in the midst of which stands the *Haram* or sanctuary proper, surmounted by a lofty dome. The 72 martyrs (*Shuhada*), who died with Husein, are buried in the same place.

2. The tomb of 'Abbās, half-brother of Husein, is situated farther east. It is similar to, but smaller than, Husein's.

3. The *Khaimahgah* marks the site of Husein's tent before the battle. It is small and unpretentious.

4. The tomb of Aun, Husein's sister's son, is 7 miles NE. of Kerbela on the road to Museyib.

5. The tomb of Hurr, who joined Husein from the ranks of his enemies just before the battle, is 3 miles to the north-west.

(iii) *Sacred places connected with the later Imāms.*—At Kazimain is the burial-place of the 7th and 9th Imāms, Musa-bin-Tafar and Mohammed-bin-'Ali (*Kadhim*, 'the self-constrained'). The tombs of the 10th and 11th Imāms, 'Ali-bin-Mohammed and Hasan-bin-'Ali, are to be seen at Samarra, where also a well is exhibited, said to be the scene of the disappearance of Mohammed-bin-Hasan el-Mahdi, 12th Imām. Other minor shrines are those of Abul Qasim and Seyyid Ibrāhim at Museyib; Hamzah and Yasim at Hilla; and Ibn el-Hasan, the Banat el-Hasan, and Ibn el-Hamzah near Tawarīj.

The management of these Shiah shrines is vested in the *Auqaf* or Department of Religious Endowments. At each principal shrine there is a custodian (*kiliddar*), chief attendant (*sarkhidmah*), and lesser attendants (*khadim*). The Auqaf are responsible for the finances of the shrines, which are supported partly by large endowments in the shape of lands, houses, and shops, partly by special contributions; and for the sacred treasure, the value of which is not known even approximately to outsiders.

Shiah Pilgrimages.—A pilgrimage to the shrines of Irak is considered by Shiahs to be highly meritorious, more especially because it is voluntary, instead of being obligatory like the *Hajj* to Mecca or Medina. There is no fixed time for these pilgrimages, though certain days of the Mohammedan year are considered more auspicious than others for the performance of the ceremonies prescribed for visitors to the holy places; consequently pilgrims arrive and depart at all seasons of the year, preferably however in winter, between November and April. Two routes are commonly followed: pilgrims from north-western Persia cross the frontier at Khanikin; those from southern Persia, India, and the Persian Gulf arrive by sea at Basra. In ordinary circumstances 150,000–200,000 pilgrims may visit Mesopotamia in a year. Probably far more have made the journey in recent years, and there is also an immense pilgrim traffic from within the bounds of Mesopotamia itself. Some aspects of these migrations have already been discussed, for instance their share in the dissemination of disease (p. 68), and they supply a considerable stimulus to trade both external and internal. Each band of pilgrims

has a conductor, who carries a flag inscribed with a text from the Koran or with the names of the Imāms. Pilgrims coming by land from Persia ordinarily visit Kazimain first, thereafter proceeding to Kerbela and Nejef; and this is the course followed by most of the pilgrims from the Gulf, who take the river-steamer from Basra to Baghdad. Arrived at the shrine, the pilgrim first purifies himself by certain prescribed ablutions. At the threshold he seeks the saint's permission to approach, circumambulates the grave three times, and finally prostrates himself twice before the tomb, to an accompaniment throughout of prayers and recitations. The visit to the shrine is called *ziyāret*: and the pilgrims provide themselves at the shrines with rosaries, tablets of sacred earth (*turbah*), and shrouds for future use, stamped with texts from the Koran.

Consecrated Shiah Cemeteries. — The desire for burial in sacred ground at one or other of the holy places in Irak is based upon the belief that the protection of the saint there buried is thus assured. The principal Shiah cemeteries, apart from the shrines themselves, in whose precincts burials also take place, are the following: the Wādi es-Salām ('vale of peace') at Nejef; Wādi el-Aoman ('vale of security') at Kerbela; Maqabir el-Quraish at Kazimain; and Tarmah at Samarra. Corpses are brought for interment in one or other of these places by caravan in wooden coffins covered with thick felt. A pack-animal with a coffin slung each side of it is one of the commonest objects to be encountered on a journey from Kerbela to Baghdad. The cost of burial in this way is by no means nominal. Apart from the expense of carriage, the Turkish Government charged the equivalent of nine shillings for an import pass, half this sum being levied in addition for sanitary purposes. Corresponding fees, but on a lower scale, were levied on the transportation of Ottoman Shiah subjects. Quite independent again were the charges for actual interment, which varied from £40 (at Ruwaq in Nejef) to 7*s.* 2*d.* (at Samarra).

The introduction of bodies from countries where epidemic diseases prevail has been from time to time interdicted by the Porte, and since 1897 the importation of bodies from India has been prohibited on account of bubonic plague in that country.

Shiah Mujtahids.—The term *Mujtahid* was originally applied to any Mussulman divine who had attained the highest eminence in his profession. But at the present day it is in use only among Shiahs. The modern Shiah Mujtahid combines in himself several functions: lecturer on Mohammedan law and theology, judge of ecclesiastical suits, and registrar of wills and other documents. The

ascendancy which the recognized Mujtahids enjoy is very remarkable. Among Shiahs their word is law: they disburse large sums received from their co-religionists for sacred and charitable purposes; and occasionally they exercise strong political influence, even in opposition to the established government of the country. The Mujtahids of Nejef and Kerbela are the most distinguished, their authority predominating throughout the entire Shiah world over that of all other Mujtahids: collectively they are known as *Aatabah*, 'the Threshold'. Though some 2,000 claimants to the title exist at Nejef and 200 at Kerbela, inquiries made in 1903 elicited the fact that not more than 41 enjoyed undisputed authority.

(*b*) *Sunni Sect*

The historical origin of the differences between Sunni and Shiah has been noted above (p. 123). For most non-Arab Sunnis the Sultan of Turkey is Caliph, but his claim is little regarded by most Arabs. The Sunnis profess an unquestioning faith in the Koran, and in the accepted Tradition (*sunna*), which is a record of the sayings and doings of the Prophet that serves as a supplement to the Koran. On this basis four principal systems of Sunni law have arisen. The official code of the Ottoman Empire, in so far as it is still truly Moslem, is that of the Hanifite school. The Shiahs in theory reject the authority of the Sunni Tradition altogether, but in fact their law is to a great extent borrowed from the Sunni schools.

The Arab Sunnis of Mesopotamia are said to be on the whole not fanatical. Sunni feeling is now apparently stronger among the Kurds. The Government of Constantinople has done much in recent years to encourage Sunnism among the Kurdish tribes, in the hope of increasing their respect for the Sultan as Caliph. This policy apparently had a considerable measure of success in Abdul Hamid's reign. The most important Sunni shrine in Mesopotamia is that of Sheikh Abdul Qadir Gilani, at Baghdad. This Abdul Qadir (A. D. 1077–1165) was a Sufi preacher of renown in his day, being credited with miraculous powers. His mosque and tomb, honorifically known as 'Janab Ghauth el-Adham Dastgir', form not only one of the principal sights of Baghdad, but a religious centre frequented by Sunni Mussulmans from regions as remote as Afghanistan and India. Poor pilgrims are gratuitously supported, and sometimes as many as 4,000 loaves of bread issue in a single day from the kitchens of the Pir-i-Dastgir. Other Sunni shrines exist in Irak, but none comparable with that of Sheikh Abdul Qadir, such being the Maqam Yunas at Kūfeh and tomb of Ezekiel at Kifl,

though the latter is more venerated by Jews than Mussulmans. Much the most influential Sunni in Mesopotamia is the Naqib of Baghdad, the official head of the Arab community in that town. Appointments to the Naqibat have been made by the Sultan heretofore, but in practice the succession is treated as hereditary: nor can there be any doubt that the importance of the Naqib in the present day depends much less upon Turkish recognition than upon his descent and position as the custodian of the shrine of Sheikh Abdul Qadir Gilani. It is worthy of note that extreme deference is paid to the Naqib of Baghdad and his family by many of the most influential and wealthy, as well as the humblest and poorest, of Indian and Afghan Moslems. Compared with this high dignitary of Baghdad, the Sunni Naqib of Basra is an inferior being, whose importance depends chiefly on his wealth and employment by the Turkish Government in political affairs.

Christian Sects

Some information regarding the numbers, distribution, organization, &c., of each of the various Christian sects which are represented in Mesopotamia and Kurdistan will be found on pp. 131-3.

The great majority of Christians living in this area are to be found in the vilayets of Diarbekr, Bitlis, Van, and Mosul. There are also Christian communities in Baghdad, Basra, and some other towns of Irak. It is said that in the years preceding the war many Christians were driven by the attacks of the Kurds to migrate from the north to the towns of Irak. In northern Mesopotamia the term 'Syrian' is equivalent to 'Christian'.

It will be noticed that the Christian bodies dealt with on pp. 131-3 may be divided into three groups: (*a*) the independent Asiatic Churches (the 'Gregorian' Church of Armenia, the 'Nestorian' or East Syrian Church, and the Jacobite or West Syrian Church); (*b*) the bodies called Uniate, which, while they are derived from one or other of the independent Churches, are now in communion with the Roman Catholic Church (Armenian Uniates, Chaldaeans, Jacobite Uniates, or Syrian Catholics); (*c*) a miscellaneous group, including Protestant converts from the independent and Uniate Churches (chiefly Armenian), and secessionists like the New Chaldaeans, and Orthodox Armenians.

Origin of the Independent Asiatic Churches.—(i) The Church of Armenia derives its name Gregorian from St. Gregory the Illuminator (A.D. 255-326), who brought about the conversion to Christianity of the main part of the Armenian nation. As Armenia was a country

over which the East Roman Empire of Byzantium exercised only a loose and intermittent protectorate, it was natural that the Armenian Church should gradually lose connexion with Byzantine ecclesiastical organization and doctrine; and finally, in the middle of the sixth century, when the heretics called Monophysites (who denied the human element in Christ) were actively proselytizing in Syria and Mesopotamia, their doctrine found general acceptance in Armenia. The Gregorian Church is still Monophysite.

(ii) The East Syrian Church is a remnant of the great body of Nestorian Christians who in the Middle Ages were to be found throughout Asia. The 'Nestorian' doctrine had arisen in the East Roman Empire during the fifth century, its general position being that Christ was not one person, but had two distinct natures, a divine and a human. The Nestorians were condemned as heretics at the Council of Ephesus in A.D. 431, and were forced to take refuge beyond the borders of the Roman Empire. In Mesopotamia and Persia their form of Christianity spread with great rapidity. Nestorian missionaries made converts in Malabar, China, and the Mongolian plains (hence, probably, the mediaeval legend of 'Prester John'). The Arab conquerors on the whole treated the Nestorians with toleration, and the Nestorian Church increased and flourished till about the year 1400, when Timur Leng (Tamerlane), the Mongol, persecuted it with wholesale massacre. Of the isolated remnants one of the most considerable was that which lingered in the plains of Assyria round Mosul and in the mountains south of Lake Van and Urmia. This body of Nestorians was, however, reduced in the sixteenth century by the adhesion of the majority of the plain-dwelling part of the community to the Church of Rome. The East Syrian Church, which still maintains its independence, though it denies the imputation of being 'Nestorian', is now almost entirely confined to the mountains.

(iii) The West Syrian or Jacobite Church traces its origin to the work of a certain Jacobus Baradaeus ('James of the horse-cloth', so called from the appearance of his dress), who in the sixth century was successful in establishing a large number of Monophysite communities in Syria and Mesopotamia. In spite of persecution by the Byzantine Government, this Monophysite Church maintained its existence near the borders of the East Roman Empire, until it was able to enjoy the modified tolerance extended to all Christian sects by the Arab conquerors. The Jacobite Church is still Monophysite.

Uniatism.—There are three Uniate Churches in Mesopotamia—the Armenian Uniate, the Chaldaean or East Syrian Uniate, and the West Syrian or Jacobite Uniate—and these communities have only three

points in common, viz. that they acknowledge the spiritual supremacy of the Pope, and that they accept the decrees of the Councils of Ephesus, A. D. 431, and of Chalcedon, A. D. 451, which respectively condemned the heresies of Nestorianism and of Monophysitism. In other matters—ritual, liturgy, ecclesiastical laws and customs—each community is independent of the others and of the Roman Catholic Church; each has its own separate hierarchy, although the Pope exercises some limited power in the appointment of the bishops and patriarchs. Within the Uniate Churches there is apparently a tendency to resent an assertion of Roman authority.

Millets.—From time to time the most important of these Christian religious bodies have obtained recognition from the Turkish Government, and have been constituted into millets. Each of these millets has its own civil head, appointed by the Turkish Government; in practice the Turkish Government appoints to this post the spiritual head of the Church. Originally the head of the millet was responsible for the civil government of his people, collecting taxes from it and administering civil justice. Of late years the administrative functions of the heads of millets have been much reduced. Collection of taxes has been taken over by Turkish officials, and, though a Patriarch who is respected may still be much appealed to as an arbitrator by his own people, Christians appear recently to have been made liable, at least in most respects, to the Turkish Courts, where law modelled on Occidental models has to a considerable extent replaced in practice the old Mohammedan code. Before the war the Patriarch who wielded most secular authority was Mār Shimūm, the hereditary chief of the Nestorian highlanders. But in all Churches the Patriarch has been highly influential in secular matters; and he has remained primarily responsible to the Government for the political management of his millet.

French Dominican Mission in Mosul.—An Italian Dominican mission was established in Mesopotamia in the thirteenth century, and had its head-quarters at Mosul in the sixteenth century. This mission was abandoned in A. D. 1730, and was re-established in 1750 by three Dominicians. This, too, was abandoned in its turn from 1805 to 1840, but from the latter date the Dominicans have continued their mission either at Mosul itself or in its near neighbourhood. At the present time there are a Dominican community and some nuns at Mosul, together with schools for boys and girls, and a printing-press from which religious books are issued in various languages. For the neighbourhood of the town there are a dozen or more schools conducted by this mission. They carry on educational work among the Chaldaeans and other Uniates. The Dominicans of

Mosul are French, and apparently include a considerable number of Alsatians. As a result of their work, a fair number of Chaldaean priests can speak French.

Protestants.—These are mostly Armenians, but there are also a few converts from the Chaldaean, Jacobite, and Nestorian Churches. Protestantism is the result of American mission-work, and Oriental Protestants can often speak some English, which they have learnt in American mission schools. On the whole the Oriental Protestants of Mesopotamia seem to have made an unfavourable impression on travellers; but it must be remembered that the judgements of the latter have usually been based on superficial observations.

Characteristics of the Sects.—(*a*) The Gregorian Church is the national Church of Armenia, and represents and fosters Armenian national aspirations. To it belong the great majority of Armenians in Mesopotamia. Before the present war the total number of its members was perhaps 3-3½ millions, of whom nearly 2 millions were in Russian and Turkish Armenia, and the remainder scattered over the rest of the Russian and Turkish Empires, Persia, India, and other countries. The Church constitutes a millet in the Turkish Empire. Of the four patriarchates the chief is that of Echmiadsin, about 15 miles west of Erivan, in Russian territory. The Chief Patriarch was selected by the Tsar from two candidates chosen by the General Assembly of the Church. The Patriarch of Constantinople ranks next to the Chief Patriarch. A college education is obligatory on the Gregorian monks, some of whom have the title of Vardapet; from these bishops are selected. The parish priests, who are allowed to marry, are elected and supported by their congregations. The deacons are also allowed to marry. The General Assembly is composed of bishops, vardapets, and one layman and one priest from each see. The Gregorian Church is Monophysite and not in communion with Rome.

(*b*) Armenian Uniates are a much smaller community (perhaps 70,000 in all), and are found in western Kurdistan and in the south-eastern corner of Anatolia. As their name implies, they are in communion with Rome. They have an archbishop at Mardīn in upper Jezīreh and bishops elsewhere. There are some Armenian Uniates at Baghdad. The Church is recognized as a millet.

(*c*) Armenian Protestants (perhaps some 45,000 in all; a few thousands in Mesopotamia) are found mostly in the Armenian highlands. Armenian Protestantism is the result of the proselytizing work of the American missionaries—mostly Presbyterians. Many Armenian Protestants have been educated at American mission schools and can speak English. It may further be noted that a con-

siderable number of leading Armenians belonging to other sects have been educated at the American college—Roberts College—at Constantinople.

(*d*) Some Armenians belong to the Greek Orthodox Church, but they do not appear to be represented in any appreciable numbers in Mesopotamia.

(*e*) The Nestorians or East Syrians (also called Chaldaeans, or by foreigners Assyrians, or by themselves Easterns or Syrians) form a fairly united body in the mountains of central Kurdistan, between Lake Van and Urmia in the north, and Mosul in the south. They are for the most part Syriac-speaking highland tribesmen of the ordinary half-civilized type. (For their history see p. 129.) They constitute a millet in the Turkish Empire, and are an independent Church not in communion with Rome. They themselves dislike being called Nestorians. Their Patriarch (called Mār Shimūm) is paramount chief of the tribes into which they are divided. He is elected from the members of a family in which the office is hereditary. Before the war he resided at Kochannes near Julāmerk. The parish priest is usually the chief man in his village, and is held in great honour. Priests and deacons are allowed to marry. There are a few monks and nuns. Fasts are long and severe, the chief being the Advent Fast (25 days) and the Lent Fast (50 days), 3 days at the end of the winter, and Fridays. An English mission has been established among the East Syrians for about 30 years (the Archbishop of Canterbury's Mission to the Assyrian Christians). Its efforts have been directed towards education, medical work, and support of the East Syrian Church.

(*f*) The Chaldaeans (East Syrian Uniates, see p. 129) are in communion with the Roman Catholic Church. Their numbers are perhaps about 30,000. They are found chiefly in and around Mosul, where their Patriarch resides, though he retains the title of Patriarch of Baghdad and Babylon. A community of Chaldaeans exists at Baghdad. Many of their priests have been educated at the Dominican mission at Mosul and can speak French. (For the occupations of the Chaldaean laity see p. 115.) Most of them speak Arabic, a few Syriac.

A body of some 2,000 Chaldaeans seceded in 1869 on the question of Papal Infallibility. It does not seem certain whether this so-called New Chaldaean community still exists.

(*g*) There are a very few converts to Protestantism from the Nestorian and Chaldaean Churches. Most of them live at Mosul. They have been proselytized by American Baptist and Congregationalist missionaries.

(*h*) The Jacobites or West Syrians are found in the country in and near Mosul, in the vilayet of Diarbekr, and in the northern part of Syria. There is a Jacobite community at Baghdad. Their Church is independent, professing Monophysite doctrine, and is recognized as a millet. The Patriarch (called Patriarch of Antioch) resides at Mardīn, while the Maphrian, or first bishop, has his see at Mosul. The Patriarch is generally chosen by the bishops, though there have been cases of election by lot. Bishops-elect must be monks or widowers. There are three orders of priests—monks, parish priests, and chor-episcopi (the leading priests in large towns). Parish priests must marry before ordination, and may not remarry. As the popular feeling is strongly against unmarried parish priests, a widower, unless he becomes a bishop, usually retires into a monastery. A priest is chosen by a council, composed of the deacons and lay representatives of his congregation. He is usually influential. The order of deacons is large and important. Education is provided by the Church, and most of those who remain in Jacobite schools till the age of fifteen become deacons, but the greater number do not become priests, but are occupied in secular business. Jacobites keep five yearly fasts.

(*i*) Jacobite Uniates are found in Mosul, Diarbekr, and Baghdad, as well as in Syria. They have a bishop at Mosul. Their Patriarch resides at Baghdad.

(*j*) There are a few Protestant converts from the Jacobite Church (mostly Congregationalists and Baptists) who have been proselytized by American missionaries.

Yezidis

A Shiah theory that the founder of the Yezidi sect was Yazid, the murderer of Husein, is doubtless based on little save a desire to discredit them in the eyes of Mussulmans. The oldest Yezidi traditions centre round the shrine of Sheikh ʿAdi, their saint and prophet, in the hills 30 miles NNE. of Mosul. The Sheikh appears to have been outwardly a Moslem, but his shrine is built on the site of an old Nestorian church, which may account for some of the Christian elements in their sacred writings.

The Yezidis have suffered much persecution, and are still regarded as idolaters beyond the pale. Yezidism has points of resemblance with old Iranian and Assyrian beliefs, as well as with Manichaeism and Nestorianism. Thus they regard the Devil as the creative agent of the Supreme Being, a reinstated fallen angel who is the author of evil. He is never mentioned except as the Peacock King (*Malik-i-tāūs*). As for their traditions regarding the Deluge, Crea-

tion, and Judgement, they appear to be appropriations from Biblical sources, overlaid with a mass of fable. They regard Christ as an angel in human form, and recognize Mohammed as a prophet with Abraham and the patriarchs.

The Yezidis have no central ecclesiastical authority, but a hierarchy of castes and sects, of whom the highest are *mirs*, or princes. Next come the *sheikhs*, *mullahs*, *qawals* (preachers), *pirs* (who exercise priestly functions); and lastly the *kieucheks* and *faqirs*, who tend the shrine of Sheikh 'Adi. The ritual practised by the itinerant *qawals* is of a highly esoteric nature, having to do with the worship of the Peacock King, and strangers are rigidly excluded. Both baptism and circumcision are customary. Divorce is permitted only upon proof of infidelity. In the matter of fasts they follow Moslem customs. The pilgrimage to Sheikh 'Adi is an annual affair, accompanied by much ceremonial and festivity: there are lesser shrines, such as those of Mohammed Resham, Khasia, Sitt Nefisse, and Abdi Resho, which are also much in favour. The dress of most Yezidis is white, with a short brown cloak. Some of their religious leaders wear black.

Sabians

The Sabians were mentioned in the Koran together with Christians and Jews, and like them entitled, in the view of older Mohammedan theologians, to tolerance as the possessors of a written revelation. The exact nature of their religious beliefs has not been properly determined. Baptism is one of their principal rites, and frequent ceremonial ablution is enjoined; they are said to venerate Yahya, or John the Baptist, as being a reincarnation of Seth, but consider both Moses and Christ to be false teachers. They place Paradise in the Pole Star. They are an uncircumcised, but not monogamous race. Their ceremonies are said to be conducted in Syriac and closed to strangers. They possess scriptures of their own.

Jews

In the past Mesopotamia has been a principal centre of Judaism. The captivity of the Jews in Babylon (sixth and fifth centuries B.C.) has its monuments in the reputed tombs of Ezra at 'Ozeir, of Ezekiel at Kifl, and of Daniel at Kirkuk. From the period of the captivity onwards there existed in the country a large Jewish community, which was increased after the destruction of Jerusalem by the Romans (A.D. 70). Under the Sassanids and the earlier Caliphs of Baghdad (A.D. third–eleventh century) Babylonia was the chief seat

of Jewish theological and legal learning. The *Gaons* (the heads of the Babylonian Jewish universities) gave decisions on questions of Judaic law which were accepted by Jews throughout the world. On the other hand in the eighth century there arose in Babylonia the schism of the Karaites, who, in opposition to traditional rabbinism, insisted on the letter of the written law. It is said that there are still a few Karaites at Hīt. The widespread influence of the Babylonian Jewish teachers was to some extent connected with the political supremacy of the Caliphate, and, as the Caliphate lost its power, that influence declined. With the ruin of Mesopotamian civilization Mesopotamian Judaic culture fell into decay. At the present time the Jews of Mesopotamia (on whom see further p. 116) are said to be strict observers of their law. The tombs of Ezra and Ezekiel are visited by Jewish pilgrims.

Qizilbāsh and Shabbaks

The religion of the Qizilbāsh is obscure. Orthodox Mohammedans regard them as heretics of a very objectionable sort or as atheists. They apparently worship 'Allah, 'Ali, and Husein', but they do not observe Ramadan, and it seems that they practise secret rites. It would appear that their religion is a blend of Shiism with pagan, or possibly Christian, elements.

The Shabbak religion also seems to be a mixture of Shiism and paganism.

CHAPTER IX

ADMINISTRATION

Before 1914

Turkish administrative system — Turkish administrative divisions — Local government — Provincial departments — Imperial departments — Dā'irat es-Sanīyeh—Arabistan—Behbehan.

Turkish Administrative System

Previous to the beginning of the sixteenth century the Turkish Government was an Oriental despotism, based on force. The Sultan was a feudal War Lord, receiving obedience from a number of feudal sub-chiefs.

In 1517 Sultan Selim, the Grim, usurped the Caliphate, or Papacy of Islam, from the Arabs and united the spiritual and temporal power in the person of the Sultan-Caliph of Constantinople. The Ottoman Government thus became a theocracy, deriving its inspiration from the Koran. At the time of the capture of Constantinople in 1453 the Turkish State already rested on an Islamic basis, and Mohammed the Conqueror decided that the religious and purely internal affairs of the Orthodox Christian communities which had survived the Turkish conquests should be delegated to their respective religious heads, the chief of whom was the Orthodox Patriarch of Constantinople. The Jewish community was similarly dealt with. The Turkish conqueror was too contemptuous of the infidels and their ways to condescend to deal with the affairs of their communities, which were called *millet*, really meaning a 'nation'. The root of this policy was perhaps the incompatibility of Koranic law with Christian jurisprudence, as a Moslem court could not admit the testimony of a Christian witness against a Moslem. The Christians, called *rayah*, had no real rights and were treated as helots. Until 1839 there were four such non-Moslem millets: the Greek, Armenian, Roman Catholic, and Jewish communities. Subsequently the Bulgarians, Maronites, Nestorians, and Protestants were also recognized. The fact that the Patriarchs and other

religious heads were the recognized channels of communication with the Porte in all matters affecting their communities gave them a position of considerable influence and prestige. Foreign Christians had an analogous position. In virtue of the Capitulations they were subject in common-law cases to the jurisdiction of their own consuls and embassies, but were not allowed to hold real property.

From 1453 to the beginning of the nineteenth century the Turkish State was a loosely jointed structure. The Turk's ideal was to live on his conquests and conquered, and his organization was purely one adapted to the needs of war against the infidel.

The Sultan-Caliph delegated most of his religious authority to the Sheikh el-Islam, who appointed the religious functionaries in the provinces and supervised all matters appertaining to Islam. The Ottoman Sultan similarly transferred a certain meed of his temporal power to his Grand Vizier, through whom all the high officers of State, both in the capital and in the provinces, were nominated. The Empire was divided into immense provinces called *eyalets*, presided over by a Pasha of Three Tails, e.g. the Pasha of Belgrade was viceroy of all Turkey in Europe south of the Danube; the Pasha of Erzerum ruled all Kurdistan and Armenia; the Pasha of Baghdad exercised authority over the Mosul, Baghdad, and Basra regions; while the Pasha of Damascus controlled all Syria. When Russia's wars for the liberation of 'her Orthodox Christian brethren' from their yoke as rayahs resulted in the shrinkage of the Ottoman Empire, the necessity of internal change on the lines of a more closely knit system was felt. The Janissaries and the feudal chiefs were removed by massacre and a regular army established with a Minister of War. The eyalets were abolished and replaced by the smaller divisions called *vilayets*, governed by a vali, with an accountant-general (*defterdar*) for finance, a secretary-general (*mektubji*), representative of the Public Works, Public Instruction, and other departments in the capital. The vali was further assisted by an Administrative Council (*Idare Mejlis*). Each vilayet was divided into two or three *sanjaqs*, administered by a lieutenant-governor (*mutessarif*) appointed by Imperial decree. The sanjaq had a finance officer (*muhassebeji*), a secretary (*tahrirat mudiri*), and representatives of the various ministries, with also an *Idare Mejlis*, as in a vilayet. Each sanjaq was subdivided into from three to six *kazas*, each administered by a sub-governor called *kaimmakam*, appointed by the Government, while the kaza was further subdivided into three or four *nahiyes* presided over by a *mudir*. In each *qariyeh*, or village, there was a *mukhtar*, or headman.

These and other similar changes were effected during the first half

of the nineteenth century, and were confirmed and amplified by the *Hat-i-Humayun* of 1856, after the Crimean War. Equal civil, political, and religious rights were promised, if not actually granted, to all the inhabitants of the Ottoman Empire, without distinction of race or creed. A Penal Code, a Commercial Code, a Vilayet Law, and other such modern changes were instituted by Imperial decree, while a regular Ministry of twelve members, inclusive of the Grand Vizier and the Sheikh el-Islam, was formed, and a Council of State was established. These changes did not materially alter the character of the Turk or of his administrative methods. They were honoured more in the breach than in the observance. Fresh disorders and massacres of Christians occurred, and the Serbian and Russo-Turkish wars (1875–8) ensued. A desperate effort was made to modernize Turkey by introducing representative institutions in 1876, in the shape of a Senate and Chamber of Deputies with a Ministry responsible to the Sultan. This system was soon found unworkable and unpalatable to the new Sultan, Abdul Hamid II, who in 1878 prorogued Parliament indefinitely and governed through the Palace and Porte for over thirty years. The abuses and disorders continued, and culminated in the Macedonian agitation during the first eight years of this century. In July 1908 the Turkish army took the situation in hand, forced the ex-Sultan to revive the Constitution of 1876, dethroned him, installed the Young Turk Government in power with the present Sultan as their nominee and creature, and modified the Constitution by introducing Parliamentarism, or responsibility of the Ministry to the Chamber. The Sultan and Senate were shorn of all power, and, as the people were totally lacking in political instinct or education, the Young Turks, who constituted but an infinitesimal minority of the population, found that they could govern only by putting the Chamber of Deputies under the shadow and terrorism of the court martial and the state of siege which they established in the Capital in 1909 and have maintained till the present day.

All real power was vested in this secret court martial, whose proceedings were manipulated by the central office of the irresponsible Committee of Union and Progress. This body established branches in all the provincial centres to control the action of the official local authorities, i.e. the valis, mutessarifs, kaimmakams, &c. As the central court martial was composed of officers who, either from having studied in Germany or for other reasons, were under German influence, the German Ambassador and his military attaché became the real arbiters of Turkey, and the directors of its central and provincial administration.

The German aim was to secure for their representative at Constantinople the position which Lord Cromer built up in Egypt, and in this they had partially succeeded when the Great War broke out. The Young Turks, allured by the prospect of freeing their country from all non-Turkish trammels, proceeded to abolish the Capitulations and the rights of the non-Moslem millets, and then, despite the written assurances of territorial integrity offered them by Great Britain, Russia, and France, boldly plunged into war by attacking Russia and Egypt. Since the inauguration of the Young Turk régime in July 1908, the Ottoman Empire had, up to March 1916, lost 1,005,460 square miles of directly or indirectly administered territory in Europe, Africa, and Asia, there being some 700,000 square miles (i. e. three times the size of Germany) still remaining.

Turkish Administrative Divisions in Mesopotamia[1]

The following table gives a list of administrative sections in the vilayets of Diarbekr, Mosul, Baghdad, and Basra, exclusive of nahiyes.

Of other vilayets the following divisions are within our area:

Vilayet of Aleppo: sanjaq of Urfeh (kazas of Urfeh, Serūj, and Rum Qal'ah); also parts of the kazas of Membij and Raqqah in the sanjaq of Aleppo.

Vilayet of Bitlis: sanjaq of Sairt (kazas of Sairt, Kharzan, Hazo, Ridhwān, Eiru, Berwāri, Shirwān); also parts of the kazas of Bitlis and Khizān in the sanjaq of Bitlis.

Vilayet of Van: in the sanjaq of Hakkiari the kazas of Beit esh-Shebāb, Chal, Amadiyeh, Oramar, Shemsdinan, Gavvār, Julāmerk, Norduz, and Mamūret el-Hamid (Bāsh Qal'ah); in the sanjaq of Van the kazas of Mukus and Shattakh.

[1] See Map 1. In January 1918 the Turkish Government brought before the Chamber a bill to create three new independent sanjaqs. The object of the proposal was to establish an administration which should bring under effective control the tribes (Arab, Yezidi, and Kurdish) in the regions affected.

The three new sanjaqs are to be:

(*a*) Sinjar. This is to be composed of the districts (kazas?) of Tel A'far, and 'El-Lediban' (possibly Umm el-Dhiban, i.e. the country west of the Tel A'far district). The head-quarters of the sanjaq are to be at Beled Sinjar.

(*b*) Khabūr. This is to comprise the present kaza of Ras el-'Ain and the northern part of the kaza of Deir ez-Zor, including 'Em Mudaffa' (Umm Madfa, south of the Jebel 'Abdul Azīz?). The head-quarters of the sanjaq are to be at 'Hasbay' (?).

(*c*) Jezīreh. This to consist of the districts of Shernakh and Zakho, with the regions of Kuhkeuzan (?) and Beit (Beit esh-Shebāb?). The head-quarters of the sanjaq are to be at Jezīret-ibn-'Omar.

The law is to come into force in March 1919.

Zor, which was not divided into sanjaqs, was administered by a mutessarif, who nevertheless took his orders direct from Constantinople, and it was consequently known as a mutessariflik. The mutessariflik of Zor appears to have been created in 1874, after the extension of Turkish influence over the desert tribes. The Vali of Baghdad took precedence of the other governors.

I. Zor—(No sanjaqs).

Kazas:

- Deir ez-Zor.
- Achareh.
- Ras el-'Ain.
- Āl Bū Kemal.

II. Diarbekr—

Sanjaqs:	Kazas:
1. Diarbekr . . .	Diarbekr Severek Derek Silvan Lijjeh
2. Arghana . . .	Arghana Palu Chermuk
3. Mardīn . . .	Mardīn Nisibin Jezīret-ibn-'Omar Midiāt Avineh

III. Mosul—

Sanjaqs:	Kazas:
1. Mosul	Mosul Dohuk Zakho Zibār Sinjar 'Aqreh
2. Shahrizor . . .	Kirkuk Erbil Raniyeh Rowanduz Köi Sanjaq Kūfri (or Salāhiyeh)

3. Suleimāniyeh . .	Suleimāniyeh Baziyān (or Chemchemal) Gulambar Shāh Bazār Margeh

IV. Baghdad—

Sanjaqs:	Kazas:
1. Baghdad . . .	Ānah 'Azīziyeh Bedrah Baghdad Dileim Jezīreh Kazimain Khanikin Khorāsān Kut el-Amara Mandali Samarra
2. Diwāniyeh . .	Diwāniyeh Hilla Samāweh Shāmiyeh
3. Kerbela . . .	Hindiyeh Kerbela Nejef Razazeh (a nominal district only)

V. Basra—

Sanjaqs:	Kazas:
1. Amara	Amara Tawarīj Shatrat el-'Amāreh Zobeir
2. Basra	Basra Fāo Kurna
3. Muntefiq . . .	Hai Nāsirīyeh Shatrat el-Muntefiq Sūq esh-Shuyūkh

Local Government

In the following sketch of Turkish administration in Mesopotamia the paper scheme of government is described. But it is to be remembered that 'no country which turned to the eye of the world an appearance of established rule and centralized government was to a greater extent than the Ottoman Empire a land of make-believe. ... It [the Empire] ran not on the paper ordinances, but on unwritten law, unrecorded provisions of Government, habits of command and of obedience inherited from a remote past and applicable to an immediate present which was not so very dissimilar from the past; it was founded, not on the power and efficiency of Vali and Commandant, but on the authority of village headman, tribal sheikh, and local *Seyyid*. . . . The power of sheikh or headman was derived neither from the Sultan nor from the Constitution, nor can it fall with them. It is deeply rooted in the life of the people, and with wise supervision will form for several generations to come the staple of law and order.' Turkish administration was more or less effective in certain limited areas—chiefly in some of the larger towns; but even in many of the towns mujtahids, sheikhs, begs, and aghas were often more influential than the local officials. Over by far the greater part of the country it was not Ottoman jurisdiction that held society together, but tribal or local custom, administered by sheikhs and headmen, or the arbitration of holy men (compare pp. 99–100). As for taxation, a large proportion of the population only made irregular and partial payments extracted from them by force or management; many tribes and districts could escape taxation altogether for years on end. The dealings of the Turkish Government with the Arab and Kurdish tribes were a mixture of diplomacy and spasmodic displays of force which generally had little or no permanent results, and were as likely to do harm as good. It was neither strong enough nor wise enough to maintain a proper supervision of the sheikhs and aghas, and on the other hand it cherished an ideal of centralization which led it to interfere with them clumsily and ineffectually.

Every civil officer from the vali down to the mukhtar was assisted by a civil administrative council, of which he was *ex officio* president, composed in part of officials and in part of non-official members who were selected by the local government from short lists of names submitted by the communities concerned. These councils had only advisory powers, and met about four times a year. The head-quarter towns of sanjaqs and kazas were organized as municipalities, and the affairs of each were supposed to be administered by a municipal committee. These committees had no more powers than the admini-

strative councils. Even the municipal committee of so large a city as Baghdad, with at least 140,000 inhabitants, could not of itself expend any sum larger than 200 gold piastres, or thirty-six shillings. There were faults in the system quite apart from the vital questions of the quality and qualification of the administrative personnel for their work. The whole scheme suffered from over-centralization. The valis had no power of appointment over their subordinates. The local councils and committees would, with their limited or rather non-existent powers, have been *nominis umbrae* in Europe, not to speak of the East. A host of spies pervaded the provinces and reported direct to Constantinople. The valis had no concern with, and no power or control over, one-half of the administrative machine, viz. the Departments of Public Justice, of Land Records, Posts and Telegraphs, Religious Endowments, Customs, Public Debt (which was virtually the Excise Department), the Tobacco and Salt Monopolies, Public Instruction, and Sanitary Service. These departments may be termed the 'Imperial' Departments, in contradistinction to the 'Provincial' Departments which were in charge of the valis and which are specified below. The local chiefs of the Imperial Departments received their orders direct from, and reported direct to, Constantinople; though copies of such orders were sometimes sent to the vali for his information, and it was his duty to investigate complaints against the proceedings of any department in his vilayet outside his control. Lastly, in Baghdad no less than one-third of the whole cultivated area was the private, personal property of the Sultan (as will be explained below), which was managed by the Sultan himself through his private staff. With this area the vali would naturally not think of interfering. To some extent the same condition of things obtained in the province of Basra also, where the Sultan owned a considerable private estate.

Provincial Departments

The vali of each vilayet was the head of the non-Imperial, otherwise the Provincial, Departments, which were: (*a*) the gendarmerie, (*b*) the civil police, (*c*) the revenue-collecting establishment and department of general accounts. The vali was also the political representative of the Ottoman Government in his own vilayet, and the conduct of all dealings with foreign consular officers or foreign subjects, and with the semi-independent tribes of the country (Arab or Kurd), was in his hands. He had no authority over the troops of the regular army in his province, but he could summon the military commander to take such steps as might be necessary for the attain-

ment of political or administrative ends. Occasionally, for very special reasons, the same officer might be invested with the highest civil and military authority in the same vilayet, as was the case at Basra in 1906–7; but as a rule the late Sultan had far too profound a mistrust of his officers to put much power in their hands.

As regards the Provincial Departments, (*a*) the maintenance of law and order throughout the country in times of peace depended on the force which was officially given its modern name of the gendarmerie, but is more familiar by its time-honoured appellation of *zaptiehs*. Their organization was military, and the force was under the control of a special section of the Turkish War Office; but it was distributed under the orders of the civil authorities as a military police. The zaptiehs were half mounted and half infantry, and were commanded in part by officers seconded from the regular army, and apparently in somewhat larger part by civilians who held special commissions. The strength in each province varied with local conditions; in Baghdad there were supposed to be about 1,500 mounted and 1,000 unmounted zaptiehs; in Basra 350 cavalry and 400 infantry. As a rule they were scattered up and down the country in small detachments, and, besides their proper duties, were employed on all kinds of miscellaneous work, such as collection of revenue from the tribes, furnishing of garrisons for posts, domestic duties in the establishments of civil officers, escorts for European travellers, &c., &c. The men are described as not smart in appearance, but as useful and hardy. Whether the actual corresponded with the nominal strengths of each troop and battalion is doubtful. Their pay was very often in arrears.

(*b*) In the larger centres of population and in places of administrative importance there existed a purely civil police, whose authority, however, did not extend to the surrounding villages or open country. Its numbers were small, and, when they required men, the officers of the civil police were entitled to make use of zaptiehs.

(*c*) The tax-collecting and revenue account departments were relatively small in numbers, as the taxes of which they held charge were mostly farmed, but they were lucrative posts.

The tent and hut tax was collected, at the rate of 8*s.* 4*d.* (50 gold piastres) per annum, wherever collection was feasible, from each household of the agricultural population, both settled and semi-nomad. Besides this household tax, a cess of 11*d.* (5½ piastres) was levied as a contribution towards educational and military expenditure. These taxes were farmed.

The various taxes on domestic animals fell principally on the nomad and semi-nomad tribes, and were farmed to the chiefs. Con-

sequently anything like a collection of the full amount was impossible, especially as all reliable statistics on which to base recovery were absolutely wanting. The chiefs collected what they could squeeze out of their clansmen, but, on the other hand, screened them against the Government. If a tribe was powerful, it practically escaped payment of this tax altogether.

The land-taxes, which were farmed, were mostly levied in kind, and gave therefore naturally every opportunity for chicanery, bribery, and evasion. Freehold lands were assessed to pay from one-tenth to one-fifth of the gross produce, according to facility of irrigation; exceptionally favoured lands paid up to one-third of the gross produce. The rent charged for the use of State or Crown lands (see below) was a matter of arrangement between the department concerned and the tenant, and varied from one-tenth to even one-half of the gross produce. Taxes on date and orange-trees were levied in cash, $3\frac{1}{2}d.$ (7 *rāij* piastres) per tree on the former and $1d.$ to $2d.$ (2–4 *rāij* piastres) on the latter. See further on land-taxation pp. 191–3.

The 'forests', from which a small revenue was derived, are mostly plantations of poplars and tamarisks on the Euphrates and Tigris.

The royalty on minerals varied from 5 to 15 per cent. *ad valorem*, but was practically confined to the copper mines at Arghana in the vilayet of Diarbekr. In the whole of Irak this tax produced only about £180 a year. Municipal taxation consisted largely of octroi, a lucrative impost for the collectors thereof, which may account for the liberal number of municipalities. All local products paid 7 per cent. *ad valorem* on entering a town; there were also a number of other taxes on local industries, trades, and handicrafts; and all these imposts, when not evaded, were further enhanced by the method of affixing stamps to receipts given for them, these stamps having to be supplied by the taxpayer, after the method mentioned in connexion with the customs (see p. 147).

In connexion with taxation generally it is a significant comment on the system which obtained under the Turks that it has been asserted that in the vilayet of Basra seven-tenths of the people escaped scot-free of all taxation, and paid nothing whatever, except perhaps in bribes.

Imperial Departments

Of the Imperial Departments there were three classes:

(*a*) Public Justice.

(*b*) Revenue Departments.

(*c*) Department relating to the convenience of the public.

Public Justice.—There were four kinds of Courts: Ecclesiastical Criminal, Civil, and Commercial.

Only questions arising under the law of the Koran were cognizable by the Ecclesiastical Courts; the judges were *kazis*, recognized and paid by Government, one at the head-quarters of each vilayet, sanjaq, and kaza. Appeals lay from the lower to the higher kazis, and from the latter to the Sheikh el-Islam at Constantinople. Authorized and officially recognized jurisconsults, or *muftis*, existed at the head-quarters of each vilayet and sanjaq, whose duties were to resolve legal difficulties and give authoritative opinions under the *Sheria'* or sacred law, especially in questions connected with inheritance, marriage, and other family relations.

The Civil and Criminal Courts were divided into: Courts of the First Instance, located at the head-quarters of each vilayet, sanjaq, and kaza; High Courts at the head-quarters of each province; and the Supreme Court at Constantinople, which had only appellate jurisdiction. Each of these three tribunals had a civil and a criminal side, the judges in each being distinct sets of individuals. The language of the Courts was Turkish. The civil judges were all Mohammedans; in Criminal Courts non-Mohammedans were included in the Bench.

The civil code (*Mujalli*), which dealt with rents, sales, exchange, contract, &c., had been drawn up by Turkish jurists. As the Turks belong to the Hanafi sect of the Sunnis, the law adopted by the compilers of the code was Hanafi law, and thus the Shiahs of Mesopotamia, and the members of the other three Sunni sects, had to submit to Hanafi rulings.

Crime was divided into three categories: petty, ordinary, and heinous. The Courts were assisted by a Public Prosecutor and his subordinates. Courts of the First Instance disposed of petty crime without appeal, except on a point of law. Before charges of ordinary or heinous crime were tried, the accused went before an Examining Magistrate, who, after investigation, either discharged the accused or committed for trial—in the case of ordinary crime to the Court of First Instance, in the case of heinous offences to the High Court. In each instance an appeal lay from the Court trying the case to the Court immediately superior to it. No charge against a British subject could proceed except in the presence of a British Consul, and no sentence on a British subject was valid until concurred in by a British consular representative; differences of opinion between a Court and a Consul were referred for settlement at Constantinople by the British Ambassador and the Turkish Minister of Justice.

Commercial Courts at the head-quarters of vilayets dealt with

mercantile suits, causes relating to bills of exchange and promissory notes and matters of the kind, subject to appeal to the local High Court on the civil side. The procedure of these Courts is stated to have been based on the Code Napoléon. If a foreign subject was a party to a suit in the Commercial Court, one or two assessors of the same nationality as the foreign subject were added to the Court; the proceedings were watched by a representative of the foreigner's consulate, and an appeal lay to the Chief Commercial Court at Constantinople.

Imperial Departments of Revenue.—These were the Customs, Public Debt, Tobacco and Salt Monopolies, and Land Records.

Customs was one of the most important revenue agencies, producing more in Baghdad and Basra than even the land-taxes. The Department was under a Director-General at Baghdad, who dealt direct with Constantinople, and had a deputy with his establishment at Baghdad and at Basra; officials of lower rank and clerks were stationed at Khanikin, Qizil Ribat, Mandali, and Bedrah on the Persian frontier, at Nashweh and Kurna on the Shatt el-'Arab, at Sūq esh-Shuyūkh on the Euphrates, and on the Tigris at Qal'at Sālih, Amara, Kut el-Amara, Suweira, and Kazimain. By agreement with the Powers, the import duties were, in 1907, raised to 11 per cent. *ad valorem.* The export duty was 1 per cent. *ad valorem,* and a refund of 10 per cent. *ad valorem* was permitted on goods exported within six months of importation. Without an agreement with the Powers, these duties were enhanced from time to time by the ingenious device of requiring various stamps of different and varying denominations to be affixed to documents presented to the Customs House. Some of these stamps were ostensibly ear-marked for the cost of the Hejaz Railway, others were simply revenue stamps. In some cases this imposition entailed as much as 50 per cent. additional on the customs duty proper. That the administration of the customs was highly corrupt goes without saying. It is reported that at Basra the export trade evaded taxation altogether. The import duties actually paid are said to have averaged not more than 6 per cent., including duty, bribe, and porterage, instead of 11 per cent.

The Department of Public Debt existed for the benefit of the European bondholders of the Ottoman Government, and was subject to international control. It was represented by superintendents at provincial head-quarters, with assistants at all the more important places, and travelling inspectors. The principal sources of revenue made over to the Public Debt for management were fisheries, liquor, salt, silk, and stamps: it was practically an Excise Department.

The Tobacco Monopoly was in the hands of a company known briefly as the *Régie*, which held the lease or farm of the manufacture, collection of duty, and sale of tobacco throughout the Turkish Empire. Its offices were at the head-quarters of the vilayets, with branches at the principal centres of tobacco cultivation. The duty appears to have been 1*s.* 3*d.* per $2\frac{1}{5}$ lb. (7·8 gold piastres per kilogramme) of superior quality, and 7*d.* (3·9 gold piastres) per the same weight of inferior quality of tobacco. Persian tobacco, which is largely imported for smoking in *narghîlehs*, paid an import duty of 6*d.* per $2\frac{1}{5}$ lb. (3 gold piastres per kilogramme).

The Land Records Department dealt with all lands and buildings, except the Sanīyeh lands, to which reference is made below. The Department, of which the offices were at Baghdad, Mosul, and Diarbekr, was divided into two sections: the first, or *Tapu*, registered all transactions in, and arrangements relating to, the ownership of land generally, and managed the second class of landed property, viz. the Crown lands. These were mostly let to tenants whose tenure was undisturbed provided they paid the rent or did not discontinue cultivation for more than three years. The second, or *Amlak*, section of the department dealt with similar matters relating to buildings. Both sections levied fees. (See further on land-tenure Chapter XI, pp. 188–94.)

Departments Relating to the Convenience of the Public.—These were: Posts and Telegraphs, Public Health, Religious Endowments, Public Instruction.

The first two of these are dealt with in other chapters. The Department of Religious Endowments was represented by accountants at the provincial head-quarters. In the Baghdad province it had much to do in superintending the finances of the great Shiah shrines at Kerbela, Nejef, Kazimain, and Samarra.

On education see pp. 119–20.

The Dā'irat es-Sanīyeh

The very large private estates (*Aradhi Sanīyeh*) acquired by Sultan Abdul Hamid were, until 1909, administered by the Dā'irat es-Sanīyeh, a branch of the Civil List Department. The Sanīyeh lands of Irak were administered by a central committee which sat at Baghdad, and corresponded direct with the Minister of the Civil List at Constantinople. This Committee consisted of two branches, one dealing with lands and irrigation, and the other with the navigation section of the Sanīyeh. Sanīyeh lands in the Baghdad and Basra vilayets fell into four groups, according as they relied for irrigation on

the Euphrates, the Shatt el-Gharāf, the Tigris, and the Shatt el-'Arab respectively. In addition to these, there were Sanīyeh lands in the valley of the Diyāleh, and even at Khanikin, close to the Persian border. On the Tigris the Sanīyeh had acquired the whole Dujeil canal and the areas watered by it. Below Baghdad the valuable estates of Shādi and Bogheileh in the kaza of 'Azīziyeh were held by the Sanīyeh; also lands along the right bank of the river from Tawīl to Umm el-Ajāj, and on the left bank from Samr to Imām Mahdi, in each case up to 20 miles inland from the river. The right bank of the Tigris, together with the country behind it to a depth, it is said, of about 40 miles, from the point where the Shatt el-Gharāf leaves it as far as Sheikh Sa'ad, belonged to the Sanīyeh. From Kumeit to the Bitaireh canal the Sanīyeh estate occupied the right bank and extended inland some 30 miles. On the left bank the Sanīyeh extended almost continuously from Amara to a point opposite Azair, and inland almost to the Hawīzeh marshes. A quantity of land in the Muntefiq sanjaq, irrigated by the Shatt el-Gharāf, was Sanīyeh. The Sanīyeh properties irrigated by the Euphrates were many and large, above and below Museyib; near Hilla, the Hamīdiyeh canal was Sanīyeh property in the Shāmiyeh kaza; and it owned extensive domains on the right bank of the Shatt el-'Arab. The Sultan also possessed large estates in the neighbourhood of Mosul and in the plains near the lower courses of the Great and Lesser Zāb. (See further on tenure on Sanīyeh lands pp. 188-90.)

The navigation branch of the Sanīyeh came into being in 1904, when it 'acquired' the whole stock and assets of the 'Oman Ottoman' branch of the Turkish Ministry of Marine, viz. three river steamers, barges, workshops, a dry dock at Basra, and offices and warehouses at Baghdad, Kut el-Amara, Amara, and Basra. It is on record that less than 10 per cent. of the market value of the office buildings was paid by the Sanīyeh to the State. In 1905 the Sanīyeh bought two more steamers, which were added to its fleet. Its competition with the private companies interested in Tigris navigation was close, and it of course monopolized all Government traffic, such as the transport of troops, military stores, &c. A feature of the administration of the Sanīyeh was the fact that on its large executive staff there were a number of military officers who were borrowed from the State, receiving a departmental allowance in addition to their military pay.

It has been claimed for the Sanīyeh that its policy in managing the Sultan's property was one of enlightened self-interest, which is very probable; its relations with its tenants were generally good, and its navigation branch endeavoured to give satisfaction to traders

and travellers. It has also been claimed that the intelligent and energetic policy of the Sanīyeh set a good example to landowners, stimulating them to follow the lead of the Sanīyeh in the management of their private properties and affairs: this seems less probable, seeing that good, fertile, and well-managed estates were pretty sure, sooner or later, to be acquired by the Sanīyeh.

The Young Turks, after dethroning the ex-Sultan Abdul Hamid in 1909, transferred from the Civil List to the Ministry of Finance all the properties in Mesopotamia which had belonged to the Dā'irat es-Sanīyeh. The management and revenues were taken over by the State, while a fixed Civil List and stipends were allocated to the Sultan and the Imperial Princes. The ex-Sultan had spent the revenues of the Sanīyeh on payments to sheikhs in all parts of the world for Panislamic purposes and on gratifications to State functionaries and others with a view to maintaining and enhancing the prestige of the Sultanate. The Young Turks devoted them mainly to analogous purposes in the interests of their Committee of Union and Progress.

Arabistan

Southern Arabistan (including Hawīzeh) is under the governorship of the Sheikh of Mohammareh, the head of the Muhaisin Arabs. Theoretically he is the representative of the Persian Government; practically he is independent of Persian control.

In northern Arabistan, which has been nominally under the administration of a Persian governor, political power has in fact been divided among tribal chiefs and urban notables.

Southern Arabistan.—On the NE., southern Arabistan includes Shākheh; and its northern boundary thence runs west, just excluding Alwanieh, and striking the Āb-i-Gargar at the El-Haddam nullah, 6½ miles above Band-i-Qīr. It leaves the right bank of the Gargar at Khar Rawaishid, 5½ miles N. of Band-i-Qīr, and farther to the west follows the northern and western boundaries of the Anāfijeh. East of the Dīz it coincides with the northern boundary of the Hawīzeh district.

The Sheikh of Mohammareh is represented by deputy governors at Hawīzeh, Ahwāz, Fellāhīyeh, and in the Hindīyan and Jerrāhi districts: but these have little power. The Sheikh manages his subjects chiefly through political agents directly under his orders, and through tribal chiefs or headmen appointed by him. The Sheikh's own tribal council—consisting of the headmen of the sec-

tions of the Muhaisin—is assembled every month and gives its consent in matters of importance. The present Sheikh, Khazal Khān, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., has shown himself a capable ruler. The only part of his dominions where he has had serious trouble in maintaining his authority is the Hawīzeh district.

The Sheikh holds very large tracts of southern Arabistan as his private property by grant from the Persian Government, on condition that he shall not sell or transfer any land to foreigners.

On Turkish territory along the Shatt el-'Arab are a large number of Muhaisin and Ka'ab Arabs. Before the War these were wholly under the jurisdiction of the Sheikh of Mohammareh and owed him military service. They paid taxes to the Ottoman Government; but the revenue raised by the Turks from the Sheikh's private estates on their territory (which are inhabited by his tribesmen) has been remitted to him by the British Government.

The revenue of the Sheikh's government is derived from taxes and dues, the nature of which varies from district to district. For the most part they are levied either on land or on produce. The Sheikh possesses a large private income from his estates, and uses it for political purposes.

The customs of southern Arabistan have been a part of the Imperial Persian Customs, and have been administered accordingly, with the co-operation of the Sheikh.

Northern Arabistan.—There has been a Persian governor in northern Arabistan, resident either at Shushtar or at Dizfūl. Theoretically this Persian official is Governor-General of the whole of Arabistan, with supervisory powers of the Sheikh of Mohammareh. Actually he has had very limited authority even in the northern province. The chief object of the Persian governors has been described as being 'to obtain the goodwill of a few powerful individuals whose assistance will enable them to collect the revenue and any further sums extorted upon which they can agree'. The revenue 'consists in the country of taxes on produce, not on land; and in the townships on industries and shops'.

In the cities of Shushtar and Dizfūl the real power has generally lain in the hands of the *mujtāhids* (religious leaders). Outside these cities the chiefs of the Bakhtiyāri, Sagwand, Beni Lām, Kathīr, and Beni Sa'ad have dominated the country. The influence of the Sheikh of Mohammareh reaches as far as Dizfūl, and there is considerable rivalry in this region between the Sheikh and the Bakhtiyāri khāns. The Bakhtiyāri hold Ramuz and its district at an annual rent.

Behbehan

Behbehan is nominally a sub-governorship in the Governorship-General of Fars. It is now held by the Bakhtiyāri chiefs, who own large estates in the province. The tribes of the Kūhgalū highlands, who are supposed to pay tribute to the governors of Behbehan, are hostile to the Bakhtiyāri. In 1913 a Bakhtiyāri expedition entered the Kūhgalū country to coerce some refractory clans, but proved a failure.

CHAPTER X

IRRIGATION OF IRAK

Introduction—Irrigation of Irak under the Sassanids and Caliphs—Irrigation in modern times—Sir William Willcocks' scheme.

Introduction

The rainfall, which is practically restricted to the months November–May, is too slight for the needs of the country (for details of rainfall see Chapter II). It is indeed not without some importance for agriculture. 'During the winter months, as a general rule, the rainfall is a not inconsiderable factor in the success of the crops; and over large areas of Mesopotamia barley is sown and matured in sole dependence on the winter rainfall.' But even in its present under-populated and under-cultivated condition Irak depends on irrigation for by far the larger proportion of the crops raised in it.

Perennial irrigation is needed in Irak, and one of the main problems of irrigation is how to maintain a sufficient supply of water when the rivers are low. The flood season, falling in spring, is rather 'too late for the winter, too early for the summer crops'. (On the rise and fall of the rivers see pp. 24–5.)

The general lines of any irrigation-system in Irak must be in part determined by the following relations of its surface levels:

(*a*) The Euphrates from Fellūjeh to Diwānīyeh is higher than the Tigris between Baghdad and Kut el-Amara, and commands the country between the two rivers. (Ground-levels on the Euphrates: at Fellūjeh, 130 ft. above sea-level; at Diwānīyeh, 85 ft.; on the Tigris: at Baghdad, 105 ft.; at Kut, 79 ft.)

(*b*) From the left bank of the Euphrates between Fellūjeh and Diwānīyeh, and from the right bank of the Tigris between Baghdad and Kut, the ground falls away very gradually, the slopes from the two rivers forming a depression, the lowest line of which, starting from the southern end of Lake 'Aqarqūf, runs at a distance of 4–18 miles from the Tigris to a point about W. of Bogheileh. Thence its course bears more to the south, and it is continued by

the shallow valley which runs parallel with and west of the Shatt el-Hai from near Kut towards Nāsirīyeh. This depression affords facilities for drainage.

(*c*) The Tigris from Kut to Kurna is higher than the Euphrates from the neighbourhood of Nāsirīyeh downwards, and commands the country between the two rivers. (Ground-levels on the Tigris: at Kut, 79 ft.; at Kurna, 13 ft. Ground-levels on the Euphrates: at Nāsirīyeh, about 10 ft.; at Basra, about 8 ft.)

(*d*) The country on the left bank of the Tigris from the neighbourhood of Sindiyeh (about 40 miles in a direct line north of Baghdad) down to Kut is commanded by the Diyāleh, and in part by the Tigris.

The difficulties of introducing a scientific system of irrigation into Irak are very great. How to secure control of the rivers and put their waters to profitable use is an extraordinarily complicated problem. The beds of the Tigris and the Euphrates have been spoiled by centuries of neglect and misdirected work on the part of the inhabitants. Water has been diverted for irrigation by reckless canal-cutting, which has made it impossible for the rivers to keep their beds properly scoured. Their channels have been damaged besides by the encroachments of cultivators who have reclaimed land along their banks. The result has been that the rivers have become quite incapable of holding their flood-supplies. The flood-water has spilt through breaches in the banks, or through canals, some of which have been widened and scoured till they have become nearly as large as, or larger than, the original main stream. The great marshes which are formed in the interior by inundation from the rivers are partly temporary and recurring, and partly, owing to lack of drainage, permanent. One evil has led to another, and the process of the degeneration and disintegration of the rivers has become more and more difficult to check. A local improvement may easily cause disaster elsewhere; for example, to stop a spill in one place may cause the river to break out in another.

Again, the supply of water available is not nearly large enough to satisfy all the demands that might be made on it. This is obvious under present conditions, when so much of the supply runs to waste, when the Arabs have still the most inadequate notions of economy in its use, and when primitive agricultural methods may make the most lavish application of river-water drawn through unregulated canals appear a necessity of cultivation, as, for instance, to the ploughless rice-growing tribes in southern Irak. At present to increase the supply of water for the irrigation of one district may

very easily have the most serious effect on cultivation in another; or the improvement of a navigation channel may threaten with ruin the rice-fields and date-gardens in the neighbourhood. And if the irrigation of Irak is to be developed in the future on a great scale, these difficulties would not disappear with the prevention of wasteful spills. According to the calculations of Sir William Willcocks, the amount of water brought down by the Tigris and Euphrates (as measured in northern Irak at Baghdad, Hit, and the Hindiyeh Barrage) will permit the irrigation of about 7,400,000 acres of wheat, barley, and other winter crops, and in summer of about 990,000 acres of rice, and about 3,100,000 acres of millet, sesame, and cotton. Thus far less than the whole area of cultivable soil in Irak could be adequately supplied from the Euphrates and Tigris. The low-season supply might indeed, in the opinion of Sir William Willcocks, be largely increased by the construction of storage reservoirs in northern Irak which should husband the surplus flood-water of the rivers. At any rate, without such reservoirs developed irrigation from the Tigris and Euphrates upstream of Kut el-Amara and Diwānīyeh would prevent the Shatt el-'Arab from receiving any low-supply water and would ruin the Basra date-groves. Moreover, if upper Mesopotamia were extensively irrigated, Irak would feel the consequences. 'Heavy irrigation works carried out on the upper Euphrates and its tributaries the Belikh and Khabūr upstream of Anah . . . would deprive the lower Euphrates of the whole of its low supply; while similar works carried out on the upper Tigris and its tributaries the two Zābs in the neighbourhood of Mosul would seriously reduce the low supply of the lower Tigris.' Further, the adjustment of the claims of irrigation to those of navigation would continue to present difficulties. Thus, according to Sir William Willcocks, the use of Tigris water for the irrigation of the Shatt el-Gharaf area would make the river below Kut el-Amara unnavigable in the low-water season. It appears indeed that the irrigation of Irak might be carried far enough to make the inland waterways of the country useless except for small-boat traffic.

The population of Irak is not large enough to make financially profitable the immediate execution of great irrigation works planned on a comprehensive scale. The supply of labour seems to be not much in excess of what is needed by the present cultivated area, and no great increase can be expected from purely Arab immigration. Something may be done to raise the productive power of the inhabitants by the establishment of law and order, the supplying of greater incentives to industry, the introduction of machinery, and other improvements in agricultural methods. But in any case for

a long time to come the Arabs of Irak will not be able to take advantage of more than a gradual extension of the irrigated area by means of local works.

On the other hand it would appear dangerous to execute schemes for local irrigation which were not based on a careful and comprehensive study of the rivers and of the needs, present and future, of the country as a whole. Local works not planned on the basis of such a study might compromise the interests of other parts of Irak, and even in the end do more harm than good to the district which they were meant to benefit.

Irrigation of Irak under the Sassanids and Caliphs

The irrigation of Irak seems to have reached its highest point of development under the Sassanids (third, fourth, fifth, and sixth centuries A.D.).[1] Most of the great canal-beds which still exist in various stages of disrepair seem to have been either wholly or in great part the work of the Sassanian Government. Under the Arab Caliphate systematic irrigation was at first fairly well maintained, but with the weakening of the central Government it fell gradually into decay, and it was finally wrecked in the havoc caused by the Mongol invasions of the thirteenth century.

(*a*) *On the left bank of the Tigris* the country from Samarra down to Kut was irrigated by the Nahrawān canal and its branches. The

[1] It may be noticed that the Sassanids also carried out great irrigation works in Arabistan. The Sassanian Government seems to have been mainly responsible for the dams on the Kārūn at Shushtar and Ahwāz.

The works at Shushtar have undergone considerable modifications and repairs at different times. There are three great dams here:

(i) On the Shatait branch of the Kārūn a combined bridge and dam known as the Band-i-Mizan or Pul-i-Kaisar. This work, now broken, held up water for the Miyanāb canal which waters the Miyanāb island between the Gargar and the Shatait branches of the river.

(ii) At the head of the Gargar branch a dyke, with a crest about low-water level and six sluices, called the Band-i-Kaisar or Band-i-Shahzadeh.

(iii) Half a mile below the Band-i-Kaisar a dam called the Pul-i-Bulaiti rising to above high-water level.

The Āb-i-Gargar was apparently cut or enlarged in the Sassanian period.

Tradition connects these works with the Roman Emperor Valerian, who was taken prisoner by the Sassanid King Shapur about A.D. 260. It is possible that Roman engineers were employed in their construction.

At Ahwāz may be seen the remains of a massive Sassanian weir along the line of one of the shelves of rocks which form the rapids. This weir held up water for canals which are still traceable, and it has been lately proposed to rebuild it.

Nahrawān had several heads on the Tigris and took up the waters of the 'Adheim and the Diyāleh. Its tail entered the Tigris near El-Madayyah, in the neighbourhood of the modern Kut el-Amara.

In order that a sufficient head of waters might be obtained for the Nahrawān, the Tigris, at a point between four and five miles below the El-Qaim head of the canal, and about ten miles below Samarra, was turned by an earthen dam to flow over a natural weir of conglomerate. It seems that as this weir was gradually undermined attempts were made to keep the Nahrawān supplied by moving its head farther and farther upstream till it reached the neighbourhood of the Hamrīn hills. Nevertheless the lower course of the Nahrawān gradually silted up in the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries.

The Nahrawān is still to be traced for the greater part of its original course, as a broad, high-lying dry channel between lofty earthen banks. In parts it has been breached or obliterated.

(*b*) *On the right bank of the Tigris north of Baghdad* the alluvial plain between the river and the desert was watered by the Dujeil and its branches. The Dujeil took off from the Tigris above the conglomerate weir already mentioned. It still carries some water in the flood season as far as Sumeikeh.

(*c*) *Between the rivers from the line Ramādiyeh—Baghdad to about the line Diwānīyeh—Kut el-Amara* irrigation was maintained through a number of great canals which took off from the Euphrates or from what is now the Hilla arm of that river, and tailed into the Tigris or into the present course of the Shatt el-Hai, which in the period of the Caliphate was the main stream of the Tigris. These canals in part carry a certain amount of water, though not nearly so much, nor generally so far, as they did a thousand years ago; in part they are high dry channels enclosed for long stretches between lofty earthen banks; and in part they have been almost obliterated.

The absence of barrages on the Euphrates above its bifurcation must have made it very difficult to keep up perennial irrigation on these canals. (The Babylonian engineers seem to have used the Abu Dibis depression as a reservoir, and it appears that another Babylonian reservoir lay between the rivers near Sippara north of Babylon.)

The country between the rivers was protected against inundation from the Tigris by the embankments of canals drawing their water from the Euphrates, e. g. the Nahr Melcha, the high banks of which are still to be traced for long distances between the neighbourhood of Ctesiphon and that of Kut.

(*d*) *Below the neighbourhood of Kut el-Amara* the Tigris had, until

the end of the Sassanian age, run approximately on its present course. At the beginning of the seventh century A.D. abnormal floods breached the Tigris dykes, the water spilt south and south-west towards the lower Euphrates, and eventually the main stream of the Tigris took to the course of the present Shatt el-Hai. In the time of the Caliphs there was a good deal of irrigation from the Tigris between El-Madayyah (on or near the site of the present Kut el-Amara) and the city of Wasit, about forty miles to the south. Below Wasit the Tigris emptied into the Great Swamp. In the course of the sixteenth century the Tigris returned to its present bed between Kut el-Amara and Kurna.

(*e*) *In southern Irak*, from below Kūfeh to the neighbourhood of Basra, there extended in the Middle Ages a great area of permanent swamp. The marshes at the north-western end of this area (the present Bahr-i-Nejef and Bahr-i-Shināfiyeh) had long been in existence, and farther down there had probably always been swamps which Sumerian, Babylonian, or Greek engineers had not been able to reclaim. But before the Arab conquest, and since the Sumerians had begun to build up their civilization here, much of the country had been brought under cultivation by dyking, drainage, and irrigation. The Great Swamp as it existed in the period of the Caliphate had been formed about the time of the Moslem invasion by the violent diversion of the Tigris which has been described above.

The Great Swamp contained patches of rich cultivable soil and maintained valuable fisheries. There was much boat traffic on its channels.

(*f*) *In the neighbourhood of Basra* the waters of the Great Swamp drained into the Persian Gulf partly by the Shatt el-ʿArab, partly by a channel called the *Fayd* (estuary) of Basra. The Fayd passed west of the city and emptied into the Khōr ʿAbdallah. The land about Basra was irrigated by a number of canals, which took off from the Shatt el-ʿArab and tailed into the Fayd.

Irrigation in Modern Times

After the Mongol invasion in the middle of the thirteenth century the irrigation-system collapsed. Dykes and dams could not be maintained at adequate strength, and the waters of the rivers passed more and more out of human control, spilling where they should not have spilt, and leaving dry the channels on which cultivation depended. The great canals silted up and could not be properly cleared, or were broken by floods or by diversions of the rivers into

new beds. No government arose that was capable of devising or working a systematic plan of irrigation.

Between 1870 and 1914 the Turkish Government, though it was still a long way from introducing systematic irrigation, attempted some improvements in northern Irak. (*a*) It had tried to prevent the flooding of Baghdad and its neighbourhood by means of bunds on the Tigris, Diyāleh, and Euphrates, and had actually succeeded in somewhat reducing the inundations in this region. (*b*) It had procured the services of foreign engineers to check the process by which the Hilla branch of the Euphrates was being dried up—a process which seems to have been started by the damming of the Saqlāwiyeh canal-head for the protection of Baghdad. On the Hindiyeh barrages and Hilla Regulator, which were planned to adjust the distribution of Euphrates water between the Hindiyeh and Hilla branches see below, pp. 160–1. (*c*) The conversion of the Habbāniyeh basin into a reservoir for the storage of Euphrates water had been taken in hand. The escape-canal from Ramādiyeh had been cut, but the outlet through which the water stored was to return from the reservoir to the river had not been made when the present war began. (*d*) Regulators had been placed at the heads of a few of the large canals taking off from the Euphrates (e. g. the Abu Ghoreib and, apparently, the Mahmūdiyeh).

But apart from these works in northern Irak, the Turkish Government did practically nothing for the irrigation of the country. The Arabs were left almost wholly to their own devices. The inhabitants of each district looked after their own needs. They kept up the frail and often-broken bunds along the river-banks; they made what use they could of the old canal-beds and dug small cuts themselves[1]; they built dams of earth and brushwood in order to divert water to their fields. They helped themselves to water in the way that seemed easiest, and their unco-ordinated and primitive work was liable to have unforeseen and unfortunate results. They cut numbers of small canals which opened directly on the river-channels, thus promoting the deterioration of the river-beds and preparing the way for ruinous spills. The cultivated land was continually exposed to the risk either of being inundated or of losing its supply of water; and navigation on the rivers was in places seriously affected by Arab irrigation work.

[1] Occasionally they undertook the cutting of fairly important canals. Thus in 1911 Sir William Willcocks reported that a canal from Shamiyeh, on the Hindiyeh branch of the Euphrates, which was to connect with the Hilla branch at Diwānīyeh, was being undertaken by the Arabs, and, if successful would be a valuable asset to the country.

Irrigation in Irak is carried on by means of water-lifts or oil-motor pumps on the river-banks, of canals, and of earthen dams.

Water-lifts are found in Irak along the Euphrates, wherever the banks are fairly firm and high, and in places along the Tigris, especially between Baghdad and Samarra. The water-lift commonly used in Irak is the *cherrad*, which is worked by horses. The water is raised in leather buckets hung on a rope which passes over a pulley.

A large number of centrifugal pumps worked by oil-engines are in use in the country about Baghdad. The oil-motor pump may become an important instrument for the development of the country.

Canals of all sizes intersect the country, but serve it very inadequately. In the larger canals that are still more or less in working order the flow of water has not been properly regulated; the arrangements for taking water from them are clumsy and wasteful; in some of them the clearance of silt has not kept pace with the deposit, and little or no water is carried during the low season; others have been so widened and scoured by the rivers that they have caused ruinous diversions of the supply; and, there being no provision for drainage, many of them have created permanent or temporary marshes. Thus the large canals have in part failed to carry the water needed for the development of the country, and in part carried water only to waste it.

The rice-fields in the marshes are flooded by means of earthen dams built in the channels. On the Dighāreh canal and probably elsewhere the cultivators build a series of dams, each of which holds up the water till the fields in the neighbourhood have been flooded, and is then broken to let the water pass on to the next dam. Dams of the same type are also built by the Arabs to regulate the supply entering canals; e. g. the low supply of the Diyāleh is diverted into canals by a dam built across the river every year.

The Hindiyeh Barrage

About six miles below Museyib the Hindiyeh Barrage bifurcates into two great branches, the Hindiyeh and the Hilla, which meet again two or three miles above Samāweh. It appears that from early times some such division of the Euphrates has existed, the main volume of the river having passed at some periods down the western branch, at others down the eastern. Some forty years ago the Hilla branch carried by far the greater supply, and was known as the 'Euphrates', while the Hindiyeh was only a 'canal'. Then the head of the Hindiyeh widened (partly as a consequence of the

closing of the Saqlāwiyeh) until this branch took the larger portion of the Euphrates water. This process continued until the Hilla branch was left dry in the low season, and the land in its neighbourhood, one of the most productive areas in the country, was threatened with ruin. A French engineer was employed by the Turkish Government to devise a remedy. He constructed a weir at the head of the Hindiyeh, about ½ mile below the site of the present 'New Barrage'. But this weir (the 'Old Barrage') burst in 1903 and failed to check the drying of the Hilla branch, though it has continued to be an obstacle to navigation. Sir William Willcocks was commissioned in 1909 to design another barrage, and the work was carried out by the firm of Sir John Jackson, Ltd. The New Barrage, completed in 1913, lies about 8 miles below Museyib. The old head of the Hilla branch, situated about 600 yards farther down, has been blocked by an earthen dam, and a new head, with a regulator, has been made about ¼ mile above the barrage.

The *Old Hindiyeh Barrage* is a weir of stone rubble which in 1914 had a narrow breach near the centre and another near the left bank. On its character as an obstacle to navigation see p. 283. It had been intended that the Old Barrage should be removed when the new had been completed, but its demolition was prevented by the local Arabs.

The *New Hindiyeh Barrage* was built wholly on the left bank of the Euphrates, which was then diverted to its present bed, across which the barrage lies. The old bed of the river was blocked by an earthen dam which is situated at the west end of the barrage. The length of the barrage is 275 yds. It is provided with 36 gates, each 16·4 ft. (5 metres) wide and fitted with regulating shutters. On the east side is a lock, 26·24 ft. (8 metres) wide, 180 ft. long, and spanned by a lift bridge. When the barrage is fully open it can pass about 4,000 cubic metres of water per second.

The *Hilla Regulator* is 140 ft. long and contains six openings, each 9·84 ft. (3 metres) wide and fitted with regulating shutters. It has a capacity of about 150 cubic metres per second.

When the New Barrage was constructed the Hilla branch was cleared of silt as far as Hilla town, and the larger canals in the neighbourhood were also cleaned out.

The Habbāniyeh Escape

The work needed to convert the Habbāniyeh basin into an escape and storage reservoir had not been completed at the outbreak of the present war. An escape-canal, about 6¼ miles (10 km.) long and 56 yds. (50 metres) wide, had been cut between the Euphrates

immediately below Ramādiyeh and the Habbāniyeh Lake, but no water had been let into this channel, as the outlet from the basin had not yet been made. It was intended to cut an outlet canal about 4 miles long, from the NE. of the lake to the Euphrates about 4 miles above Saqlāwiyeh.

The area and capacity of the Habbāniyeh depression are as follows:

Below 40 metres (131¼ ft.) above sea-level, 146 sq. km. (56 sq. m.): 164,500,000 cubic metres (5,808,495,000 cubic ft.).

Below 43 metres (141 ft.) above sea-level, 257 sq. km. (99 sq. m.): 598,500,000 cubic metres (21,133,035,000 cubic ft.).

Below 46 metres (151 ft.) above sea-level, 341 sq. km. (132 sq. m.): 1,477,500,000 cubic metres (52,170,525,000 cubic ft.).

See further on the Habbāniyeh and Abu Dibis basins pp. 163–4.

Sir William Willcocks' Scheme for the Irrigation of Irak [1]

With regard to the following summary of Sir William Willcocks' proposals, it may be noticed that his scheme, in the form in which it was put forward in 1911 (see pp. 165–8 below), has recently been criticized. It has been argued: (*a*) that the scheme is on an impracticably large scale in view of the size of the population of Irak; (*b*) that it is based on an insufficient study of the rivers and the country; (*c*) that the advisability of restoring, if possible, the drainage of southern Irak has not been taken into account; (*d*) that the claims of navigation have not been given their proper weight.

Proposed Works for the Prevention of Excessive Floods and for Storage of Water

With a view to obtaining adequate control of the river-water in Irak, Sir William Willcocks has proposed the construction of barrages and escapes at the heads of the river-deltas.

The effect of such works would be: (*a*) to relieve the rivers of their excess flood-water at the points where they enter the alluvial plains which lie below their high flood-levels, and thus to ensure these plains against inundation; (*b*) to enable large quantities of the flood-supply of the rivers to be stored in reservoirs, so that it might

[1] See Sir William Willcocks' *Irrigation of Mesopotamia* (1st edition, 1905; 2nd edition, containing much new matter, 1911), and two articles by the same author in the *Near East* for Sept. 29 and Oct. 6, 1916.

be available for irrigation during the low season (compare on this point pp. 154–5).

The amount of water which it would be possible to store in reservoirs near the heads of the river-deltas is estimated at 18 milliards of cubic metres. Much would be lost by evaporation, but it is believed that 12 milliards of cubic metres would be available for irrigation purposes.

Nevertheless, in case different parts of the river-basins were administered by different governments, and if irrigation works on a large scale were carried out in upper Mesopotamia or in the basins of the upper Euphrates and Tigris, it might be necessary for the administration which controlled the Irak system to have an agreement as to the distribution of water with the authorities who controlled the supply higher up.

Proposed Barrage and Escape at the Head of the Euphrates Delta.—In 1911 Sir William Willcocks suggested a point below Fellūjeh near the head of the Abu Ghoreib canal as a suitable site for a barrage. But in 1916, as the result of further study of the river-bed in this neighbourhood, he expressed a preference for a point near the head of the Saqlāwiyeh canal upstream of Fellūjeh; there is here an outcrop of limestone in the bed of the Euphrates which would give a solid foundation. The Habbāniyeh escape-canal would take off water above the barrage and carry it into the Habbāniyeh depression. In 1911 Sir William Willcocks did not contemplate as part of his immediate programme the storage of Euphrates water, being concerned only with the prevention of excessive floods. He intended therefore for the present to use the Habbāniyeh and Abu Dibis depressions (which were to be connected by a cut) merely as escapes, though he looked forward to their eventual use as reservoirs. Subsequently it appeared that the Habbāniyeh basin was probably large enough to contain all the excess flood-water from the Euphrates, and it was decided to treat it as a reservoir; the connecting cut to the Abu Dibis basin was given up, and, as has already been said (p. 159), it was decided to make an outlet from the north-east end of Habbāniyeh to the Euphrates above Saqlāwiyeh.

Proposed Barrage and Escape at the Head of the Tigris Delta.—Sir William Willcocks has proposed a main and a subsidiary barrage on the Tigris 10 miles below Samarra and just below the head of the Dujeil canal. He did not include an escape for the Tigris in his programme of 1911, as the expense of such a work would have long remained beyond the means of the Turkish Government. Instead, he suggested a partial insurance against Tigris floods in a scheme noticed below. But in 1916 he pointed out that in the desert

west of the Tigris there is a trough which starts from the neighbourhood of the river near Istablāt, about 6 miles below Samarra, and runs SW. to the large depression into which the Wādi Tartar drains; and along this trough an escape-canal might be carried, though at a considerable cost. If the Tartar depression, which has not yet been surveyed, should prove sufficiently large, a reservoir might be established here, which could support the irrigation of the country between the rivers from Baghdad to Babylon. If the depression is not large enough to store all the excess flood-water of the Tigris, the escape could be carried on to the Euphrates reservoir in the Habbāniyeh basin, with which would then be connected, for the purpose of storing the additional water from the Tigris, the neighbouring depression of Abu Dibis.

Sir William Willcocks calculates the cost of a Tigris escape to Habbāniyeh and of the reservoirs in connexion with it at £22,000,000. If the Tartar depression should prove large enough to take the whole of the water from the Tigris, the cost would fall, he considers, to £12,000,000. But it would seem difficult to calculate what would be the cost of such works in the new conditions which will have been created by the war.

Other Proposals for Dealing with Tigris Floods.—In 1911 Sir William Willcocks proposed that until an escape for the excess waters of the Tigris could be constructed at the head of the delta, the following measures should be adopted: that the inundations from the Tigris at Baghdad should be reduced by an escape at Mo'adhdham, which would allow the flood-waters to spill into the depression east of Baghdad, whence they would return to the river by an outlet below the city; that the right bank of the Tigris above Baghdad should be secured by an embankment from about opposite Mansūriyeh to Kazimain; and that downstream of Baghdad towards Kut el-Amara the country between the rivers (which was to be irrigated from the Euphrates) should be protected by an embankment consisting of the spoil of the 'right Tigris canal' (for which see below, p. 165), while the floods were to be allowed to spill over the left bank. When Sir William Willcocks wrote there were frequent spills from the Tigris bend south of Ctesiphon. He proposed to make a cut across the neck of the bend in order to induce the river to silt up its former channel, and then, having allowed time for a gradual increase of water in the Tigris below this point, to carry the right Tigris canal across the bend so as to close it altogether. The cut across the neck of this loop was subsequently dug by the Turks in 1915.

Treatment of Selected Areas as Proposed in 1911

Since the scheme of irrigation put forward by Sir William Willcocks in 1911 did not take storage into account, the total area to be commanded by the works then proposed is only about 1,410,000 hectares (3,480,000 acres).

(*a*) The country between Fellūjeh and Baghdad on the north and Kūfeh and Kut el-Amara on the south was to be irrigated from the Euphrates as follows:

(i) The necessary head of water was to be obtained by means of a barrage near Fellūjeh (but see above, p. 163), as well as by the Hindiyeh Barrage.

(ii) The Saqlāwiyeh canal was to be restored and used as the feeder of a canal-system along the right bank of the Tigris. The Saqlāwiyeh was to discharge into Lake 'Aqarqūf, from the southern end of which the 'right Tigris canal' was to start. This latter canal was to be carried at first to the Tigris bend south of Ctesiphon (see p. 164), and was later to be prolonged to Kut el-Amara.

(iii) A canal along the left bank of the Euphrates from above the New Barrage to the head of the Iskanderiyeh was to feed a number of large canals (the Abu Ghoreib, Ridhwāniyeh, upper Melcha, Latifiyeh) which were to run westwards to the depression between the Tigris and Euphrates. This depression was to serve as a drain.

(iv) The Kutha canal, taking off SSE. from the Latifiyeh, was to water the interior of the country between the upper part of the Hilla branch and the Tigris towards the Shatt en-Nil. From the Kutha a western branch (the Babylon canal) was to run towards Hilla.

(v) The country along the Hindiyeh branch of the Euphrates was to be irrigated by canals taking off from above the Hindiyeh Barrage and carried along the right and left banks of the branch to beyond Hindiyeh town (Tawarīj). 'Downstream of Tawarīj, at the bifurcation of the Shamiyeh and Kūfeh branches, barrages will be needed in future, but the Hindiyeh branch is itself undergoing such great changes that the time is not yet ripe for undertaking them.'

The area commanded by these works is 650,000 hectares (1,605,500 acres), including 100,000 hectares commanded by the extension of the 'right Tigris canal' beyond the Ctesiphon bend. The estimated cost[1] of the irrigation works under pre-war conditions (the estimates

[1] In calculating the cost of these projects, Sir William Willcocks added one-third to the cost obtained from quantities and rates for 'contingencies, establishment, tools and plant, and accommodation'. The total thus obtained was

for the Habbāniyeh escape and Hindiyeh Barrage being omitted) was £T5,347,130 (£4,812,417), of which £T1,006,760 (£906,084) would go to the prolongation of the 'right Tigris canal' from the Ctesiphon bend to Kut. The total cost of agricultural works was estimated at £T6,500,000 (£5,850,000).

(*b*) The country along the Shatt el-Hai would be irrigated from the Tigris. The Shatt el-Hai would be restored and its supply increased by a barrage on the Tigris at Kut el-Amara.

The area commanded here was to be 250,000 hectares (617,500 acres). The cost of the irrigation works was estimated at £T2,757,980 (£2,482,182); that of the agricultural works at £T2,500,000 (£2,250,000).

(*c*) In the Basra district the alluvial land west and south of the city was to be irrigated from the Euphrates as follows:

The water in the Euphrates *khōr* between Gurmat 'Ali and Sūq esh-Shuyūkh would be held up in the low season by a barrage at Gurmat 'Ali. In order to prevent the increased amount of water behind the barrage from spreading over so wide an area that its evaporation would nullify the effect of the barrage, the Euphrates water would be cut off from the Hammār Lake and the old channel by a dam at Sūq esh-Shuyūkh, and its water would all pass down to Gurmat 'Ali, being confined on the north by a bank running from Sūq esh-Shuyūkh to Kurna. Thus the Hammār Lake and the old channel would be fed with Tigris water only, while the Euphrates water would be concentrated in the present *khōr* of the new channel, and when held up by the Gurmat 'Ali barrage would not be able to spread north into the Tigris marshes. It would be carried to the Basra plain by a canal passing between Basra and Zobeir.

The area to be commanded is 90,000 hectares (222,300 acres). Estimated pre-war cost of irrigation works, £T1,996,960 (£1,797,264); of agricultural works, £T900,000 (£810,000).

An estimate was also made for the reclamation of 50,000 hectares (123,500 acres) of land in the Euphrates marshes: for irrigation works, £T425,000 (£382,500); for agricultural works, £T250,000 (£225,000).

(The land between Basra and Zobeir used to be flooded mainly from the Euphrates *khōr* on the north, and also partly from the Shatt el-'Arab below Basra. In 1915–16 bunds were built from

doubled to allow for interest on the money spent during the execution of these works and their subsequent development. The result thus reached is called by Sir William Willcocks the 'true' or 'actual' cost. It is this 'actual' cost that has been quoted here and in subsequent paragraphs.

Magil to the Sha'aibeh ridge north-west of Zobeir, and from the Zobeir Gate of Basra to the high ground near Zobeir town. These bunds have held up the inundations from north and south, but it seems that the consequent increase of water in the Shatt el-'Arab has done some damage among the date-gardens on the river-bank.)

(*d*) The country between Beled and Baghdad on the right bank of the Tigris was to be watered from the Tigris through the restored Dujeil, which was to be kept supplied by means of barrages on the river immediately below the head of the canal (see above, p. 163). Large canals branching from the Dujeil were to supply the alluvial lands east and west of it.

The area commanded by these works was to be 170,000 hectares (419,000 acres). The estimated pre-war cost of the irrigation works was £T2,118,240 (£1,906,416); that of the agricultural works was £T1,700,000 (£1,530,000).

(*e*) The country along the lower course of the Nahrawān, east of of the Diyāleh, was to be irrigated, for winter crops only, by Diyāleh water carried in the Nahrawān.

At present the lower Diyāleh feeds the Khālis system on its right bank, and the Khorāsān, Mahrut, and Beled Ruz canals on its left bank. Good masonry regulators at the heads of these canals are needed, as well as regulators for the escapes back into the Diyāleh.

The existing canals appropriate the whole supply of the Diyāleh in the low-water season, but at other times they leave in the river enough water to irrigate a considerable area on which winter crops could be grown. Sir William Willcocks has proposed to turn this available water into the lower course of the Nahrawān between Abu Sifweh and Kut el-Amara. He indicates three possible ways of doing this:

(i) By a masonry barrage at Abu Sifweh; but 'this barrage would be strained very severely to maintain the level of the water needed for the canal'.

(ii) By the construction of a canal taking off from the Diyāleh under the Jebel Hamrīn and carried thence to the lower Nahrawān.

(iii) By the diversion of the main stream of the Diyāleh in the neighbourhood of the Jebel Hamrīn to a line passing east of the Beled Ruz canal and down the Khōr el-Merj and the Khōr Suweikiyeh to the Tigris east of Kut. Part of the Diyāleh waters would then be allowed to pass down the old bed of the river to Abu Sifweh, and could there be turned into the Nahrawān by an earthen dam.

The total area to be commanded along the lower Nahrawān is 200,000 hectares (494,000 acres). The cost of the irrigation works involved in scheme (iii) under pre-war conditions was put at

£T1,817,120 (£1,635,408), and the cost of the agricultural works at £T2,000,000 (£1,800,000).

(*f*) On the Tigris below Kut el-Amara the only works proposed were those considered necessary for the preservation of the navigability of the river in the marshes below Amara. The plans include the placing of weirs at the heads of the larger canals in the marshes. The question how to safeguard the navigation channel in the marshes is at present under consideration (see p. 281).

CHAPTER XI

AGRICULTURE AND LAND TENURE

Introduction—Principal cultivated areas—Soil—Methods of cultivation—Principal crops—Domestic animals—Land tenure and taxation of agriculture: the land question in Irak.

Introduction

In the recent past the wealth of Mesopotamia has consisted almost wholly in agricultural produce and in flocks and herds; and upon its agriculture and stock-raising the future fortunes of the country will chiefly depend. The natural fertility of the soil in the alluvial plains of Irak and Arabistan, and in large areas of upper Mesopotamia, promises an immense increase in the productiveness of these lands if they should be well governed, well irrigated, and adequately populated.

The staple products of the country are dates, rice, barley and wheat, wool and goats' hair, hides and skins. Date-cultivation is practically confined to Irak and southern Arabistan, and it is in the marshy and easily flooded lands of the south that most of the rice is grown. The cultivation of cotton in Irak, insignificant in the past, may become very important in the future.

In the plains of Irak and Arabistan agriculture depends mainly on irrigation, although the amount of rainfall has much to do with the success or failure of the winter crops, which include wheat and barley. In upper Mesopotamia wheat and barley are generally dependent on rainfall alone; but there is a certain amount of irrigation for rice, cotton, and other crops. In Irak, owing to the need of irrigation, the principal cultivated areas consist of belts of land adjoining rivers, canals, or marshes; the most prosperous districts are those in which it has been found easiest to get the river-water on to the land. In upper Mesopotamia the most important areas of cultivation lie in the plains, but not far from the hills, in regions where the soil is good and the rainfall plentiful enough for wheat and barley, and the streams which descend from the highlands can be used for growing cotton and rice or watering orchards.

Only a very small proportion of the cultivable area of Mesopotamia is at present under tillage. For a considerable extension of agriculture in the country there would be needed: (*a*) the establishment of law and order; (*b*) scientific irrigation; (*c*) the improvement of communications and means of transport; (*d*) the establishment of a good financial régime, and the regulation of land tenure so as to remove existing agrarian trouble; (*e*) the introduction of agricultural machinery and the improvement in other ways of agricultural methods; (*f*) an increase of population.

(*a*) The Turkish Government has failed to enforce the peace in its Mesopotamian provinces. Among the Arabs tribal fighting and the blood-feud have absorbed much of the cultivators' energies, and in some parts of the country the Fellahin have suffered from blackmailing Bedawis. In the north fertile districts have been kept unproductive by the lawlessness of the Kurds and especially by their harrying of the non-Moslem population. So too in Arabistan agriculture was partially paralysed, notably in the Dizfūl plain.

(*b*) It is obvious that Mesopotamia needs scientific irrigation under Government control. The uncoordinated and crude irrigation work of the Arab tribes has been not only inadequate, but in some ways positively harmful. It must lie with the Government of the country to construct and maintain scientifically planned irrigation works, to organize the distribution of water, to prevent excessive flooding, and to reclaim areas now rendered useless by the disintegration of the lower Euphrates and Tigris. (See Chapter X.)

(*c*) In Irak, where transport has been mainly by river, the condition of the waterways has been such as seriously to hamper the carriage of agricultural produce; thus wheat and barley grown in the Euphrates districts, having been harvested in May, might have to wait until the following spring to be brought downstream to Basra, owing to the difficulties of navigation in the low-water season. From the Mosul—Erbil region, the most important wheat-growing country in upper Mesopotamia, grain was brought down the Tigris to Baghdad by rafts (*keleks*). Before the war pack-animals were almost the only means of transporting produce by land. Bullock-carts seem to have been used only locally in a few districts in the northern part of our area.

(*d*) Under Turkish rule there have been inequalities in the assessment and payment of the taxes on agriculture. A considerable part of the agricultural population has paid its taxes irregularly or not at all. Those who could be coerced were made to pay, and the interests of the country as a whole suffered accordingly. Moreover it seems that part of the revenue was wasted for the benefit of individuals either at Constantinople or in Mesopotamia.

On some estates cultivators have been suffering from the extortions of owners or State tenants. Elsewhere landlords whose titles have been acquired by purchase from the Turkish Government have been unable to collect their rents from the tribesmen who claim the land as their own. (See further on this subject pp. 193–4.)

(*e*) At present the Arab's methods of cultivation are primitive and wasteful. But he is intelligent, and it is probable that with assistance, instruction, and control he would improve, and would be able to make use of modern implements and machinery. He has been accused of indolence; but it appears that, if he can feel that he is working for himself, and can see that the amount of his profit will depend on his industry, he can work hard enough.

(*f*) The number of the inhabitants of Mesopotamia is very far below what is needed for the exploitation of the cultivable soil. The supply of labour for the land will increase, but it cannot be expected that in the near future the increase will be great. Nomads may settle down, and semi-nomads take to a more thorough tilling of the soil. The cessation of tribal warfare may release sheikhs' retainers for the fields. Women's labour may be employed more regularly. Meanwhile with better political, economic, and hygienic conditions the birth-rate would rise and the death-rate decline. On the whole it seems that the population of the country should be able, with the assistance of labour-saving machinery, to take advantage of a gradual extension of the cultivable area by means of irrigation.

Principal Cultivated Areas

The principal areas of cultivation are the following:

(*a*) In Irak[1]:

(i) The banks of the Shatt el-'Arab, which form one of the chief date-producing areas of the world.

(ii) The neighbourhood of the lower Euphrates about Nāsirīyeh and Sūq esh-Shuyūkh. In this low-lying marshy region, where the river water is widely distributed, the most important crop is rice. Millet, maize, and on the higher lands barley and wheat, are also grown.

(iii) The Amara district, including the lands along the Jehāleh (Chahala), Michrīyeh, and Majarr el-Kebīr canals. Here barley and wheat are grown on the higher ground near the river, rice and millet on the lower slopes towards the

[1] Before the war only about 5 per cent. of the cultivable area in Irak bore crop.

marshes into which the canals drain. Rice and barley appear to be the most important crops.

(iv) The Hai district. Barley and wheat are grown along the Shatt el-Hai.

(v) The neighbourhood of the Hindiyeh and Hilla branches of the Euphrates from Museyib as far down as the Bahr-i-Shināfiyeh on the Hindiyeh arm, and the neighbourhood of Diwāniyeh on the Hilla. This is an immensely fertile region with a comparatively large agricultural population. Conditions here are specially favourable to the increase of production in the immediate future by the organization and extension of irrigation. The principal crops are wheat and barley, rice on the lands to which abundant water can be brought, and dates.

(vi) The Baghdad—Bāqūbeh district. The alluvial plain NNE. of Baghdad, watered by the Khālis canal from the Diyāleh, produces chiefly wheat and barley; some rice and cotton are raised in summer; dates are grown along the Tigris near Baghdad.

(*b*) In Arabistan and Behbehan:

(i) The Persian bank of the Shatt el-'Arab, producing chiefly dates.

(ii) The Fellāhīyeh district (watered by the Jerrāhi): dates, rice, barley, and wheat.

(iii) The Hawīzeh district, west of the Kārūn river, and including the marshes of the Karkeh: rice and dates.

(iv) The Ahwāz district, from the Kārūn eastwards towards the Jerrāhi, produces wheat and barley in years of favourable rainfall.

(v) The Dizfūl—Shushtar region. This area, and especially the Dizfūl plain, has great agricultural possibilities. Wheat is the staple crop; a good deal of rice is also grown.

(vi) The Ramuz plain produces wheat, barley, and rice.

(vii) The Behbehan plain: wheat, barley, and rice.

(*c*) In Upper Mesopotamia:

(i) The region of the Zābs. This is the most important agricultural area in upper Mesopotamia. It includes the plains between the Tigris in the neighbourhood of Mosul and the lower course of the Great Zāb, the Erbil plain between the Great and the Lesser Zāb, and a chain of cultivated areas extending along the foot of the Kurdish hills from Erbil to

Tūz Khurmatli. Wheat and barley are here the staple crops.

(ii) The plains at the southern foot of the Tur Abdin. Here the most highly cultivated land seems to be that watered by the Jaghjagh river in the neighbourhood of Nisibin. Wheat, barley, and rice are the principal crops produced.

(iii) The plains beneath the southern spurs of the Qarajeh Dāgh highlands including the districts of Urfeh, Harrān, and Serūj.

Moderately productive areas in Upper Mesopotamia are:

(i) Parts of the middle Euphrates valley, especially the Deir ez-Zor—Meyyadīn stretch, the Anah district, and the Hadīseh —Eluz district.

(ii) The Beled Sinjar—Tel A'far region at the foot of the Jebel Sinjar and its outliers.

(iii) The Diarbekr basin, with a south-western extension between the Euphrates and the north-west and west side of the Qarajeh Dāgh highlands, including the Severek district.

Soil

The alluvial soil of the plains of Irak is mainly an argillaceous, calcareous loam, homogeneous in character, and of great potential fertility. It is friable and porous, and to a great extent free from sterilizing salts, although these occur in uncultivated areas that are liable to flood and lack adequate drainage. The presence of a large amount of lime in the soil, in some cases as much as 14 per cent. and averaging 12 per cent., makes it easy to work but less retentive of moisture than it would otherwise have been. Samples of soil from the Tigris and Euphrates districts have been analysed, and the result shows the presence of a considerable quantity of fine sand; this should be an advantage where salt is present and washing is necessary. The principal salt which occurs is sodium chloride (common salt). Carbonate of soda is not present, and the cleansing of the land should not be difficult where the supply of water is adequate and drainage can be arranged. In the salt lands the average percentage of soluble salts is 5·28, which is enough to prevent the growth of vegetation. In the samples of soil analysed an adequate supply of the essentials of plant food has been found. The percentage of nitrogen, averaging 0·12 per cent., is equal to that of the soils of Egypt; for soil not under cultivation or vegetation the percentage is high. The nitrogen probably occurs in

forms which are not readily available, but cultivation would be likely to alter this. Potash is present in more than average quantity, and averages 0·4–0·6 per cent.; this is more than enough to meet the requirements of any ordinary crop. Phosphoric acid is found also in sufficient quantity (0·2 per cent.) to permit the growth of all ordinary crops without the application of special manures. Possibly cotton might be benefited by the addition of phosphate, but this can be determined only by experiment, and depends to a great extent on local conditions.

Information as to the soils of Arabistan and upper Mesopotamia is very slight and vague. The soil of the alluvial lands of Arabistan, especially along the lower Kārūn and in the Dizfūl plain, is believed to be of great fertility.

In upper Mesopotamia a large part of the northern Jezīreh has a good soil, e.g. in the Serūj district (a heavy red earth), in the Urfeh—Harrān plain (a red loam), and in the Khabūr basin round Nisibin (a red-brown loam and humus). In the plains east of the middle Tigris (between Mosul and the Great Zāb, between the Great and the Lesser Zāb, and in a strip of country along the foot of the hills from Altun Köprü to the Diyāleh) there is a fertile argillaceous loam. Strips of alluvial soil occur along the troughs of the Tigris, Khabūr, Belikh, and other rivers.

Methods of Cultivation

Methods of cultivation have so far been primitive, and have in many ways tended to keep down production. No trouble has been taken to clean and select seed. The preparation of the land for wheat and barley has been very slight; in Irak one light ploughing has been thought enough. The ploughs in use have been wooden. Manuring has not been practised, the dung being used for fuel. Threshing has been done generally by cattle or buffaloes which tread out the corn, but near the towns a native threshing machine of Mosul manufacture has sometimes been used. Arrangements for storing crops have been inadequate. Grain has been put on the market in a very dirty state. There has been no method in use of preserving fodder crops such as hay.

The introduction of machinery for ploughing, reaping, and threshing is an urgent need of the country. Fuel might be supplied by oil from Arabistan or perhaps eventually from Turkish Mesopotamia. Reaping machines have already been procured for Irak.

It has already been noticed (p. 169) that agriculture is more closely dependent on irrigation in Irak than in upper Mesopotamia. The

means of irrigation in Irak are water-lifts (*cherrads*), oil-pumps, canals, and dams (on these see further p. 160). Along the river-channels the ground slopes downwards away from the banks. Distributing canals descend these slopes and in many instances tail into marshes. The higher part of the slope, nearest the main channel, being the driest is most likely to be suited for the cultivation of barley and wheat. The lower slopes, being more easily watered, may be used for rice-fields. Millet may be raised on intermediate levels between the winter crops and the rice. Changes in the location or the character of cultivation may be caused from time to time by changes in the distribution of the water-supply. Land that at one time produced rice may now, owing to a drop in the water-levels, yield only wheat and barley, or vice versa; or cultivation may have to be given up altogether, the water that formerly supplied the land being diverted elsewhere. The disproportion between the area of cultivable soil and the area actually cultivated makes it easy to break new ground. It is said that the policy of the Dā'irat es-Sanīyeh was to acquire the most easily worked canals and to push each as far as it would go, never irrigating the same land a second time until the canal had been carried to its greatest possible length. The Arab cultivator is wasteful in the use of water, and his crude methods of obtaining it are partly responsible for the present disintegration of the rivers. (See p. 154.)

In upper Mesopotamia irrigation is employed chiefly in the cultivation of rice, cotton, maize, millet, and fruits. In parts of the middle Tigris and middle Euphrates valleys water is lifted by *cherrads* (see p. 160). Where the water has to be raised to a considerable height *naurs* are used. These are large water-wheels, built out into a stream on dams and lifting the water by means of buckets.[1] It is said that in the Mosul neighbourhood water-wheels are sometimes placed in wells. The damming of streams for irrigation is a common practice; the water held up by the dam is either allowed to flood the neighbouring fields or diverted into runnels (*karezes*). In some parts of the country, and notably in the Erbil—Kirkuk region, such runnels may be carried underground (*qanats*, sometimes also called *karezes*).

Canal irrigation is used in Arabistan. In the Fellāhīyeh district there is an elaborate canal system supplied by the waters of the Jerrāhi. In the northern province underground channels are found. On the Kārūn irrigation was formerly maintained by means of great dams at Shushtar and Ahwāz (see p. 156, foot-note).

[1] Similar wheels are used to drive flour-mills.

Principal Crops

There are two harvests in Mesopotamia—the spring (*shitwi*) and the autumn (*saifi*). The crops harvested in spring ('spring' or 'winter' crops) include wheat, barley, beans, and *hurtumān* (a kind of oats); they are sown between October and March and are harvested for the most part in April or May. Crops harvested in autumn ('autumn' or 'summer' crops) are dates, rice, maize (*idhrah*), millet (*dukhn*), lentils (*māsh*), kidney pea (*lūbiyeh*), sesame, cotton, and tobacco. The summer field crops are sown in April, May, or June and are harvested in August, September, or October.

Field Crops (Foodstuffs)

(*a*) *Winter Crops*

Wheat and barley are by far the most important of the winter crops. In Irak and Arabistan they are grown principally on the higher and drier lands that are capable of irrigation, but they are affected by the quantity of the rainfall and are even sometimes raised on unirrigated land. In upper Mesopotamia they are usually dependent on rainfall alone.

It appears that in Irak considerably more barley than wheat is grown. Among the chief areas in Irak producing these grains appear to be:

(i) The lands watered from the Euphrates between the Saqlāwiyeh canal and the Bahr-i-Shināfiyeh. Here Hilla has been the centre of the grain trade. On the Hindiyeh branch of the Euphrates much land formerly under rice has now come under wheat and barley.

(ii) The lands along the Euphrates between Samāweh and Sūq esh-Shuyūkh.

(iii) The neighbourhood of the Shatt el-Hai (the Shatt el-Gharāf).

(iv) The land between the Diyāleh and Tigris watered by the Khālis canal.

(v) The Amara district.

In Arabistan wheat and barley are grown on the drier cultivated lands throughout the country. Ahwāz is the centre of the grain trade. Wheat is the staple product of the Dizfūl plain.

In upper Mesopotamia the principal corn-growing area is in the plains east and south-east of Mosul in the neighbourhood of the Zābs. It appears that in this region there is more wheat than barley. The vilayet of Diarbekr (which includes besides the Diarbekr basin the districts of Nisibin and Mardīn) produces enough wheat and barley to export to Mosul and Baghdad when there is a shortage

in these provinces. It seems that a good deal of wheat and barley is also grown in the Serūj and Urfeh—Harrān districts.

Wheat and barley are generally sown either in September and October or between November and the end of January, i.e. either before or after the first cold days of winter. In some districts it is usual to wait for the first autumn rains before sowing. The earlier sowing (*hirfi*) seems to produce crops which thrive better, and, as they ripen in good time, are more likely to escape the attacks of locusts than those raised from the later sowing (*athli*). Barley sown in September in the Hilla district is high enough to afford fodder for cattle in November, and after being eaten down once springs again with greater vigour. In the Basra vilayet one reason for late sowing is that tribes which grow wheat and barley frequently migrate in autumn to the rice-lands in order to help in the harvest there, so that their own lands are neglected till the end of December or January. The land is only lightly ploughed, and the upturned soil is not exposed to the sun for any length of time. After the sowing a cross ploughing covers the seed. The harvest begins in April. The corn is threshed after being dried in the sun. Usually it is trodden out by buffaloes or cows. The grain often suffers from careless storage and insufficient protection against the weather.

The amounts of wheat and barley produced in Mesopotamia have varied greatly according to the amount of rainfall, the river-levels (abnormally high winter floods may do much damage to these crops), and political conditions.

Mesopotamian wheat is of a hard red kind. There are white and black varieties of barley, the white being in demand for export, the black consumed locally, chiefly as fodder for horses. (See further on the qualities of these grains pp. 215–16.) Experiments are being made in Irak with Indian wheat and barley.

Beans are planted in Irak at the end of September and are harvested at the beginning of April; green beans, however, appear on the market about the middle of February. The beans raised are of various kinds, among them the broad, French, and haricot varieties.

Hurtumān, described as 'a sort of oats', is sown in Irak in January and reaped about the end of May.

(*b*) *Summer Crops*

Rice.—The cultivation of rice (*timn*) is of great and growing importance in Irak. The rice-lands are those which can be most abundantly supplied with water. The most important areas of rice-production in Irak are:

(*a*) In the south: in the marsh-lands of the lower Euphrates, especially in the neighbourhood of Sūq esh-Shuyūkh, and on the lands watered from the Tigris and its distributaries near and below Amara.

(*b*) In the west: in the lower and moister parts of the country along the Hindiyeh and Hilla branches of the Euphrates. On the Shatt el-Hindiyeh a recent drop in the water-levels has caused the conversion of large areas of rice-land into wheat and barley fields. On the Shatt el-Hilla rice is grown along the Dighāreh canal and about the Khōr el-Afej.

In Arabistan rice is grown in the Fellāhīyeh and Hawīzeh districts and in the Dizfūl plain.

In the plains of upper Mesopotamia there is rice-cultivation in districts at the foot of the hills where streams from the highlands provide an abundant water-supply, as at Nisibin. Rice is raised also in some upland plains and valleys where the drainage from the surrounding hills collects.

In Irak rice is generally sown broadcast on the silt deposited by the falling floods. Some at least of the rice-growing tribes of southern Irak do not use ploughs and therefore have been dependent on the lavish inundation of their fields by water heavily laden with silt. In southern Irak, on the lands watered from the lower Tigris, there are three kinds of rice, differing according to the method of cultivation. These are (i) *hirfi*: this is early broadcast rice, sown in May on the higher middle ground levels below the wheat and barley, and ripening at the end of August; (ii) *athli*: this is late broadcast rice, sown in June on the lower middle lands below *hirfi* and ripening about the middle of October; it needs watering until September at least; (iii) *shittal*: this is accounted the best rice for eating; it is raised almost entirely from immature plants of the *hirfi* and *athli* transplanted with the falling of the floods to lower levels which have been covered with some depth of water for upwards of three months; it does not mature until November. In western Irak there is a red rice which is sown at the end of February and reaped in July, while a white rice is sown in May and June and reaped towards the end of September. *Shittal* is little grown in the Hilla region.

The size of the rice crop in Irak is much subject to fluctuations, owing to its dependence on the height of the river-levels during the flood season, which vary from year to year. Heavy crops of rice are harvested, but the quality is as a rule coarse.[1] Rice straw, called *būh*, is used as fodder for cattle.

[1] According to one authority the rice that is put on to the Baghdad market includes four principal kinds—*nakkāzeh* and *'ambarbu*, the best varieties, of which

Maize is grown both in upper and in lower Mesopotamia and in Arabistan. In Irak it is sown in March and harvested in September.

Millet is an important crop both in upper and in lower Mesopotamia and is raised in some parts of Arabistan. In Irak it may be grown on the intermediate levels between the winter cereals and rice, or on lower ground, in the marshes, left dry when the floods contract, or again by the banks of the rivers where the floods reach high enough to soak the earth and recede early enough to admit of sowing. It is used as food for cattle and poultry and is mixed with wheat to make bread.

Lentils.—In Irak the variety of lentil known as *māsh* is raised in the better-watered districts; it appears that a damp, sandy soil is preferred for this crop. There are two varieties—a green and a black. Both sorts are sown at the end of June; the green ripens at the end of September, the black at the beginning of November. The Arabs mix *māsh* with rice to make soup. A certain amount is exported to India. The lentil proper (*adas*) of Irak is said to be inferior. Lentils are also grown in upper Mesopotamia.

Kidney peas (*lūbiyeh*) are sown in June and harvested in October, or sold green in June and July. There are two varieties of dry *lūbiyeh*—a red and a white—of which the red is the cheaper.

Fruits and Garden Crops

Dates have hitherto formed the most valuable item among the exports of Mesopotamia. The banks of the Shatt el-'Arab are one of the principal date-producing areas of the world. Among date-growing districts of secondary importance in Irak are the following: along the lower Euphrates from Kurna to El-Medineh, and in the neighbourhood of Sūq esh-Shuyūkh; in western Irak, round Hilla, Kūfeh, Kerbela, and Shifātheh; on the Tigris about Baghdad. In southern Arabistan dates are grown chiefly on the Persian bank of the lower Shatt el-'Arab and in the Fellāhiyeh district. In northern Arabistan dates are mentioned among the products of the Ramuz plain, but are said not to flourish in the neighbourhood of Dizfūl. In the southern part of upper Mesopotamia there are date gardens at a few places, notably at Ānah; but the date-palm is found only sporadically in the northern plains of the Jezīreh and is absent from the hills.

The date-palm needs irrigation, and one of the advantages of the

the second is peculiarly scented and in favour with Indians and Persians; *shimbah*, the commonest kind; and *huwaizāwi*, a cheap reddish rice consumed by the poorer classes.

Shatt el-'Arab district lies in the ease with which the plantations are watered by the rise of the tide. The river-water reaches them through creeks from which are cut side-channels intersecting the gardens. The tree is raised from offshoots, which, where water is plentiful and the soil good, develop rapidly and bear fruit within four or five years. Early in April the blossom of the female palm, which is the fruit-bearing tree, is fertilized by hand. The Arabs climb the trees to insert a sprig of the pollen-bearing male blossom in the sheath which contains the female flowers. About one month after fertilization the fruit forms; it is partially ripe in August, and is sold in the bazaars as food, but is not yet fit for preservation. In September the fruit is fully ripe, and the clusters are then carefully cut off. When required for local consumption the dates are spread on the ground and left to dry for about a month. For export they are sold damp to the date-brokers. A considerable importation of labour takes place at the time of the date harvest; compounds (*cherdaghs*) are established in the largest date gardens, and here the dates are packed by the Arabs for export. The date crop is liable to suffer from the effects of frost in winter and from excessive heat or drought, and from hot winds in the summer which may cause the fruit to fall before it is matured.

Many varieties of dates are grown in Irak; of these *hallawis*, *khadrawis*, *sairs*, *zehdis*, and *deris* are exported. *Hallawis* and *khadrawis* are the best. (See further on the date trade pp. 214–15.)

The date-palm and its fruit are put to a number of uses in Irak. The ripe fruit is one of the principal articles of food in the country, while the windfalls are collected and are used either as human food or as cattle-fodder. *Araq* is distilled from *zehdi* dates. The branches of the date-palm are used for fuel and as material for furniture-making, building, and fencing. The trunks are used for foot-bridges as well as in house-building. The fruit-stalks are made up into brooms, the fibre into rope, and the leaves into matting.

Other Fruits.—In Irak common fruits are melons, water-melons, pomegranates, oranges (in the northern part of the country), sweet and sour limes, apricots, quinces, and grapes; almonds, figs, citrons, apples, nectarines, peaches, and plums are also grown. The mulberry is cultivated in the Bāqūbeh district in connexion with the silk industry.

In Arabistan pomegranates, figs, and grapes are widely distributed; limes, oranges, citrons, quinces, apples, pears, apricots, plums, peaches, mulberries, water-melons, musk-melons, and almonds are grown in various places. Oranges are said to do well in the Dizfūl plain.

In upper Mesopotamia the vine is common in the hill-country. The Severek vineyards produce a wine which has some local reputation. Other fruits more or less widely distributed are pomegranates, melons, water-melons, oranges, apricots, mulberries, almonds, peaches, plums, figs, apples, pears, and cherries. The oranges of upper Mesopotamia are of good quality; the fruit ripens by December. The olive is cultivated in some of the lower hill districts.

The figs, apricots, and plums grown in Mesopotamia are said to be excellent, and it has been suggested that the dried-fruit industry might be profitably developed.

Vegetables.—Among the vegetables of Irak are *bamia* (okra), onions, radishes, beet-root, cucumber, garlic, cabbages, cauliflowers, turnips, carrots, tomatoes, artichokes, lettuce, brinjals, cress, and pumpkins. Most of the garlic used in Irak is imported from Persia. The cultivation of the potato is being introduced.

Before the war the cultivation of vegetables in Irak was of little importance, except near the larger towns. In the Basra vilayet it was only in suburban districts that the produce of vegetable gardens was regularly assessed for rent or revenue. Elsewhere landlords were usually content to receive from vegetable-plots such presents in kind as their tenants might offer them. Recently vegetable cultivation has been greatly developed in the areas occupied by the British.

Vegetables raised in Arabistan include tomatoes, lettuce, cucumbers, garlic, and onions.

In upper Mesopotamia are grown *bamia* (okra), onions, cabbages, carrots, beet-root, horse-radishes, tomatoes, cucumbers, pumpkins, asparagus, and peas. It is reported that the potato has been introduced in the Mosul vilayet.

Cotton, Tobacco, and Other Plants

Cotton.—The cotton grown before the war in Mesopotamia was not considerable in quantity, and for the most part was poor in quality. But much is expected from the development of cotton-cultivation in Irak.

Cotton has been grown in northern Irak, mainly round Khanikin and elsewhere, on lands watered by canals taking off from the Diyāleh river, at Mandali, and also on the Tigris near Baghdad, while small quantities have been raised in the Hilla district. In upper Mesopotamia it is grown at Ānah and Nisibin, and in the Urfeh—Harrān plain, and also in a number of districts in the vilayet of Mosul. It is cultivated in northern Arabistan, e. g. in the Dizfūl plain.

Two indigenous varieties of cotton are reported to be found in the Baghdad market—Iraki and Mukharesh, of which the latter (cultivated round Khanikin and Mandali) is said to be the better. Both kinds are short-fibred. On the Tigris, near Baghdad, and at Ānah an Indian cotton (Hindi), better than the Iraki, is raised. The cotton grown in the Hilla district is favourably reported on.

Mesopotamian cotton is used locally for manufacturing coarse cloth, stuffing mattresses, &c.

It is possible that Irak may in the future become an important cotton-producing country. Climate and soil are considered to be favourable to the cultivation of the plant. Experiments with imported varieties of seed are at present being made.

Tobacco is grown in many parts of upper Mesopotamia and in some districts of northern and western Irak (Diyāleh region, Kerbela, Nejef, and Hilla); also in northern Arabistan. Sowings begin in March, and the tobacco is gathered about the end of August. The manufacture and sale of tobacco in Turkey was a monopoly of the *Régie cointéressée des Tabacs de l'Empire Ottoman*, a joint-stock company, which was practically a branch of the Public Debt Department.

Sesame is found in Irak and Arabistan and in upper Mesopotamia. It is a summer crop. In Irak it is generally grown on land that has been inundated by river-water and left dry by the falling flood. On the Shatt el-'Arab it is found along the creeks taking off from the river. It is mostly pressed for oil, which is used for cooking and lighting, but sometimes it is roasted for food or used in the manufacture of sweetmeats.

Flax is cultivated for linseed in the vilayet of Diarbekr, and also on Persian territory in the Dizfūl plain and in Kirmanshah.

Lucerne is grown for fodder in some districts of Irak and Arabistan.

Poppies are cultivated for opium in the Dizfūl and Shushtar districts of northern Arabistan and in the province of Kirmanshah. The crop is apparently collected about May or June.

Indigo is grown in the Dizfūl plain and in the Kirmanshah province.

Pepper is grown in the Shushtar district.

Domestic Animals

Camels.—These are used for riding and for pack-transport in the Mesopotamian plains (see further p. 278).

The riding-camel (*dhelul*) is almost always a female; the burden camel is usually a male. The life of camels may extend to 40 or 50

years; they are trained to carry loads from the third year, but are not reckoned fit for work till the sixth; and though in regions where they are well treated, as in Nejd, they may work when about 25 years old, they are commonly worn out before reaching half that age.

The great virtue of the species is patience. Though resenting the process of being laden, when once started camels will go on until they fall so utterly exhausted that it may be necessary to destroy them: it is cheaper to buy three camels than to bring round one which is exhausted. If well treated they do not bite or kick. The driver makes the laden beast kneel by uttering a guttural cry like *ikh—kh—kh!*; if that fails, he strikes the animal on the neck with his hand; if there is still resistance, he draws it down by the beard. If a camel is unruly the Arab controls it by laying hold of the cartilage of its nose, whereupon it at once becomes amenable. The trot is the dromedary's easiest pace; the walk, if long continued, has been described as back-breaking for the inexperienced. After rain, upon loamy or slippery soil, camels are useless, slipping so badly that a halt must be made till the ground is dry.

The Bedawi's camel picks up its food where it can, living on the roughest grazing, browsing on thorny acacia and tamarisk, and finding no small part of its sustenance in the *rimth*, or saline bush, which is to camels as flesh meat is to man. When special effort is required or grazing insufficient food is carried. The great Hajj camels do not browse but are fed, as in Syria, on balls of boiled pulse, with addition of knot-grass forage (*thurm*). The Ageyl usually carry a mixture of millet and coarse flour called *alej*, which they make up every night into balls the size of a man's fist, giving five or six to each of their camels. In southern Nejd the Arabs roll dates into balls, stones and all, and those are reputed to be beneficial as medicine. When the spring pasture begins the camels increase in vigour and put on flesh. At this season they will go more than two months without drinking, the moisture in the succulent fresh plants sufficing for their needs. In winter they pass a full week waterless without discomfort; in summer they must usually drink at intervals of three days, though a good dromedary, carrying only a rider, will subsist without water for two days longer.

The largest and most powerful Arabian camels are those bred by the Anazeh; the fastest come from central Arabia and Oman, though the breed of the country behind Aden is locally renowned for speed. The pure-blooded camel does not flourish at a great distance from its native region. The Turks have used thoroughbred Arabian dromedaries for carrying dispatches in Mesopotamia and the Syrian

Desert; but it is said that north of the 30th parallel they soon deteriorate and cannot maintain their former speed. Central Arabian camels are generally grey or white; in the north a dun colour is preferred; black is supposed to indicate an uncertain temper.

A well-bred dromedary will perform great feats of endurance. Leachman states that mail-carriers between Damascus and Baghdad have ridden 60 miles a day for nine days in succession.

Camels are bred by the nomad and semi-nomad tribes. The greatest breeders among all the Bedawis are the Anazeh of the Syrian Desert (the Fed'an and Amarat about the Euphrates valley, the Sba' on the Deir—Damascus road, the Ruweileh on the Syrian border). The Anazeh may own some 300,000 head, and their camels are reputed the largest and strongest in all Arabia. The Mesopotamian Shammār own perhaps some 10,000 head. Some of the nomads and semi-nomads of Irak breed camels, but very few of them are exported; among the best are those of the Beni Lām. There is scarcely any camel-breeding in Arabistan.

Horses.—Horses are bred for riding by Arabs and Kurds, the former preferring mares for this purpose. The Arab attaches great importance to the pedigree of the finer breed of horses, and the descent of such animals is preserved by tradition; celebrated horses are valued at a high price and in many instances they are not purchasable.

Good breeds of Arab horses are raised in the Hilla and Diwāniyeh districts of the Euphrates, on the Tigris by the Beni Lām, in the Jezīreh by the Shammār, in the Syrian Desert by the Anazeh and in the neighbourhood of Diarbekr. The Mesopotamian breeds have a good reputation, but are inferior to the best of Nejd and Syria.

Horses over short distances will outstrip and overtake the fastest riding-camels; for purposes of general transport in the desert, however, their value is negligible, as they suffer from thirst and cannot take the coarse grazing which contents the camel. Horses are chiefly valued by the Arabs for purposes of war; their ability to cover a wide space of ground in a short time makes them specially valuable for this. To ride a horse is a sign of importance among the Arabs, and for a sheikh's horse the difficulty of providing water is sometimes overcome by taking a foster camel, on the milk of which, when other sources fail, the horse can live. The Bedawi rides either bare-backed or on a pad with a slender girth, guiding his horse with a halter only. The bit is not used in the desert, and hoofs are left unshod.

In Mesopotamia a native shoe is used which covers nearly the whole of the frog of the hoof, and only a small oval aperture is left in the centre. The result seems to be that animals are frequently

lamed by pebbles which become wedged in the hoof through the hole in the shoe.

The Kurdish breed of horses is raised in the hill country of Kurdistan, and in the districts round Diarbekr and Mosul. Arab blood, in some cases mixed with Turkoman, Persian, and other strains, forms the basis of the horse stock seen among the Kurds. These horses, together with others of inferior Arab strains, are mostly used for transport purposes and for working water-lifts.

Mules.—The mules used in Mesopotamia are bred chiefly in south-western or western Persia, and to some extent also by Kurdish tribes on Turkish territory. They are employed as pack-animals (mostly in the hills) and to draw vehicles. In the Diarbekr vilayet and the neighbourhood of Kirkuk they are used in agricultural work. (On the mule as a transport animal see p. 279.) There are important mule-markets at Dizfūl and Shushtar. The mules there procurable are on the whole good, though they are commonly underfed and overworked. Mules in Mesopotamia are worked from the age of 3 or even $2\frac{1}{2}$ years, and do not live long; it is rare to see a mule over 14 years old. They should therefore be bought at ages of from 3 to 8 years; those of three years are the best. They may be roughly divided into four classes:

(*a*) The Arab mule, bred from Arab mares and donkeys in the deserts south of the Persian mountains. This is a useful pack-animal, with good girth and bone and short back; there are practically no draught animals in this class.

(*b*) The Persian mule, bred from Persian mares and donkeys north of the mountains, and usually known as the Isfahan mule. This class is the best to be procured in large numbers; it includes draught and pack-animals in about equal proportions. The mules are brought across the passes as soon as the routes are clear of snow, and can be purchased in normal years at Dizfūl and Shushtar from about the middle of March onwards; Shushtar would probably yield three times as many of this class as Dizfūl. If carrying rates from Ahwāz and Shushtar to Isfahan are high, owing to the late opening of routes and the accumulation of goods for transit, muleteers will not sell their animals readily. Ahwāz is useless as a purchasing centre, as muleteers arriving there can always arrange contracts for return journeys. Isfahan is the best purchasing centre for mules, and animals should be obtainable there at all times, except during the ploughing and reaping seasons, December and January, April and May.

(*c*) The Bakhtiyāri mule is bred from cross-bred mares of poor type, usually half Arab, and inferior donkeys. This mule is a small

and inferior pack-animal, though it usually has good bone, and animals of this type are procurable at all seasons at Dizfūl and in lesser numbers at Shushtar.

(*d*) The Pusht-i-Kūh mules, commonly so called, are big-boned animals of fine type which are brought unbroken and wild to Dizfūl from the north-west by their Sagwand Lur and Kurdish breeders. They are sold to Dizfūl muleteers at ages from 1 to 3 years, and are prematurely broken down by overwork. These mules frequently stand 14·2 and 14·3 hands, and an animal of about 16 hands has been seen. Good arrangements for sale and purchase of these mules exist at Dizfūl and Shushtar, though in 1916 a local boycott by certain sects caused difficulties which would not arise in normal years.

In upper Mesopotamia Mosul, Kirkuk, and Diarbekr seem to be important mule-markets. The mule breeding of Mesopotamia is unimportant compared with that of Persia. The animals sold in the market at Kirkuk are probably mainly bred by the tribes of Persian Kurdistan and the Kirmanshah provinces. There is a certain amount of mule-breeding in the Diarbekr vilayet, in the neighbourhood of Mardīn and of Jezīret-ibn-'Omar, and in and round the Diarbekr basin.

Donkeys.—The ordinary pack-donkey is a small and wiry animal, black or brown in colour. Large numbers of these are owned by the Arab tribes in the plains of Irak and are used for carrying water and other loads; there are considerable numbers also in the Diarbekr vilayet. Large white or silver-coloured riding-donkeys which command a high price are also bred in Irak in the districts round Baghdad, Hilla, and Samāweh. Donkeys of this class are in much request all over the Ottoman Empire.

Sheep.—A large part of the pastoral wealth of Mesopotamia consists in huge flocks of sheep, which range far over the plains in the spring when there is good pasturage to be found, and in dry seasons collect by the rivers, and in the well-watered areas near the hills. Sheep-rearing is one of the principal occupations of the nomad and semi-nomad Arab tribes. It is the custom of some tribes to let the rams remain permanently with their flocks, with the result that the ewes may bear lambs twice in the course of the year.

Breeds of sheep in Mesopotamia are not clearly defined in the available information. They may, however, be roughly classified according to their wool into three groups. (*a*) The *Arabi* breed is reared on the plains, characteristics of the wool being a crinkly fleece of comparatively fine fibre and bright appearance. This wool is used for making blankets and other coarse woollen textures,

and is exported chiefly to Great Britain and the Continent. The numbers of this breed have decreased considerably during periods of drought and inclement weather. (*b*) The *Karadi* breed is found chiefly on the Kurdish hills north and west of Mosul, round Kirkuk, and on the Persian border. The Karadi sheep are fatter and of a stronger constitution than the Arab variety; the wool has a long coarse and hairy staple of shiny appearance; it is used for weaving carpets and other heavy textures. Large quantities of this wool are sent to America and Europe. (*c*) The *Awassi* breed takes its name from a tribe of nomad Arabs named Aweiz, who frequent the plains between Mosul and Aleppo. It is probably a cross between the Arabi and the Karadi breeds which may have occurred accidentally by hill sheep mixing with those of the Arab variety at the time when the nomad flock-masters take up their summer quarters at the foot of the hills which border the northern end of the Mesopotamian plains. In Awassi wool the characteristics of both Arabi and Karadi wool may be found. Its staple is coarser than Arabi but finer than Karadi. In recent years the Arab characteristics are said to predominate, making it difficult to distinguish an Awassi fleece from one of Arab wool. The demand for this class of wool has increased considerably in Europe and America for the making of coarse yarns.

Fat-tailed Caramanian sheep are found in upper Mesopotamia.

(On the export trade in sheep and wool and on the tanning and export of sheepskins see pp. 223–4, 218–22, 228.)

Goats.—The Kurds of upper Mesopotamia own very large herds of goats. It is reported that in the Mosul vilayet there are three breeds—the Syrian, the Angora, and the Kurdish—of which the last two have long silky hair. Mohair is clipped from Angora goats and probably from cross-breed animals as well. It is exported, as also are goat-skins, raw or tanned (see pp. 220–1). In Irak, where goats are much less numerous than in the north, their principal use is to provide goats' hair from which the black tents of the nomads and semi-nomads are made.

Cattle.—Cattle-breeding is on the whole of less importance than sheep-breeding in the plains or goat-breeding in the hills. There are, however, in the plains of Mesopotamia considerable herds of cattle owned by the settled or semi-settled Arab tribes in the neighbourhood of the Tigris and Euphrates. The nomad Arabs are not cattle-breeders and regard cattle-owning as typical of the fellahin, whom they despise. In Irak the herds of the Beni Lām are said to be the largest and finest. In the north some of the nomad Kurdish tribes, as well as the settled agricultural population, possess cattle.

As to breeds of cattle, there is very little information available.

According to one authority three breeds are found in Irak—*Restaki, Iraki,* and *Jenūbi*—of which the last-named is the finest. In the Mosul vilayet a large and a small breed are distinguished, besides humped oxen. These last are fairly common in the Euphrates valley.

Cattle are used for agriculture and transport. The cows are said to be generally poor milkers and to remain in milk only for about three months. Cow-hides are tanned and exported, and there is some export of cattle to Syria and Egypt.

Buffaloes are most common in the marshes of southern Irak. Here the Ma'dan (Āl Bū Mohammed) own very large buffalo herds with which they roam over the country. In the daytime during the hot weather the marsh-buffaloes remain completely submerged in water, except for their muzzles and their long horns; at night they are herded together by the Arabs who light fires in order to keep off stinging insects. In winter the animals are kept in sheds warmed by fires of rice-straw or reeds. The butter made from the milk of buffaloes is inferior to that made from cows' milk, which it is sometimes used to adulterate. The marsh-buffaloes are not employed in agriculture.

Buffaloes are also found in upper Mesopotamia (where they are used for agricultural and transport work) and in the damper parts of Arabistan.

Land Tenure and Taxation of Agriculture: The Land Question in Irak

Land Tenure

Under the law of the Turkish Empire, land is divided into the following classes:

(*a*) *Mulk*: freehold property. There are four sub-classes of *mulk* in two of which the land reverts to the State on failure of heirs. The *tapu* tenure in Irak (see p. 190) approximates closely to *mulk*.

(*b*) *Miri*: owned by the State and leased to individuals. The tenant of *miri* land holds a deed (*sanad*) recognizing his possession.

(*Sanīyeh* lands, though now the property of the State, differ from *miri* lands in their history and their management. They are the estates which were acquired by Sultan Abdul Hamid as his private property, and they were transferred to the State after Abdul Hamid's deposition in 1909. They are managed by a special department.)

(*c*) *Waqf*: mortmain land which has been assigned to the endowment of religious and charitable purposes. Moslem *waqf* in Turkey either is managed by the Department for Religious Endowments or is in the hands of an individual or family representing the institution

which it benefits. The mortmain lands of the Christian sects are administered by their respective Churches.

(*d*) *Matrukeh*: lands left unoccupied for the benefit either of the general public or of the inhabitants of a particular locality.

(*e*) *Mawat*: waste lands which have been left uninhabited and uncultivated from time immemorial.

(Questions touching the inheritance of *mulk* lands or concerning Moslem *waqf* are dealt with under the religious law of Islam (*sheria*).)

The whole question of landownership and land tenure in Mesopotamia is much complicated by varying local and tribal custom and by the conflict between such custom and Turkish legal theory. The view of the land question taken by the Ottoman Government was strongly influenced by the doctrine that the soil of Mesopotamia had become the property of the State by right of conquest. Of the land thus originally acquired by the State, part had since become *waqf*, part had been purchased or converted to his private use by Abdul Hamid and thus become *sanīyeh*, and part had been sold to individuals under conditions of escheat in case of failure of heirs (the so-called *tapu* estates). There remained a large proportion of the cultivated soil which, being regarded as State domain, was treated as *miri* and let out on lease. Tenure, however, was not regulated simply by the Turkish law of land, but was further complicated by a heterogeneous mass of local customs, which were still maintained and had to be recognized in the Turkish courts.

By far the greater part of the cultivable land in Mesopotamia is tribal territory. This applies to Irak, with the exception of the country round Baghdad, the Shatt el-'Arab districts near Basra, and the neighbourhood of some other towns; it applies also to a great part of upper Mesopotamia. So far as was possible the Turkish Government avoided formal recognition of tribal rights to land. In Irak large areas occupied by Arab tribes were either *miri* or *sanīyeh*; when these tribes were powerful the Government had in practice to allow the local sheikhs to occupy the land, and often had considerable trouble in collecting its rent; when the tribes were small and weak it attempted to set aside their claims, and the result was acute agrarian discontent and disorder. The same difficulty occurred on *tapu* lands, where the ownership of the proprietor, who was often an absentee, was in many cases merely nominal.

Most of the cultivable area of Mesopotamia has been either managed directly by some Government department (*miri* and *sanīyeh*)

or held in large estates by landlords, who either occupy *miri* lands which they rent, or are supposed to rent from the State, or own their own freehold as *tapu*. These landlords are generally either tribal chieftains (Arab sheikhs or Kurdish aghas), or wealthy notables of the towns from Basra or Baghdad, and occasionally magnates of the empire such as the late Mahmud Pasha Daghistani and Kadlum Pasha.

It has been estimated that 30 per cent. of the whole cultivable area in the Baghdad vilayet was *miri* and another 30 per cent. *sanīyeh*; much, too, of the Basra vilayet came under one or other of these categories, chiefly *miri*. *Miri* lands are usually let on short leases for one, two, or three years, but by law the tenant may transfer his lease to another party with the consent of the authorities, and in case of his death his leasehold passes to his heirs, unless he has left the land uncultivated for three years. It is possible that on some *miri* lands the Government acknowledged an obligation to keep the canals in order; in the Tigris districts near Kut el-Amara it has been stated that the sheikhs on certain *miri* lands paid revenue to the Government at a reduced rate, and in return were considered responsible for canal clearance as well as for the maintenance of order in their tribes. *Sanīyeh* lands comprise many of the most fertile and best-cultivated estates in the country. On the Euphrates about Hilla a considerable amount of the land originally offered for sale under the conditions of *tapu* by Midhat Pasha was later acquired by Abdul Hamid. These lands are known locally in the Euphrates districts as *mudawwareh*. Canal clearance on *sanīyeh* land was paid for by the Crown, and seed was advanced to be recovered at harvest. It seems to have been the custom to maintain a mamur (revenue official) and granary staff on *sanīyeh* estates.

In Irak private ownership of land occurs mainly in the form of tenure known as *tapu*. *Tapu* lands are those of which the ownership (under certain conditions) has been purchased by individuals from the State. The history of this tenure in Irak, which dates from the governorship of Midhat Pasha in the early seventies, is sketched below (pp. 193–4).

The estates held by *tapu* are mostly in the neighbourhood of the Euphrates, but are found also on the Tigris. As has been already mentioned, they escheat to the State in case of failure of heirs. The land is, as a rule, leased out for terms of five years or less by the landowner, who selects which lands are to be cultivated and which are to lie fallow. Estates are often sublet to *sarkars* and farmers, who collect the fellahin, as a rule tribesmen with an hereditary connexion with the area. The owner is responsible for canal clearance

and maintenance, the cultivators provide both seed and cattle, or when seed is found for them it is as a loan to be repaid at harvest. In some cases both parties are jointly responsible for the transport of the Government share up to a distance of three miles from the threshing-floor.

Information as to land tenure in upper Mesopotamia is very scanty. It appears that most of the cultivated land is held in large estates either by wealthy townsmen or by tribal chiefs. It is stated that round Mosul most of the land is owned by the families that in the past formed the ruling oligarchy of the town, and that landed property held by a member of one of these families may not be alienated without the consent of the head of the house. *Sanīyeh* estates occur in upper Mesopotamia. It seems that in some districts (e.g. round Kirkuk and Mosul) the lands of a village may be owned by the cultivators.

Taxation of Agriculture: Rent

Under the Turkish régime the produce of the land has been divided between the State, the landlord, and the cultivator. The proportions in which this division has been made as well as the amount actually paid have varied according to circumstances, such as the form of tenure on which the land is held, the method of irrigation, the labour required in cultivation, the extent to which the owner has assisted the cultivator by providing seed, &c., the power of the administration or of the owner to press their claims, and the power of the taxpayers and cultivators to evade those claims by force or bribery. Cultivated lands are to a great extent classed for purposes of assessing taxation or rent according to the means by which they are watered. *Daim* is land dependent on rainfall alone; *bakrah* or *saqi* is land watered by lifts or buckets; *saih* is land irrigated from canals; *chaltiq* land is watered by small runnels, such as are used in rice-fields. Vegetable lands have usually not been liable to taxation, nor to the payment of any fixed proportion of the produce as rent, except where vegetable gardens were specially valuable, as in the neighbourhood of large towns.

The State's proportion of the produce consisted mainly of the tithe, which usually amounted to about 20 per cent. of the produce of the land, though the share claimed by the Government on this account varied somewhat from one district to another. The proportion claimed on rice was sometimes higher than that on other grain crops, and land watered by lifts paid at a higher rate than that irrigated by canals. Payment was made in money or in kind at the option of

the producer. On some lands the tithe was compounded for at a fixed sum. Thus for the date-plantations on the Shatt el-'Arab Midhat Pasha introduced a system by which the tax was levied according to the number of trees, and at rates proportioned to the distance of the plantations from the river. The number of trees charged for has been sometimes entirely different from and usually considerably less than the number of trees in existence. The tithe on liquorice root was compounded for by a special arrangement with Constantinople. A fixed sum was also levied on wood that was cut for sale. Where a fixed assessment had not been made the usual method employed by the Government was to send round officials to judge the value of the Government share of the crop, and this share was then farmed out.

In addition to tithe there were other taxes assessed on agricultural produce, for war expenditure, for municipal purposes, or for education. These might amount together to an eighth or a quarter of the tithe.

Koda, the tax on domestic animals, was a tax which should have fallen particularly on the nomad tribes but was correspondingly difficult to collect. It amounted as a rule to half a mejidi per annum on each camel, buffalo, &c., and 12 *rāij* piastres per sheep. This tax was usually farmed out.

The share received by the Government on *miri* land represented the land taxation due to the State, together with the rent due to the State as landowner. Roughly speaking, this was usually 20 per cent. on each of these counts or 40 per cent. in all. In cases where on *miri* land a share was also paid to the sheikh of the tribe, the produce might be divided as follows: 20 per cent. for revenue, 20 per cent. for the sheikh, 5 per cent. for the *sarkar* or principal tenant for management, 15 per cent. for provider of seed, 40 per cent. for fellah or cultivator. On *sanīyeh* land in the Euphrates district 36 per cent. was paid to Abdul Hamid as landlord's share and revenue combined, and this seems to have been the usual proportion paid. In the Bogheileh district there was an unusual arrangement by which the cultivators were responsible for construction and maintenance of canals, and in return paid only 25 per cent. of the crops instead of the usual 36 per cent.

The share of the produce claimed by the Government in *tapu* lands was usually 20 per cent.; but in some places, as in the Kurna district, it was 10 per cent. of all grain crops except rice, on which it was 20 per cent. The landowner's share on *tapu* land is also usually 20 per cent., although in the Euphrates districts it is on certain estates 40 per cent. The higher rate was allowed by Midhat Pasha

at the time when the land was sold, owing to the need of considerable expenditure of capital on the canal system by the new owners.

The Land Question in Irak

In Irak the opposition between the Turkish Government's theory of land tenure on the one hand and tribal custom and sentiment on the other has created a land question which has caused much trouble in the past and still remains to be settled.

Fifty years ago there was little private property in land. Almost the whole country was divided into tribal areas, and where tribes chose to cultivate the Government took its tithe, if it could, or else did not interfere. But agriculture was in a very backward state. Few of the ancient canals were cleared, and it was obvious that intelligent control and management were needed if the country was to be developed. In the view of the Turkish Government the soil occupied by the tribes was the property of the State. Starting from this theory Midhat Pasha, when vali of Baghdad, conceived the idea that both the prosperity of the country and the Government's revenue might be increased by the sale to individuals of proprietary rights in cultivated or cultivable land (especially in the neighbourhood of the Euphrates) under conditions that would encourage the development of agriculture. The proprietors were to arrange for the clearance and maintenance of the canals and were to help their tenants to tide over bad seasons; in return they would receive a large share of the profits. Thus the *tapu* system of land tenure already described was created. Midhat apparently hoped that the tribal sheikhs would purchase on these terms the lands occupied by their people. On the lower Euphrates the Sa'dun, the ruling clan of the Muntefiq, seem to have accepted the position of proprietors. Elsewhere the sheikhs were generally very unwilling to buy, as they distrusted the Government's intentions. Some of the tribes, fearing that the scheme meant that they were to be strictly governed and made liable for military service, took alarm and fled for a time into the desert. Capitalists from the towns were at first afraid of taking up land in face of tribal hostility, but as the country was brought more under control the acquisition of *tapu* estates became more attractive to them. In the Hilla district a stimulus to investment in land was given by Abdul Hamid, who acquired several large estates here and set about developing them. In one way or another a great deal of land, especially along the Euphrates, became private property of the *tapu* class. And so it came about that the tribes found themselves in the position of rent-

paying tenants on lands which they regarded as their own. Many of the new landlords were absentees and quite unconnected with the tribesmen who cultivated their estates. How far the *tapu* proprietors fulfilled their duties of canal clearance and so forth is not clear. At any rate their claims were bitterly resented by the cultivators. Thus when the Government's authority was weakened after the Revolution of 1908–9 a kind of agrarian revolution followed. The result has been that owners of *tapu* estates have become unable either to collect their rents or to undertake their responsibilities. The tribesmen look upon the landlords as intruders who make oppressive and unjust demands upon the cultivators and rightful owners of the soil. The landlords appeal to their title-deeds and complain that they are being robbed of what by law and justice is clearly theirs. Both sides look to the Government of the country to support their claims, which need careful consideration and adjustment.

Apart from this difficult question of the *tapu* estates there were many abuses and anomalies in the system of land tenure and land taxation as it was at the beginning of the war. Corruption entered into all transactions of the administration touching the land, especially into the leasing of the lands which the State had at its disposal and into the assessment and collection of the revenue derived from the produce of the soil. Thus in the Amara district, where in theory the *miri* and *sanīyeh* lands paid a proportion of their produce to the Crown, in practice the land was put up to auction and leased for cash rents to the highest bidder. There was intense rivalry among the tribes, and wholly fictitious prices were bid which could never be paid but which were pleasing to the heads of the revenue department. The highest bidder, usually a sheikh, sublet the lands, which were again sublet to *sarkars*, the result being a chain of debt and extortion which the land could never support and which was liable at any moment to bring ruin to all concerned in it.

CHAPTER XII

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

General character of commerce—Distribution of foreign trade and German competition—Trade methods—Principal imports—Principal exports—Industries.

General Character of Commerce

It is impossible to give an accurate account of the trade of Mesopotamia as it was in the years immediately preceding the war, since there are no reliable figures to serve as data. The Turkish Customs kept no trustworthy statistics, and the information collected for the consular trade reports was based on unofficial estimates which were generally more or less rough guesses. For the trade carried by the Hamburg-Amerika line the British reports were wholly dependent on German sources. The figures therefore given below, which are taken from, or based on, the trade reports, must not be regarded as exact.

Among the principal imports were textiles, refined sugar, machinery (in Irak), coffee, tea, timber (in Irak). Manchester goods were by far the most valuable class of import. There was also some importation of miscellaneous manufactured articles (hardware, glassware, cutlery, candles, paper, &c.), and of metals (chiefly copper and iron). It seemed probable that Russian and American oil would be driven from the market of lower Mesopotamia by the produce of the Anglo-Persian Oil Company's wells in Arabistan. A very large part of the imports was destined for the Persian market, mainly by the Baghdad—Kirmanshah route.

There are no manufactures of importance in the country, and the export trade to Europe, America, and India was mainly in agricultural, pastoral, and natural vegetable produce (e. g. dates, barley, rice, wheat, and other cereals; wool, skins and hides; *ghī*; liquorice, galls). The export of oil from Arabistan was being developed on the eve of the war. A proportion of the exports was in transit from the Persian plateau (e. g. opium, gum tragacanth, and carpets).

The principal market for foreign trade was Baghdad. Basra was important chiefly as the port of Baghdad, but was also the centre of

the commerce of southern Irak and especially of the Shatt el-'Arab date trade. Diarbekr and Mosul were the chief markets of upper Mesopotamia. The foreign trade of Arabistan was carried on through Mohammareh and Ahwāz.

The main current of import trade entered Mesopotamia from the Persian Gulf by way of Basra. The local market of southern Irak absorbed a very moderate part of it, less, it seems, than a quarter. The main volume of this current passed up the Tigris to Baghdad.[1] Probably more than half of the goods which reached the Baghdad market found their way by Khanikin and Kirmanshah into Persia, while the remainder supplied northern Irak, or passed on to the Mosul market[2] or even as far as Diarbekr. But the Diarbekr market was for the most part supplied by a secondary current of imports which came from Alexandretta and Aleppo. The Mosul market was partially fed by this current, which was even felt (though not in any great degree) as far south as Baghdad. The imports of Arabistan came from the Persian Gulf mostly through Mohammareh; a proportion of them passed on to the Isfahan market.

The principal current of export trade passed out into the Persian Gulf by Basra, the port which was the outlet of Irak and through Baghdad drew exports from western Persia and the Mosul region. The main part of the exports of Diarbekr, a considerable part of those of Mosul, and a small proportion of those of Baghdad went to Aleppo for Alexandretta or Egypt. The exports of Arabistan went out by the Persian Gulf through Mohammareh.

The annual value of the trade of Baghdad in the years immediately before the war was between 3½ and 4 millions. This estimate excludes the large imports of material for the Baghdad Railway. The value of the remaining imports was 3–4 times greater than that of the exports. The annual value of the trade of Basra (including imports to and exports from Baghdad) was over 5 millions: the average for the years 1911–13, inclusive of the imports of railway material, was about £5,700,000. Exports amounted to about 2½ millions as against ¾—1 million at Baghdad. This difference was due principally to the Shatt el-'Arab date trade, and partly to the export from the Basra vilayet of grain, rice, *ghī*, and wool.

The trade of Diarbekr was valued at somewhat over a million,

[1] While Baghdad was the general distributing centre for piece-goods, the towns on the Euphrates in western Irak seemed to have received a part of their other imports direct from Basra.

[2] Suleimāniyeh and Kirkuk, the chief local markets of southern (Turkish) Kurdistan, dealt mainly with Baghdad, and to a much smaller extent with Mosul and Aleppo.

imports being about 55 per cent. of the whole. Mosul had a total trade of between $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{3}{4}$ million, the value of the exports being 2–4 times that of the imports.

The trade of Arabistan, exclusive of the import of plant and material for the Anglo-Persian Oil Company, was about £850,000 in value. Imports made up about 59 per cent. of this sum.

The value of the trade of Mesopotamia was on the whole rising in spite of considerable fluctuations. Thus in the ten years 1904–13 the trade of Baghdad had increased by about 50 per cent., that of Basra perhaps by about 75 per cent., that of Diarbekr by about 27 per cent. In the trade of Mosul there does not seem to have been any marked general tendency towards an increase or decrease. The trade of Arabistan had more than doubled in five years; this increase was due partly to the transfer (owing to political disturbances) of much Persian trade from the Bushire—Shiraz road to the Ahwāz—Isfahan route, partly to the development of the oilfield in northern Arabistan.

Though it is to be remembered that the growth of the trade in these markets is largely to be accounted for by the expansion of the commerce with Persia passing through them, it appears that the purchasing power and wants of the local population were on the whole increasing, especially in Irak and Arabistan. As customers the natives displayed, as was to be expected, a tendency to take cheap inferior goods in preference to better but more expensive articles, as well as a readiness to be impressed by tawdry colour and ornamentation, and an attachment to familiar appearances and trade-marks.

The principal circumstances determining the fluctuations in the trade of the country (apart from the state of markets in Europe and America) were conditions in Persia, and the local agricultural and pastoral production. The varying amount of insecurity on the Persian trade-routes, and the unsettled condition of Persia generally, reacted seriously on the Baghdad market. Again, a bad harvest in Mesopotamia, due to insufficient rainfall, excessive or insufficient floods, &c., might cause a very marked general depression in trade. Drought or inclement weather destructive to live stock in the Mesopotamian plains might have some effect in the same direction. Other disturbing factors were outbreaks of disorder in Mesopotamia and Arabistan, the unstable currency, and speculative operations by local merchants.

A standing impediment to commerce was the inadequacy of means of transport and of storing goods. The insufficiency of steamer transport and the difficulties of navigation on the river-route between Basra and Baghdad caused much delay and damage to merchandise;

and freight-charges on this main line of communication were high. The pack-transport used on land was costly, especially on some routes (for example that from Ahwāz to Isfahan) on which the supply of mules was running short.

That the Arab, Lur, and Kurdish tribes are more or less dependent on urban markets for the comforts and even (especially in the case of the desert nomads) for some of the necessities of life, gives to the internal trade of the country a considerable political importance. To have control of these markets is to have a means of bringing powerful pressure to bear on some of the most unruly and least accessible elements in the population.

Distribution of Foreign Trade: German Competition

The following estimates of the shares held by different foreign countries in the trade of Mesopotamia and Arabistan are based on Consular Reports, and. for reasons given above, are not exact.

Port of Basra

Tonnage of Steam Vessels Entered and Cleared

	1911	1912	1913
Total Tonnage	314,228	304,186	327,913
	Percentage of Total Tonnage, 1911	Percentage of Total Tonnage, 1912	Percentage of Total Tonnage, 1913
British	81·8	84·8	77·9
German	13·1	10·1	16·3
Russian	3·2	3·3	3·6
Ottoman	1·8	0·7	0·5
French	—	0·8	—
Austro-Hungarian	—	—	0·4
Siamese	—	—	0·6
Persian	—	—	0·3

The total tonnage of sailing-vessels amounted to 18,579 in 1911 (8,094 British); 20,271 in 1912 (9,559 British); 19,026 in 1913 (11,595 British). The balance of the sailing-vessel tonnage was made up by Ottoman, Persian, and a few French vessels, and by dhows from Zanzibar.

In 1916–17, 110 steam-vessels carrying merchandise entered the port of Basra. This tonnage amounted to 157,362. Of these vessels 95 were British, 8 Japanese, 5 Norwegian, and 2 Swedish. Sailing-vessels have taken a greatly increased share in merchant traffic.

At the end of 1913 the ocean steamer service to Basra was carried on by the following lines:

The Ellerman and Bucknall Steamship Company, Ltd. (from England).
The Strick Line (from England).
Messrs. Marcus Samuel & Co. (from England).
Messrs. Andrew Weir & Co. (from England).
The British India Steam Navigation Company (from Bombay and Karachi).
The Arab Steamers, Ltd. (from Bombay).
The Bombay and Persia Steam Navigation Company (from Bombay).
The Haji Sultan Ali Shushtari Line (from Bombay).
The Hamburg-Amerika Line (German, from Hamburg and Antwerp).
The Russian Steamship Navigation Company (from Odessa).

The value of trade carried by German vessels in the years 1911–13, according to German returns, was as follows:

1911.—Imports, £397,960 (13·9 per cent. of the total imports).
Exports, £294,142 (11·6 per cent. of the total exports).
1912.—Imports, £528,415 (20 per cent. of the total imports).
Exports, £375,760 (11·5 per cent. of the total exports).
1913.—Imports, £1,957,489 (50 per cent. of the total imports).[1]
Exports, £226,212 (11·7 per cent. of the total exports).

In 1917 the service between Basra and India was being carried on by the following lines:

The British India Steam Navigation Company.
The Arab Steamers, Ltd.
The Persian Gulf Steam Navigation Company.
The Haji Sultan Ali Shushtari Line.
The Abad Company (Japanese steamers under the nominal charter of Mirza Mohammed Shirazi).

Basra Market

Data for comparing the different shares of foreign countries in the Basra market are lacking.

As regards the export of the produce of the Basra vilayet the following points may be noticed:

A large part of the date harvest of the Shatt el-'Arab went to the United States, the United Kingdom, and India.
Rice and paddy went to the United Kingdom and Germany.
Ghī went to India and the Levant.

[1] The increase in this year was mainly in railway material and sugar.

Lower Tigris Shipping

For the transport of goods on the Tigris between Baghdad and Basra the two important companies were:

The Euphrates and Tigris Steam Navigation Company (Messrs. Lynch; three steamers, with barges).

The Ottoman Nahrieh Company (managed by the Dā'irat es-Sanīyeh; five steamers, with barges).

The Shatt el-'Arab above Basra was closed to foreign shipping with the exception of the limited number of steamers allowed to the E.T.S.N. Co.

Before the war it was arranged that the British and Ottoman interests should be combined in an Anglo-Ottoman company. It was proposed that the British and Turkish shares in the new company should be equal, but that 40 per cent. of the Turkish share, or 20 per cent. of the whole, was to be held by the Baghdad Railway Company, i. e. was to be secured to German interests, in return for a similar minority interest to be held by the British in the extension of the Baghdad Railway to Basra.

Baghdad Market

IMPORTS

	1911	1912	1913
Total Value of Imports[1]	£2,661,401	£2,822,817	£2,914,036
	Percentage of Total Imports, 1911	Percentage of Total Imports, 1912	Percentage of Total Imports, 1913
United Kingdom	45·1	50·1	45·1
India[2]	27·8	23·6	19·6
Ceylon	—	0·2	0·1
Egypt	—	0·1	—
Germany	3·4	4·1	5
Austria-Hungary	8·7	7·3	9·1
Belgium	6·9	6·3	11·2
France	2·7	2·3	2·8
Italy	0·6	—	1
Russia	0·4	1·2	0·7
Sweden	0·4	0·2	0·7
Netherlands	—	0·1	0·3
United States	0·3	0·3	0·3
Japan	—	0·3	0·2
China	0·3	1·5	1·3
Turkish Ports	1·7	1·2	1·1
Persian Gulf Ports	1·7	1·2	1·5

[1] Exclusive of imports of material for the Baghdad Railway in 1912 and 1913.
[2] Including the trade in European goods re-exported from India.

EXPORTS

	1911	1912	1913
Total Value of Exports[1]	£684,802	£930,760	£755,501
	Percentage of Total Exports, 1911	Percentage of Total Exports, 1912	Percentage of Total Exports, 1913
United Kingdom	41.5	30.7	32.6
India	4.8	17.1	4
Straits Settlements	—	—	4.5
Egypt	2.3	3.2	0.6
Germany	5.4	9.5	6.2
Austria-Hungary	1.6	1.8	2.8
Belgium	1.5	—	3.1
France	16.6	24	19.4
Netherlands	0.3	0.1	0.4
United States	14	13	18.4
China	12	0.6	8

[1] Exclusive of exports to Turkish ports of Arabia, &c., which in 1911 were 8·4 per cent. and in 1912 5·1 per cent. of the total exports including them.

Mosul Market

IMPORTS

	1910	1911	1912
Total Value of Imports[1]	£141,940	£164,940	£178,230
	Percentage of Total Imports, 1910	Percentage of Total Imports. 1911	Percentage of Total Imports, 1912
United Kingdom	26	20	28
India	25	24	23
Other Foreign Countries	31	32	31
Other Parts of Turkey	18	24	18

EXPORTS

	1910	1911	1912
Total Value of Exports[2]	£609,430	£343,330	£426,000
	Percentage of Total Exports, 1910	Percentage of Total Exports, 1911	Percentage of Total Exports, 1912
United Kingdom	28	47	38
India	5	7	6
Other Foreign Countries	8	12	12
Other Parts of Turkey	59	34	44

[1] Inclusive of imports from other parts of Turkey.
[2] Inclusive of exports to other parts of Turkey.

Diarbekr Market

It is stated that in 1913 the United Kingdom, India, and Egypt had altogether 44·7 per cent. of the total import trade; and were followed by Austria-Hungary, France, and Germany. The total value of imports to Diarbekr in 1913 was estimated at £557,060.

The Port of Mohammareh

The following lines ran from Europe before the war:

Ellerman and Bucknall.
The Anglo-Algerian Steamship Company (Messrs. Strick).
The Hamburg-Amerika Line (from Hamburg to Antwerp).
The Russian Steamship Navigation Company (from Odessa).

The following lines ran from Bombay:

The British India Steam Navigation Company.
The Bombay and Persia Steam Navigation Company.
The Arab Steamers, Ltd.

Kārūn Shipping

Between Mohammareh and Ahwāz foreign merchant shipping might navigate under regulations (in practice partly obsolete) which were framed by the Persian Government in 1890. Messrs. Lynch and the German firm of Messrs. Wönckhaus had each a steamer on this part of the river.

Above Ahwāz the Kārūn was closed to foreign shipping, but Messrs. Lynch worked a steamer flying the Persian flag.

Arabistan Market

IMPORTS

	1910–11	1911–12	1912–13
Total Value of Imports[1]	£560,822	£457,105	£513,488
	Percentage of Total Imports, 1910–11	Percentage of Total Imports, 1911–12	Percentage of Total Imports, 1912–13
United Kingdom	41	38	39
India[2]	33	41	43
Germany	7	5	6
France	12	8	7
Turkey	3	3	2
Other Countries	4	5	4

[1] Exclusive of the import of plant and materials for the Anglo-Persian Oil Company. These came mostly from the United Kingdom, and partly from India.

[2] A part of the goods included in this estimate for India (e. g. the sugar, which accounted for 10·20 per cent of the 'Indian' imports) was of Continental (chiefly Austro-Hungarian) origin.

EXPORTS

	1910-11	1911-12	1912-13
Total Value of Exports	£310,042	£422,249	£330,555
	Percentage of Total Exports, 1910-11	Percentage of Total Exports, 1911-12	Percentage of Total Exports, 1912-13
United Kingdom	25	49	36
India	18	12	13
Germany	6	5	2
Turkey	18	9	15
Koweit	6	4	3
Hong-Kong	5	19	11
Other Countries	22	2	20

The United Kingdom's predominance in the markets of Mesopotamia and Arabistan was based principally on the import of cotton goods. Of secondary imports from this country may be mentioned woollens, machinery (to Baghdad), coffee (from Brazil), and copper. In exports the United Kingdom took chiefly wool and mohair, skins and hides, cereals, dates, gum tragacanth, and occasionally opium.

Import trade from India was chiefly in coarse cotton goods, cotton yarns, gunnies, tea, and silk. In the two years preceding the war Indian timber was driven from the Baghdad market by cheap Russian woods. It seems that a considerable part of the manufactured goods (including refined sugar) that were entered as imported from India were of European continental origin. In exports India took dates, *ghī*, horses, occasionally opium, and small quantities of galls, hides and skins, wool, &c. Since the British occupation of Irak the Indian piece-goods trade in southern Mesopotamia has acquired a stronger position.

Germany had a miscellaneous trade in cheap manufactured goods, and imported also sugar, chemical dyes, and alcohol. Her considerable and growing share in the carrying trade to Basra consisted largely in the shipping of Belgian, Austro-Hungarian, and other foreign goods. (See further below, pp. 204–5.) Germany took considerable proportions of the cereals (which before the war were shipped almost wholly by German steamers), of the galls, and of the hides and skins exported from the country. Among other exports to Germany were intestines (for sausage-making), and a small percentage of the Mesopotamian wool.

Austria-Hungary had a large share in the sugar trade, and sent also fancy textiles, hardware, glassware, chinaware, paper, and other kinds of cheap manufactured goods. Some hides and skins, grain, galls, &c., went to Trieste.

Belgium's share in the trade of Mesopotamia was rapidly growing. Belgian loaf-sugar dominated the markets of Baghdad and Basra (it was carried to the Persian Gulf by German ships), and had about a quarter share in the Diarbekr market. Besides, Belgium sent iron, copper, and candles.

France had recently lost to Belgium her former lead in the Baghdad sugar trade. Her principal exports to Baghdad were leather and drugs and medicines. To Diarbekr she sent hardware, glassware, &c. She took a considerable part of the export of wool, hides and skins.

Imports from Italy were mainly cheap cotton goods. Her trade seems to have been mainly with northern Mesopotamia.

Russian timber had in 1913 almost driven Indian wood from the Baghdad market. Russian oil had lost ground to American and Persian in Irak, but apparently it still held a predominant share in the market of Diarbekr.

Sweden supplied nearly the whole import of matches.

The United States sent very little besides oil, and, though American petroleum had won the lead from Russian in southern Mesopotamia, it seemed likely to yield in its turn to the product of the Anglo-Persian Oil Company's field in Arabistan. In exports the United States took a large share of the Shatt el-'Arab dates and practically all the Mesopotamian liquorice. Most of the Persian carpets which passed through the Baghdad markets went to America.

Japan had hardly any trade in Mesopotamia before the war, but it was stated in 1917 that 'the markets in Mesopotamia are already flooded with cheap Japanese glassware, matches, cutlery, copper, metal sheets, and some kinds of piece-goods, especially what is known as American sheeting'.

China took Persian opium shipped from Basra, and sent silk to Baghdad.

Egypt took camels and sheep from Mosul and Diarbekr, dates from Irak, and some silk goods manufactured at Baghdad.

The most interesting element in the situation before the war was the politico-commercial intrigue that was being carried on by Germany in Irak and Arabistan. The German plan to dominate and exploit the Turkish Empire included the intention to clear away the zone of British influence at the head of the Persian Gulf. When the prospects of a German railway to Baghdad seemed assured, German diplomacy set to work, on the one hand to obtain the right to establish a German-controlled railway from Baghdad to the Gulf, and on

the other hand to push German commerce in lower Mesopotamia and Arabistan through a subsidized line of steamers to Basra.

German trade had hardly existed in Irak before 1895. Between 1895 and 1906 German firms had built up businesses here, chiefly in miscellaneous fancy goods, hardware, glassware, and the like, and a branch of the Deutsche Orient Bank was opened at Basra in 1903. But German competition was of little importance in the Baghdad market until 1906, when the Hamburg-Amerika line started a regular service of steamers from Hamburg and Antwerp to Basra and the Persian Gulf.

This was the beginning of a serious commercial attack on Irak and Arabistan supported by the German Government. The Hamburg-Amerika line was subsidized so that it was able to cut rates beyond the limits of ordinary commercial competition. As a result it captured a considerable part of the carrying trade to Basra. It pushed Belgian and other Continental goods into Mesopotamia; especially, it had the import of Belgian loaf-sugar which came to dominate the sugar markets of the Persian Gulf and Baghdad. Immediately before the war an attempt was being made by the German line to obtain a share in the carriage of Manchester goods. As regards the export trade, the Germans had by 1913 acquired practically the whole shipping of cereals from Mesopotamia. In 1906 Germany had 4·1 per cent. of the total tonnage of steam-vessels at the port of Basra, while British shipping made up 91·5 per cent.; in 1913 the British share was 77·9, the German 16·3.

At the same time the Germans were trying to open a way for their commerce into Arabistan. They had started a steamer service on the Kārūn, and had established stores and wharves at Mohammareh and Ahwāz.

The firm of Wönckhaus had the local agency of the Hamburg-Amerika line and the principal part in the execution of German commercial policy in the country.

Trade Methods

It has been the custom that the buyer of agricultural produce destined for export should advance a sum of money to the owner on the security of the crop before it has matured, receiving a *campiala*, or promissory note, in consideration of the loan, which bears interest at comparatively high rates. An analogous method was followed in the purchase of the wool-clip. Buyers have often made large profits by shipping direct; the produce may, however, be put on the local

market and change hands several times at enhanced prices, payment being made by instalments. The creation of some convenient form of agricultural credit is essential to the development of the country. The Turkish land-banks at Diarbekr and Mosul did not work successfully.

In the import trade the larger firms sent orders direct to Europe, and it appears that most of the cotton goods imported were purchased in this way. Another method followed in Irak was to order goods through commission houses. A small initial deposit was made with the commission house, the balance being paid on the arrival of the goods. The small trader paid by instalments on the security of a *campiala*, and collected weekly sums from the shopkeepers. For the export of Manchester goods from England to Mesopotamia English banks gave credit against shipping documents deposited with them when the goods were shipped, repayment being made some three or five months later when the goods arrived at their destination.

The *campiala*, or promissory note payable at date, which was the usual instrument for settling accounts, was negotiable when backed by a good name.

Important parts in the trade of Irak have been taken by the *dallāl* (native commission agent) and the *saraf* (money-changer). On the honesty and intelligence of the *dallāl* the European merchant was often largely dependent. The money-changing business was of great importance owing to the heterogeneous and unstable character of the currency under the Turkish régime. Further, the Baghdad *saraf* assayed Turkish coins (since, for example, *mejidiyehs* which would have been accepted in Basra or Aleppo might not have been accepted in Baghdad), acted as collector of bills and payments, and did a considerable business as private bankers. The *sarafs* practically fixed the rates of bills for the merchants.

In the population of Mesopotamia the most important commercial elements have been the Jews in Baghdad and Irak, and the Armenians in the north. Many Baghdad Jews had established themselves at Manchester or Hamburg as partners or agents for Jewish firms in Mesopotamia. The Jewish merchants of Baghdad had not only eclipsed their Mohammedan and oriental Christian competitors, but, it has been said, through their connexions with Manchester were gaining ground in the import of piece-goods at the expense of British firms.

The tendency of the native merchants to indulge in speculative ventures and short-sighted commercial *coups* added greatly to the instability of trade in the country.

Among the most important European firms established in the country before the war were:

Lynch & Co. (merchants, exporters and importers, shipping agents; Euphrates and Tigris Steam Navigation Company).

Gray, Mackenzie & Co. (general and shipping agents, merchants and importers).

Strick, Scott & Co. (general and shipping agents, merchants and importers).

Blockey, Cree & Co. (agents).

The Anglo-Persian Oil Company.

MacAndrews, Forbes & Co. (American; exporters of liquorice).

Wönckhaus (German; agents for the Hamburg-Amerika line).

Since the British occupation of Irak several Bombay firms have opened branches in the country.

In 1917 the following banks had branches in Irak:

The Imperial Ottoman Bank.

The Imperial Bank of Persia (also in Arabistan).

The Eastern Bank (with charge of the funds of the civil administration).

Before the war the Deutsche Orient Bank had a branch at Baghdad, and the Imperial Ottoman Bank branches at Diarbekr and Mosul.

Principal Imports

The accurate analysis of imports is made impossible not only by the general unreliability of the estimates in the Trade Reports, but also by the fact that the country to which imported goods are ascribed in the Reports is by no means always the country of their origin. Especially, as has been mentioned above, a considerable part of the manufactured 'Indian' imports to Mesopotamia and Arabistan came from European continental countries by way of re-export from Bombay or Karachi.

Textiles, Yarn, &c.

Cotton Fabrics.—The value of cotton goods imported to Baghdad (about half of which probably went on to Persia) was between £1,340,000 and £1,400,000, or about 44 per cent. of the total value of the foreign imports of Baghdad exclusive of railway material. The import of cotton goods at Basra (mostly for Baghdad) was in about the same proportion. In Arabistan the value of the cotton tissues imported was about £180,000–214,000, or about 31 per cent. of the whole foreign import trade; at Diarbekr it was about £125,000,

or about 24 per cent. of the foreign imports; at Mosul it was about £30,000–40,000, or about 24–25 per cent. of the foreign imports.

Cotton fabrics were mostly from Manchester. The United Kingdom had about 75 per cent. of the cotton import trade in the Baghdad market, about 60 per cent. in Arabistan, and the greater part of the trade at Diarbekr and Mosul.

India came next with a considerable import of coarse, cheap piece-goods. It supplied about 16–17 per cent. of the Baghdad cotton imports and about a third of the cotton fabrics sent to Arabistan. The Indian piece-goods trade has been greatly developed in Irak since the British occupation.

Austria-Hungary sent about 6 or 7 per cent. of the Baghdad cotton imports, mostly cheap coloured fabrics. Belgium, Italy, and Germany had each some small share in the market; a part of the Austro-Hungarian imports were manufactured in Italy and shipped from Trieste.

Recently cheap Japanese cottons have been imported in considerable quantities into Irak.

At Diarbekr and Mosul Austrian, Italian, and German cotton goods had fairly important shares in the market. The thicker kinds of cotton goods, flannelettes, &c., seem to have been imported into upper Mesopotamia chiefly from these countries.

Cotton Yarn.—India supplied all the cotton yarn imported into Irak (£70,000–112,000) and Mosul (£17,000–20,000). Probably the yarn imported into Arabistan (£21,000–26,000) was also Indian. The United Kingdom appears to have imported yarn to Diarbekr (about £60,000).

Woollens.—There had been remarkable fluctuations in the trade in woollens in the last four years before the war. In 1910 woollens rose suddenly to rank second on the list of imports to Baghdad, their value being estimated at £315,508 and the United Kingdom's share at £280,058. It seems that this rise was due to exaggerated expectations of a demand from Persia. The export consequently fell to £27,521 in 1911. It rose again to £62,889 in 1912 and £115,007 in 1913, but in the latter year the value of the import from the United Kingdom was only £21,582, while Italy's share was £23,680. The imports of Austria-Hungary, Germany, France, and Belgium were each week between £12,000 and £16,500; the import from India was valued at £6,945.

There was no great sale for woollen fabrics in Irak, or in Arabistan (where the import has been about £9,000–10,000 in value). But there was an increasing demand for woollen yarn at Baghdad to supply the local manufactures of *'abas*.

The Diarbekr market in woollens (£45,000–60,000) was shared in

about equal proportion by the United Kingdom, Austria-Hungary, Germany, Belgium, and France.

Silks.—There has been a moderate import of silk and silk goods to Baghdad (£30,000–70,000). India took the lead in this market until 1912; in that year and the following the import was principally from China. A small amount of silk went to Diarbekr and Mosul from France and Italy.

Gunnies.—India supplies Mesopotamia with gunny bags for packing grain, &c., the demand varying with the amount of the harvest. The import at Basra was valued at £111,027 in 1911, at £95,784 in 1912, and at £76,992 in 1913.

Sugar.—The market for sugar in Irak had expanded greatly in the years before the war, but was heavily overstocked in 1913, when the import at Baghdad was valued at £383,563, and that at Basra at £721,099.

Before 1913 the greater part of the sugar imported to Irak had been loaf, but in that year great quantities of crushed sugar were landed at Basra, valued at £480,999 as against £240,100 worth of loaf. As, however, the country was passing through a depression in trade, the demand was not nearly correspondent to the supply, and great stocks were left on the hands of the importers, and much of the import did not in that year reach Baghdad.

On the Baghdad market in 1913 Belgium had about 44 per cent. of the import. Belgian loaf-sugar, manufactured at the Raffinerie Tirlemontoise and shipped by the Hamburg-Amerika line, had in 1909 displaced French loaf from the lead in the markets of southern Mesopotamia. (It has been mentioned above that this import of Belgian sugar was one of the chief means used by the Germans in their commercial attack on Mesopotamia and the Persian Gulf.) Germany had about 19 per cent. of the sugar import to Baghdad and Austria-Hungary about 18 per cent. These countries had most of the trade in crystal sugar. The balance of the import was divided between the United Kingdom, France, India, and the Netherlands.

Egyptian and Hong-Kong sugars (the latter imported by Japanese) at present hold the market. It is believed that the sugar refined at Hong-Kong is grown in Java or Mauritius.

In Arabistan the import of sugar in 1912–13 was valued at £125,829 (£63,937 loaf, £61,892 crystal). The loaf was chiefly Belgian, the crystal mostly Austro-Hungarian.

The value of the sugar import at Diarbekr in 1913 was £35,000. Austria-Hungary had about 75 per cent. of the trade, and Belgium the rest.

Machinery.—The import of machinery to Irak for agricultural

purposes was growing remarkably before the war. The value of the machinery imported to Baghdad in 1902 was £3,298, in 1910 £21,191, in 1911 £150,800, in 1912 £105,450, and in 1913 £169,183. This increase was partly due to the construction of the Hindiyeh Barrage and of the Baghdad—Samarra section of the Baghdad Railway; but to a very large extent it was caused by the growing demand for centrifugal oil-motor pumps used in irrigation. Further, ice-machines, small flour-mills, &c., were being introduced into Baghdad. The Turkish military factory at Baghdad had been supplied from Austria-Hungary.

Of the import to Baghdad in 1912 the United Kingdom's share was about 94 per cent.; in 1913 it was about 62 per cent., Belgium having about 35 per cent. The Belgian import in 1913 probably consisted largely in plant for railway construction. The United Kingdom had practically the whole trade in oil-motor pumps.

The introduction of agricultural machinery into Irak is now being extended, and the import seems likely to develop rapidly in the future.

The machinery imported into Arabistan appears to have been almost wholly plant for the Anglo-Persian Oil Company.

Hardly any machinery, except a very small quantity for agricultural purposes, had found its way into upper Mesopotamia before the war.

Metals.—Normally copper and iron were the principal metals imported to Irak. In 1913 large quantities of steel were brought in for railway construction.

The value of copper imported to Irak seems to have averaged about £50,000 a year, but was subject to great fluctuations. The United Kingdom had most of the trade (50–75 per cent.); Belgium and India shared the balance.

Iron (bars, hoops, pipes, girders, &c.) was imported to Irak normally to the value of £20,000–50,000. Belgium had most of the trade, supplying especially girders and pipes. The use of iron girders at Baghdad for building purposes was increasing. Bar and rod iron appears to have come from Sweden, Belgium, and the United Kingdom.

The iron and steel landed at Basra in 1913 was valued at £1,207,882; this abnormal import was due to railway construction at Baghdad.

In the Diarbekr market metals (copper, iron, tin, &c.) were imported in 1913 to the value of £39,200, of which £31,700 worth was entered as coming from the United Kingdom, the rest from Germany and Belgium. It had been reported in 1907 that German and

Swedish iron and steel had ousted the English products from this market.

Timber.—The plains of Mesopotamia are practically treeless except where there are date-palms, and Irak and Arabistan depend on imported timber. A large part of the wood brought to Basra was used for date-boxes; timber is also imported for house and boat-building. The import of wood for date-boxes to Basra amounted in a normal year to between 250,000 and 300,000 bundles valued at £110,000–150,000. The import of planks varied between 130,000 and 570,000 valued at £20,000–85,000. The timber brought to Baghdad market in 1912 and 1913 was worth £15,000–16,000 in each of these years. The import of wood to Arabistan for 1910–11 was 870 tons (£5,598); for 1911–12, 671 tons (£5,428); for 1912–13, 1,832 tons (£15,455)—an increase due to the extension of Mohammareh town, and the growth of the boat-building industry there.

The wood for date-boxes came from Austria-Hungary, Scandinavia, and Russia. India apparently exported a good deal of wood for boat-building, &c., to Basra and Mohammareh, but at Baghdad, after monopolizing the timber market, had lost it entirely in 1912–13 to Russia, whose cheap white woods supplied 94 per cent. of the import.

Coffee.—The coffee imported to Basra amounted on an average to about 14,000 bags a year, the quantities varying between 8,000 and 18,000 bags (valued at £33,000–73,000). At Baghdad the import varied between 4,000 and 11,000 bags (valued at £16,000–17,000). The value of the coffee brought to the Diarbekr market was estimated at £10,000; at Mosul the import was estimated at £2,000–4,500.

The coffee sent to Mesopotamia was mostly Brazilian-grown and imported from the United Kingdom, which had about 66 per cent. of the trade to Baghdad. Brazilian coffee was also shipped from Hamburg and Marseilles. India was credited with about 20–22 per cent. of the import to Baghdad in 1911–13, and the whole of the import to Mosul.

Tea.—The consumption of tea among the Arabs in Mesopotamia and Arabistan has been increasing. The amount imported to Basra in a normal year was about 19,000–20,000 cases valued at £24,000–25,000. An import to Baghdad of about 18,000 cases was valued at about £81,000. The tea passing through Mohammareh into Arabistan in 1910–11 was 142 tons (£15,209); in 1911–12, 106 tons (£10,341); in 1912–13, 64 tons (£10,626); but large quantities were smuggled into the country owing to the high duties levied by the Persian Customs. There was a small, slowly increasing import to Diarbekr, valued at £1,100 in 1912, and at £1,300 in 1913.

Almost all the tea imported to Irak and Arabistan came from India; a small quantity was sent to Baghdad from China. The tea on the Diarbekr market was entered as coming from the United Kingdom.

Petroleum.—The demand for oil in lower Mesopotamia was increasing before the war with the growing use of mechanical pumps for irrigation. The need of petroleum for fuel and lighting may be expected to increase greatly in the future.

The imports to Basra amounted in 1910 to 108,400 cases; in 1911 to 50,070 cases; in 1912 to 209,200 cases; in 1913 to 332,670 cases. Before 1911 Russian oil had dominated the market; in 1911 and 1912 American (Standard Oil Company's) oil was rapidly gaining ground; in 1913 the lead was taken by the produce of the Anglo-Persian Oil Company's field in Arabistan. Of the 332,670 cases imported in that year 179,294 came from Arabistan, 87,000 contained Russian oil, and 66,376 American. The value of the whole import amounted to £91,484.

The value of the oil imported at Diarbekr was £30,000, three-fourths being Russian, one-eighth Rumanian, and the rest from Austria-Hungary and the United States.

Indigo and Other Dyes.—Up to 1913 Mesopotamia had been supplied with vegetable indigo from India, which sent yearly about £20,000 worth to Basra. In 1913 German and Belgian synthetic indigo was put on the Baghdad market with some success. In that year the import of vegetable indigo from India to Baghdad was 566 cases valued at £16,922 (as compared with 631 cases in 1912 and 670 cases in 1913). The import of synthetic indigo in 1913 was 1,302 cases valued at £32,500.

Other natural dyes (henna, &c.) came from Persia, and there was an import of aniline dyes, besides indigo, from the Continent.

Leather.—The value of the leather annually imported to Baghdad in the five years 1909–13 varied considerably. In 1909 it was £14,843; in 1910 £28,808; in 1911 £5,595; in 1912 £26,691; in 1913 £16,779. This import came chiefly from France. India sent a cheap quality. Buffalo-hides from Hong-Kong were used for shoe-leather.

Drugs and Medicines.—The annual import of drugs and medicines at Basra amounted to about 7,000–8,000 packages, with an estimated value of about £24,500–£28,000. The imports to Baghdad in the years 1911–13 are given as follows: in 1911, 7,974 packages (£43,190); in 1912, 3,375 packages (£30,785); in 1913, 1,390 packages (£43,475). In 1912–13 the import to Arabistan was valued at £5,599.

France formerly held the lead on the Baghdad market, but in 1912–13 the greater part of the import was entered as coming from the United Kingdom and India, the shares of the different countries being as follows: India 39 per cent., the United Kingdom 17 per cent., France 37 per cent, Belgium 5 per cent.; Germany and Austria-Hungary divided the balance.

In 1906 it was reported that in northern Mesopotamia practically all the drugs on the market were French or German.

Paper.—From six to twelve thousand bales were imported yearly to Baghdad, valued at £25,000–48,500. About three-quarters of the import came from Austria-Hungary. India, Belgium, and Germany had most of the remainder of the trade. The paper imported to Diarbekr, valued at £17,500–£18,000 was entered as coming from France, Austria-Hungary, Italy, and Germany.

Matches.—The import at Basra varied between about 5,000 and 7,500 cases. The estimated value of the import at Basra was about £3 a case; at Baghdad it varied from about £3 to about £6 a case.

Candles.—The import at Basra varied from about 6,000 to about 13,000 cases, valued at about £2 a case, and coming from Belgium, India, France, and Germany. The candles imported to Diarbekr were mostly French.

Provisions.—The quantities imported to Basra were: in 1911, 24,962 packages (£74,886); in 1912, 26,795 packages (£80,385); in 1913, 40,335 packages (£100,562). The import came from India, the United Kingdom, and Germany.

Coal.—About 21,000–25,000 tons of Welsh coal were imported to Basra yearly, for use on river and ocean steamers.

Tobacco was imported to Mesopotamia from Persia.

China and Glassware: Enamel Ware: Cutlery and Other Hardware.—These imports came mostly from Austria-Hungary and Germany, and the trade in Irak and Arabistan was in the hands of German and Austrian firms. About 5,000–6,000 cases of china and glassware were imported annually to Baghdad; Austria-Hungary had the lead in this trade. Window-glass came largely from Belgium. Cutlery came mostly from Germany. Enamel ware came from Austria-Hungary and India; some part of the Indian import may have been of European manufacture.

Clothing.—There was a small but growing trade in European clothing, chiefly of Continental manufacture. Austria-Hungary imported fezes.

Principal Exports

Particulars of the export trade of Mesopotamia must necessarily be confined almost entirely to the period before the war. A certain amount of information on trade matters is, however, available for the year 1916; from particulars of exports from Basra in that year, it appears that the date trade of the Shatt el-'Arab has not been seriously affected (see below, p. 215). Very little grain was exported from the country. There was an export of wool, mostly to London, of 16,343 bales, which is less than half the amount exported before the war, and of hides and skins, horses, &c., to Bombay in about the same proportion.

Dates.—The Turkish side of the Shatt el-'Arab is one of the principal date-producing areas of the world, and large quantities of dates are exported annually from Basra. The trade, however, is a highly speculative one. Prices, which are in the first instance fixed by arrangement between growers and buyers, rise and fall with great rapidity, depending largely on the demands of European and American markets; in some instances there has been keen competition from America for the crop even before the dates were ripe; forward sales have in many cases resulted in heavy loss, the purchasing firms being left with large quantities of dates upon their hands in London and Bombay, which were unsaleable except at considerable loss. The output of dates is liable to be seriously affected by local conditions: climatic changes are at times responsible for deterioration in the crop; labour for picking may be specially plentiful in years when the grain crop is a failure, or at other times may be almost unobtainable, as in 1911, when, owing to the outbreak of cholera, the outside supply failed. Cost of freight has risen considerably in recent years. Dates for export are mostly of three kinds, viz. (1) *hallawi*, (2) *khadrawi*, (3) *sair*, and are classified as 'wet' dates as against the dry dates which are not exported to Europe and America; all three kinds are packed in cases, and are sent to the United Kingdom, to America, India, and Australia, also to Austria, Russia, the Levant, and other destinations; the dates which are packed in baskets and sent to India, Turkey, the Levant, and Persian Gulf ports, and to the United Kingdom are probably for the most part *sairs*. Less important varieties of dates are *deris*, which are exported in bags to Karachi and Egypt, and *zehdis*, grown for the most part round Baghdad and in the neighbourhood of Kerbela, which are packed in baskets and skins for Bombay, Singapore, Egypt, and the Levant. There has been no export trade in dates to China up to now; it has been suggested, however, that, if dates

could be popularized as an article of food in that country, a large increase in the trade from Mesopotamia would follow. According to figures in the consular trade reports, the amount of dates exported from Basra rose from 31,250 tons in 1906 to 66,169 in 1911. In this year the export was valued at £457,795, while in 1912 a decreased export of 61,490 tons was valued at a considerably higher figure, viz. £471,119; the price per ton in that year was £7 13*s.* 3*d.*; in 1913, 75,368 tons were exported, valued at £582,074.

Very little information as to trade since the war is available; it is reported however, that in 1916 dates were sent from Basra to London, Bombay, Karachi, and New York, to the amount of about 85,000 tons valued at £890,000. The marked difference between the estimate for this year and the estimates for the years before the war is probably explained, at least partly, by the fact that pre-war statistics relating to trade were by no means exhaustive, and the export figures in many cases underestimated.

The average price of *hallawis*, *khadrawis*, and *sairs* in recent years has been roughly 8*s.*, 6*s.*, and 4*s.* per cwt. respectively.

Exports of dates from Arabistan rose from an average of about 2,000 tons between 1905 and 1908 to 6,303 tons in 1912, but fell again to 3,177 in 1913; dates grown on the Persian side of the Shatt el-'Arab are usually found to be inferior to those grown on the opposite bank; this is said to be owing to the better cultivation on the Turkish side. Dates grown in Arabistan are principally *sairs*.

Wheat and Barley.—The volume of the export trade from Mesopotamia in wheat and barley, although in favourable years considerable, has been liable to very great fluctuations. This is due to a variety of causes: in seasons where there is a deficiency of rainfall, or where the supply of water for irrigation is low, the export dwindles almost to nothing; tribal fighting has frequently prevented the shipping of the grain down the river; and other local conditions, such as the serious outbreak of cholera in 1911, may cause considerable dislocation in the trade. In years of scarcity an embargo has been placed by the Turkish Government on the export of grain from the country, or even from one vilayet to another; at such times grain has been imported from India. Although the embargo may have occasionally been necessary in order to avert famine, it has been suggested that it did not in every case owe its existence to economic reasons.

The grain trade has also been seriously affected in the past by the amount of dirt which has been found to be mixed with the corn; this has even been known to reach 37 per cent. In 1912 the principal

exportees signed an agreement only to purchase grain if weighed after cleansing; the results, however, were disappointing.

Of the two varieties of wheat produced in Mesopotamia, the large-grained sort, which contains little flour and much gluten, is chiefly exported to India and Jeddah, or consumed locally; the small-grained wheat is sent to Europe. The grain is not of first-class quality. It is a hard, red wheat, and is used mainly for mixing with other varieties.

The quality of the barley grown in Mesopotamia is better than that of the wheat, and there has always been a good market for it; it is largely exported for mixing with malting barley; the sample produced in the Hilla region, known as *arag*, is better than that of the Amara district, and it has been said that there seems to be no reason why *arag* barley should not compete with that of the Black Sea or River Plate.

The wheat was exported to the United Kingdom, Germany, India, Turkey, and the Persian Gulf ports; barley was sent to the United Kingdom, Germany, India, and Turkey.

The amount of wheat exported from Basra (including the Baghdad export) has varied from 30,136 tons in 1908, valued at £241,093, to 1,330 tons in 1909, valued at £11,531; in 1912 it amounted to 28,044 tons, valued at £243,054. The corresponding export of barley in the same years was in 1908 52,996 tons, valued at £370,977; in 1909, 11,038 tons, valued at £82,788; and in 1912, 117,999 tons, valued at £1,118,490. In 1913 owing to the failure of the grain harvest of the preceding year there was practically no wheat or barley exported.

The general trend of prices of both wheat and barley on the Baghdad and Basra markets has been in an upward direction, partly owing to the rise in world prices, and partly owing to local conditions such as German competition in the local grain markets; grain was first exported by a German firm in 1906, and by 1910 and 1911 large consignments were being bought at a high price by German merchants.

A considerable amount of wheat was sent from Mosul to the Baghdad market, whence it was exported through Basra to Europe; this was valued in 1910 at £200,000.

From Diarbekr surplus wheat was sent to Mosul and Baghdad, and to other provinces of the Turkish Empire; this export was uncertain, and dependent upon local conditions; the value of the export amounted in some years to £30,000.

Wheat is the principal grain export of Arabistan, barley was exported for the first time in 1908; this trade has been liable to even greater fluctuations than that of Basra. A good crop of wheat

may be expected about three times in every decade in Arabistan. The grain was exported for the most part from Mohammareh to the United Kingdom, Germany, and India. The barley export from Arabistan in 1912–13 amounted to 2,947 tons; of this rather more than one-half went to Germany, and the remainder to the United Kingdom with the exception of a small export to the Arab ports; there was no barley exported in the two preceding years.

Rice.—Rice grown in Irak forms an important part of the export trade of Mesopotamia. The export of paddy has increased considerably; new rice-growing districts in the neighbourhood of Amara have been opened up, and in 1911 especially, owing to the failure of the Burmese crop, there was a big demand for Mesopotamian paddy in the European markets. The amount of rice available for export is entirely dependent upon the supply of water for irrigation; in years in which this is deficient, or when the river rises late as in 1913, there is almost a complete failure of the crop, and rice has then to be imported from India; in years of scarcity an embargo on the export of rice was imposed by the Turkish Government. There is a certain amount of speculation in the trade; in some years large advances have been made to growers by buyers, who have lost heavily, and in some cases received no rice or paddy at all. Rice grown in Mesopotamia is coarse in quality; it is known in the East under the trade description of 'Persian' rice; it is packed for export in bags, weighing about 1½ cwt., and sent chiefly to the United Kingdom for distilling and sizing purposes; a small quantity is sent to India as food, but Mesopotamian rice as a rule is not well suited for eating purposes. In order to popularize it further with European millers great care should be taken in cleaning the rice; until recently it has been cleaned by hand-mill at Amara, and partly by hand and partly by machinery at Basra, where there is a large steel cleaning mill. Rice exported from Basra is sent chiefly to the United Kingdom, Germany, and Turkey; paddy is sent to the United Kingdom, Germany, and the Persian Gulf ports. The amount of rice exported in 1913 was 2,274 tons, valued at £16,684; in 1907, 4,490 tons were exported. Paddy was exported in 1912, a very exceptional year, to the extent of 64,996 tons, valued at £324,980; in 1909, 6,750 tons only were exported.

In upper Mesopotamia a small amount of rice is at times sent out from the Diarbekr vilayet to other provinces of the Turkish Empire; this has amounted in some years to a value of £15,000.

From Arabistan a small surplus of the rice, which is grown in the Hawīzeh and Jerrāhi districts, is exported through Basra and Koweit; this has varied in amount from 1,156 tons in 1908 to 115

tons in 1910, and is of inferior quality. The rice grown near Dizfūl is said to be better, but the cost of transport is high, and by the time it reaches Ahwāz the price is as high as for rice imported from India.

Seeds.—The most important seeds exported from Mesopotamia are millet, deri seed (also called *idhrah*, a kind of maize), and sesame; other seeds exported include beans, haricot, *hurtumān*, lentils (*māsh*), linseed, pulse, quince, and poppy seeds. Deri seed and millet are sown when the water recedes from flooded land; in years when the river has been late in rising, or when there has been a rapid fall of the river after floods, the crop has been a failure, and very small quantities only have been available for export; at such times when forward sales have been made in London the shippers have lost heavily. Seeds are exported to the United Kingdom, India, Persian Gulf ports, and the Levant; in 1911 a considerable amount of millet was shipped, together with barley and paddy, to Antwerp and Hamburg; sesame is exported chiefly to the United Kingdom, and also to France, where there is a considerable demand for it. The export of seeds from Basra varied in amount from 25,338 tons in 1908, valued at £190,039, to 11,017 tons in 1910, valued at £82,629, and to as little as 3,799 tons in 1913. These figures include exports from the Baghdad vilayet, from which there came in 1912 beans (1,500 bags), deri (1,152 bags), and māsh (10,123 bags), besides sesame and other seeds in smaller quantities.

From Mosul sesame is at times exported; this export was valued in 1911 at £1,500. From Diarbekr there is at times an export of pulse to other provinces.

Arabistan exports a certain quantity of oil seeds: in 1908 this export amounted to 640 tons of linseed and sesame; the latter was sent to France, the former to the United Kingdom, Germany, and India. There has been also a small export of beans and lentils from Arabistan through Koweit to Arabia and India, though this was checked in 1909 by an export duty imposed by the Persian Customs.

Wool.—The export trade in wool from Mesopotamia has been somewhat affected by fluctuations in the foreign demand: in some years, as in 1907, when foreign demands were small, considerable quantities have remained unsold; in recent years, however, there has been a good sale for wool in both Europe and America, and in the future there should be no difficulty in absorbing any quantity which the country can produce. The output has also in some years been checked by adverse local conditions: a great amount of damage was done to the flocks, and their numbers were considerably reduced, by the severe blizzard in 1911; in that year a large proportion of the wool

was skin-wool taken from dead animals, and the quality of the clip deteriorated accordingly. The practice of false packing, i.e. including dung-locks and dirty lumpy pieces rolled with good fleeces in order to increase the weight, has resulted in a lessened demand for Mesopotamian wool in Europe, except at reduced prices. The characteristics of the three principal varieties of wool, viz. Arab, Awassi, and Karadi have already been described (see pp. 186–7).

Baghdad is the principal centre of the wool trade in Mesopotamia; from there large consignments are sent *via* Basra to the United Kingdom, France, Germany, and Austro-Hungary; all three varieties are exported. Wool-dealing in Baghdad is very speculative, and the prices at which the wool is sold are often as high as, or higher than, prices in Europe. The method of purchase is as follows: merchants advance money to Arab and Kurdish flockmasters or heads of tribes some months before the wool season commences, and agree to pay the market price of the day of delivery at an appointed station; sometimes a sheikh or agha requiring money to pay his tax gets an advance for that purpose from a merchant, and agrees in return to make his followers deliver their wool to him; the wool is brought to Baghdad or other centres of the trade, where it is sorted and washed in a careless manner, and subsequently packed in bales weighing 340 lb. Prices in Baghdad in 1912 were: for Arab wool, washed, 18*s.* to 20*s.*, for Awassi wool, unwashed, 16*s.* to 17*s.* 6*d.*, and for Karadi wool, unwashed, 15*s.* 6*d.* to 17*s.* per 34·375 lb. Of the quantity exported from Baghdad in that year, amounting to 34,039 bales, 37 per cent. went to the United Kingdom, 32 per cent. to France, 21 per cent. to America, and 5½ per cent. to Germany. The amount of wool exported from Basra, and including Baghdad, has varied from 17,624 bales, valued at £123,368, in 1908 to 44,392 bales, valued at £310,744, in 1913.

Wool markets in upper Mesopotamia are at Mosul and Diarbekr; in Mosul there are a few merchants who purchase wool for the European markets, but the greater part is sent on to Baghdad or Aleppo, and sold there. Wool from Mosul is sent down the Tigris to Baghdad on rafts, and is of the Awassi and Karadi varieties; in 1912 wool to the value of £79,000 was exported from Mosul, of which £57,000 worth went to the United Kingdom and £22,000 to other countries. Of the wool in the Diarbekr district 90 per cent. is of the Karadi variety. The wool is washed, pressed, and packed in bales of 100 okes. It was sent to Alexandretta, whence it was exported for the most part to London.

There is a small export of wool from Arabistan, which amounted in 1910–11 to 407 tons, and in 1913 to 350 tons, valued at £13,473;

it is brought from the Dizfūl, Shushtar, and Ramuz districts, and exported to Europe, if in good order; otherwise it is sent unpressed to India. Wool is exported from Arabistan in a manufactured condition in the form of carpets, which are brought from up-country, and sent to the United Kingdom, and of cloth, which is exported to Turkey.

Mohair is clipped from Angora goats in the Kurdish hills; the buyers pay a fee to the headmen of the tribes, who in return help them by fixing the price of mohair in their tribe, and look after their interests generally. Mosul is the principal centre to which mohair is brought, and from which it is exported *via* Baghdad and Basra; the annual value of the export from Mosul in recent years has been about £11,000; in 1912 it was estimated at £11,500. Mohair from the Diarbekr vilayet is of fair quality; it comes chiefly from the Jezīret-ibn-'Omar district; the export in 1910 was valued at £10,000, in 1907 at £15,000. The price of mohair in Baghdad market was in 1912 19*s.* to 20*s.* per 28 lb. The export of mohair is through Basra; it has been sent almost entirely to the United Kingdom, where there is usually a good demand; a certain amount has gone to Germany, France, and Turkey. In 1913 the failure of Bradford spinners to support the market caused a fall in prices, and the exporters suffered loss; in that year 1,509 bales of mohair were exported from Basra, valued at £12,072.

Hides and Skins.—The export of hides and skins forms a considerable part of the trade of Mesopotamia; not all those exported, however, are produced locally, but a large number are brought in from Persia in years when the caravan-routes are open. The trade from the highlands of Kurdistan and from Persia is liable to be interfered with by severe weather or floods, as well as by raids and insecurity generally; on the other hand in years when the grain crops fail a larger number of animals is slaughtered, with a corresponding increase in the export of skins. Baghdad is the centre of the trade in hides and skins. The most important branch of the trade is the export of sheepskins. Raw sheepskins have been occasionally exported both with and without wool to England and Europe, but prices of the tanned article have lately been so high that the trade in raw skins decreased; tanned skins have been turned out in large quantities in recent years from the tanneries at Mo'adhdham, a suburb of Baghdad. In 1906 one firm alone shipped 800 bales of sheepskins tanned here, i. e. 240,000 skins representing a value of about £17,000; this was probably about a quarter of the total export. Tanned sheepskins in 1912 were worth from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* 8*d.* per oke (2·83 lb.) in Baghdad. The great majority of these skins have gone

to London, but some went to Germany, France, and Austria. The tanning of the skins, which are brought in from all parts of the country and also from Persia, is imperfectly carried out, while the ignorance and conservatism of local tanners makes it very difficult to introduce any improvements in their methods.

The export of lambskins consists partly of true lambskins from the winter lambs killed shortly after birth, of which probably 150,000 to 500,000, valued at from £7,500 to £25,000 are exported annually, partly of skins taken from the lambs born in summer and killed in the following spring. There has been a large export of these latter, chiefly to Germany and Austria, through Hamburg and Trieste. The price of these skins, which are largely used for glove-making, was in 1907 from 1*s.* 10*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* per skin in the Baghdad market; it is estimated that from 150,000 to 300,000 are sent away annually; astrakhan skins were valued in the same year at from 3*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* per skin; the principal demand for these was from Marseilles.

Goatskins are mostly exported in the form of raw goatskins with hair; these are brought in large quantities from Kurdistan and Persia. They have been exported to Europe and to the United Kingdom; most of those exported to this country have gone eventually to America; the export to Europe passed chiefly through Marseilles. The price per oke in Baghdad was in 1913 from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.*; the quantity exported annually is estimated at from 200,000 to 300,000 pieces, valued at from £20,000 to £30,000.

A certain number of raw goatskins are tanned at Mo'adhdham. They have been exported to the United Kingdom, which is usually the best market for the tanned skins. Prices of tanned goatskins were in 1912 2*s.* 10*d.* to 3*s.*, in 1913 3*s.* 1*d.* to 3*s.* 3*d.* per oke.

The number of ox and cowhides brought to Baghdad in an average season is from 50,000 to 60,000; these have been exported to European ports, chiefly Marseilles, and to the United States; the estimated value is about £12,000 annually. From 8,000 to 10,000 buffalo-hides come into the market every year, of which the greater number are used locally.

The amount of the total export of hides and skins from Baghdad has varied from 4,366 bales, valued at £56,760, in 1908 to 7,618 bales, valued at £108,612, in 1913; the export figures from Basra are rather less.

From Mosul hides and skins are exported to the value of about £40,000 annually.

There is a considerable export trade in hides and skins from Diarbekr. It appears that the bulk of the export went to France,

the United States, Germany, and other parts of Turkey. Some tanned sheepskins were apparently sent to London. The export of raw goatskins has been estimated at about 100,000 pieces a year. The total value of hides and skins exported from Diarbekr in 1913 was given as £39,000.

There is a small export of hides and skins from Arabistan which amounted in 1912–13 to £2,495.

Ghī and Butter.—The export of *ghī* has increased considerably in recent years, and is now becoming an important trade; it is made in the villages by the Arabs, and is collected in skins, and sent to the markets at Baghdad and Basra; in years when the rainfall is plentiful and grazing good there is a considerable surplus for export; in years of deficient rainfall it has been found necessary to prohibit the export altogether, for the sake of the local consumers. *Ghī* is exported from Baghdad and Basra to India, Turkey, and the Levant; in the Levant ports and at Jeddah there is a good demand for it; in 1906 the export amounted to 14,924 cases, valued at £25,371, and in 1911 to 34,492, valued at £86,230; the average export in the last three years before the war was 25,000 cases; the price during the same period was about £4 per cwt. There is an important export of butter from Diarbekr; this is sent overland to Syria and to the interior, and consists of cooling butter and lard for Syria, Constantinople, and Egypt. The value of this export increased from £30,000 in 1906 to £60,000 in 1913. The export of butter and grease from Arabistan is small.

Animals. (*a*) *Camels.*—The export of camels is mainly from the upper Mesopotamian plains and the Syrian Desert; there is very little export from Irak.

For the Anazeh and Shammār camels, and indeed for the whole Arabian camel trade, the chief market is Damascus, where from 24,000 to 32,000 camels are bought and sold every year; most of these go ultimately to Egypt, and the remainder to Asia Minor, Mesopotamia, and Syria; about 300 camels are sold in Aleppo every Wednesday for about six months in the year. The purchasing season for camels is the summer, when the Bedawis need clothes and provisions for the winter; at this season the Fed'an group of the Anazeh are in the Jezīreh, where they camp in the Khabūr valley, and the Amarat group are mostly on the Euphrates near Museyib. The method of purchase of the camels is as follows: the dealers of Baghdad and Damascus employ as buyers Ageyl Arabs, such as Beni Tamīm of the Nejd, who are not engaged in perpetual tribal feuds; the purchase is arranged through the local sheikh, who receives a *riyāl* on every camel bought and in return sees that the

animals are delivered at a fair price. The export of camels in 1912 from Diarbekr to Egypt and the interior was valued at £4,000, in 1913 at £6,000.

(*b*) *Horses.*—The horse export trade has been a fluctuating one, owing to various restrictions placed upon it by the Turkish Government. From 1902 to 1914 the export of horses was permitted, except at the time of the Balkan War. An export duty of 1 per cent. *ad valorem* was charged. Horses exported, with the exception of those from the Diarbekr vilayet, were sent to Basra, and thence to India; the breed of horses exported was mostly Arab.

A few Persian horses were sent to India, and from the Kirkuk district a fairly useful sort of Kurdish pony was also sent. The bulk of the horses from the Mosul vilayet were purchased for the markets at Mosul, Kirkuk, and Baghdad by dealers from the Shammār Arabs, who visited Arab and Kurdish tribes for the purpose. Up to 1906 the price of horses at Basra increased rapidly; from that date, however, it has remained at about the same figure. In 1910, 2,123 horses, valued at £53,075, were sent from Basra to India, but 900 of them remained for some time unsold at Bombay; in 1912, 1,413, valued at £35,325, were exported, and in 1913, 1,749, valued at £43,725; a large number of these horses came from the Mosul district. From Diarbekr horses and mules were exported at a value varying between £4,500 in 1908 and £6,500 in 1913; these were for the most part sent overland to Syria and the Interior; a certain number were at times sent to Egypt and to India.

(*c*) *Mules.*—Mules, mostly Persian, are bought in the markets of northern Arabistan and eastern and northern Mesopotamia for use in this area; the supply, however, was diminishing before the war. There is not much export of mules from Mesopotamia; about 400 animals passed through Baghdad market as re-exports for Syria in 1907. A certain number of mules is bred in the Diarbekr district, and of these some were sent to Syria. The Diarbekr mules are slightly inferior to the Baghdad mules; they were valued in 1907 at about £10 each, as compared with £15 for the Baghdad mule.

(*d*) *Sheep and Goats.*—The chief markets for the export of sheep from Mesopotamia to Syria and Egypt are Mosul and Diarbekr. The Baghdad export seems to have practically ceased before the war. The Diarbekr sheep came in part from outside this area, from the Dersim district, as well as a small number from Erzerum.

In 1908 the Mosul district was sending annually about 100,000 sheep to Syria at about 12*s.* each. In 1910 the value of the export of sheep from Mosul was estimated at £80,000; in 1912 (after the loss of stock in the severe winter of 1910–11) at £35,000. From

Diarbekr sheep to the value of £200,000 were exported in 1910. In 1912 the sheep and goats sent from Diarbekr to Egypt and the interior were valued at £90,000, and in 1913 at £150,000.

(*e*) *Cattle and Buffaloes.*—Cattle are exported from Mosul and Diarbekr to Syria, to other parts of Turkey, and to Egypt; the export from Mosul increased in value from £15,000 in 1907 to £30,000 in 1910, and in 1912 it amounted to £27,000; in the same year cattle to the value of £2,000 were exported from Diarbekr. Buffaloes are sent to Kaisarieh and Erzerum; the buffalo-hides are of considerable value, and are sent to other provinces of the Turkish Empire.

Liquorice.—The trade in liquorice, which is almost entirely in the hands of Messrs. MacAndrews, Forbes & Co., an American firm connected with the Tobacco Trust, has at times been considerably interfered with by the Turkish Governments which formerly imposed heavy taxes on the liquorice root; in 1909, however, the Turks granted facilities as to taxation, and a special officer was appointed to supervise the trade at the custom-house at Basra, with the result that the output was considerably increased. No liquorice paste has been manufactured in Mesopotamia; this is due to the fact that liquorice in a raw state enters America duty free, whereas the paste is subject to a prohibitive duty. There is a small export of liquorice to the United Kingdom and to France, as well as to America. The average value of the root before export from Basra is about £5 per ton. The number of the packages of liquorice exported annually from Basra has varied from 48,778 in 1909 to 13,052 in 1912 and 38,521 in 1913, valued at an equal number of pounds sterling; export duty was nominally 1 per cent. but amounted really to almost 2 per cent. owing to the various custom-house charges, stamps, &c. There has been an annual export of liquorice from Mosul valued at from £2,000 to £3,600.

Galls and Valonia.—Gall-nuts are produced by the larvae from the eggs deposited by the gall-fly on the oak-trees growing in the Kurdistan hills. The galls are brought down by the tribesmen in mixed parcels to Mosul, where they are sorted and graded; in years in which there was political disturbance in the hills the trade was adversely affected. Three sorts of galls are dealt in, viz. blues, greens, and whites; the first of these contains the most useful tanning properties, and was most in demand in Europe; greens were less in demand for export, though some were shipped to India; large quantities of whites are used by local tanners, but in 1913 almost the whole of the export of white galls was taken by Germany. In recent years Germany has taken about one-half of the total export of galls, the United Kingdom has taken about a quarter, and the

remainder has gone to India, France, the United States, the Netherlands, and Egypt. The prices of galls in Baghdad were in 1912 as follows: blues, £10 5*s.* to £10 10*s.* per kantar of 640½ lb.; whites, £9 15*s.* to £10; mixed, £9 5*s.* to £9 10*s.* The amount of galls exported from Basra, and including Baghdad, in 1910 was 7,616 bags, valued at £47,600, and in 1912, 24,355 bags, valued at £152,219. The value of the export of galls from Mosul has been usually from £70,000 to £80,000 annually; in 1912 it amounted to £80,000. From Diarbekr there was an export of valonia valued in 1910 at £13,000, in 1912 at £30,000; this went to the United Kingdom, France, Germany, and the interior. There is no export of galls from Arabistan.

Gum Tragacanth.—This substance is obtained from one of the gum-bearing plants, and is used as a substitute for gum arabic in the making of medicines and other commodities. The better-class gums are brought down from Persian Kurdistan, the province of Kirmanshah, and from Luristan and the Bakhtiyāri country; the gums produced in the Mardīn and Diarbekr districts of upper Mesopotamia are of poor quality. At times the supply fails owing to the unsettled state of the country and insecurity of the trade-routes. In 1909 the shrub from which the gum is taken in the Persian hills was said to be failing; good supplies, however, were forthcoming in the succeeding years. The greater part of the export of gum goes to London; in 1913, 82 per cent. was sent from Baghdad to this market, 12 per cent. to Germany, and the remainder to Egypt, France, and America; in 1912 the average price at Baghdad was £6 5*s.* per cwt. Arabistan gum goes partly to London, partly to India. The gum exported from Baghdad in 1909 consisted of 640 cases and bags valued at £10,886, and in 1912, of 5,772 cases and bags valued at £75,099. The export of gums from Arabistan was steadily increasing in value; it was estimated in 1908–9 at £5,856, in 1912–13 at £14,311. The value of gums exported annually from Diarbekr has varied between £2,000 in 1908 and £8,000 in 1913; these go to France, Germany, and the interior.

Silk.—The export of silk is almost entirely from the Diarbekr vilayet. The country round Diarbekr lends itself particularly to the cultivation of the mulberry-tree; the water-supply is good, and there has been a considerable increase, during recent years, in the number of trees planted. Silk is exported in two forms, raw and manufactured; there is also an export of cocoons and cocoon waste; there is a good demand for raw silk from Aleppo and Damascus, while manufactured silk is sent to Aleppo and Constantinople; cocoons are exported to France and Austria; the export to France,

which dates from 1908, is increasing. The value of silks exported from Diarbekr was in 1907 £50,000; in 1913 silk was exported to the value of £33,000, and cocoons valued at £300. There is also an annual export of silk from Mosul and Baghdad valued at a few hundred pounds. In former times the cultivation of the silk-worm was one of the most important industries in Irak; for some reason, however, the industry died out, but is now said to be reviving, and very large numbers of mulberry-trees have been planted in the neighbourhood of Bāqūbeh, about thirty miles from Baghdad.

Petroleum.—The export of oil is confined to the produce of the Arabistan field, Anglo-Persian Oil Company. This company began operations on a considerable scale only in 1912, and the quantity of Persian oil on the market at Basra in that year was insignificant. The season of 1913–14 was the first in which the company attained full marketing strength; Anglo-Persian oil was proved to be satisfactory both in quality and price, and gained quickly in popularity; since the beginning of 1914 it has maintained a strong hold on local markets. In 1913 products of the Anglo-Persian Oil Company were imported to Basra from Mohammareh to the extent of 179,294 cases, and in the same year were put on the market at Baghdad for the first time in any appreciable quantity, being responsible for 48 per cent. of the total importation. See further pp. 229–30.

Other Exports.—These included opium and carpets, both of which came from Persia; the opium was brought to Baghdad and forwarded to Hong-Kong; carpets were exported to Constantinople, Syria, London, and America. Copper from the Arghana Ma'den mines in the Diarbekr vilayet was, before the war, exported to England to the value of about £35,000 annually (see below, p. 229). Dog manure was sent to Austria to be used in the manufacture of gloves, intestines for the manufacture of sausages, and almond kernels, which are used in the making of prussic acid, were exported to the Continent; colocynth, from which a drug with strong cathartic properties is manufactured, and which grows in the neighbourhood of Mosul, was also exported.

Industries

The industries of the country were carried on before the war almost entirely without modern machinery. In Irak there were a few mechanical flour-mills, ice-machines, wool-presses, &c., mostly at Baghdad, and the Baghdad Army Clothing Factory had recently been provided with Austrian plant. These instances, together with the oil-pumps used for irrigation (see p. 160), the machinery employed on the Anglo-Persian Oil Company's workings, and that introduced

for the construction of the Hindiyeh Barrage and the Baghdad Railway, practically cover the whole extent to which modern mechanical methods were used in production.

Weaving.—There is a certain amount of hand-weaving in silk, cotton, and wool in the towns and villages of Mesopotamia. At Baghdad, Diarbekr, and Mosul weaving ranks as a principal industry with tanning and working in leather; it is fairly important at some other places, e. g. Nejef, Kirkuk, and Mardīn.

The production of silk tissues supplies the greater part of the local demand and maintains an export trade to other parts of Turkey, to North Africa, and to Persia. The chief centres of the industry are Baghdad (with Kazimain) and Diarbekr; it exists also at Nejef, Mosul, and elsewhere. At Baghdad a kind of silken thread is used which is said to be a vegetable product; it is called *sha'ri*, but the name is also given to Assam or 'Moga' silk imported from Calcutta.

Cotton and woollen fabrics are woven at Baghdad, Mosul, Diarbekr, Mardīn, and other places in upper and lower Mesopotamia. For cotton-weaving imported yarn is largely used (see p. 208); and imported wool is in some demand for the finer fabrics made at Baghdad.

Among the textiles manufactured at Baghdad are *aghabāni* (a silk stuff), *alajah* (a cotton fabric), *qutni* (a mixture of silk and wool), striped cotton piece-goods like those of Aleppo, and coarse cotton cloth. These materials are made into *kafiyehs* (head-kerchiefs), *'abas* (cloaks), *sharshafs* (sheets), *izars* (women's outer garments), *yashmāqs* (women's veils), and *zabūns* (long body-garments worn by men). The silk fabrics of Baghdad are famous for their colour and workmanship. Coarse yarns of local cotton are woven into sail-cloth and sheeting.

Other towns in Irak where *'abas* are made are Nejef, Kerbela, Amara, Sūq esh-Shuyūkh, and Kurna. There is a good demand at Baghdad for the *'abas* of Amara; those of Kurna are famous for their lightness; Nejef produces silk *'abas* embroidered with gold. Shrouds inscribed with texts from the Koran are made at the Shiah Holy Cities of Nejef and Kerbela. Woollen rugs and coarse carpets are manufactured at Kut el-Amara, and rough carpets, cheap but durable, at Amara.

At Diarbekr silk and cotton stuffs are the chief textile products. The unbleached cotton cloth manufactured in the towns of upper Mesopotamia is coarse but strong, and is largely used by Arabs and Kurds. There is a small export of locally worn cotton stuffs and woollen carpets from Arabistan.

The black goats' hair tents of the nomads and semi-nomads are manufactured in the towns of Mesopotamia.

Embroidery.—Much embroidery in silk and gold thread is produced at Baghdad and Diarbekr.

Dyeing.—A dyeing industry exists at the weaving centres. On the dyes used see p. 212.

Tanning and Leather Work.—Tanning is one of the principal industries of Baghdad. The tanneries are mostly in the suburb of Mo'adhdham, where in 1908 there were 40 establishments turning out about 5,000 sheepskins a week. There are smaller tanneries at Kazimain. The industry exists on a fairly large scale at Mosul and Diarbekr. The tannin used comes chiefly from Kurdish galls; there is some production of sumach-tanned leather at Mosul. On the export of tanned skins and hides to Europe and America see pp. 220-2.

Local and imported leathers supply various industries at Baghdad, Mosul, and Diarbekr, and especially the manufacture of native shoes and boots. There was a Turkish military boot-factory at Baghdad.

Boat-building.—The native boats in use on the rivers of Irak are built at a number of towns and villages. (On the different types of craft see pp. 288–90.) *Maheilehs* and large *bellams* are built at Basra, at Sangar (on the right bank of the Shatt el-'Arab about 8 miles below Basra) and at Mohammareh. Smaller craft (*danaks* and other types) are built at several places on the Euphrates, e. g. Sūq esh-Shuyūkh, Samāweh, Shināfiyeh, Umm el-Ba'rur, Hindiyeh (Tawarīj), and Hīt. *Mashhūfs* are built especially at Sūq esh-Shuyūkh and on the Tigris at Qal'at Sālih. The Sabians of southern Irak are noted boat-builders.

The *shakhtūrs* used on the middle Euphrates were before the war constructed at Birijek. During the war a *shakhtūr*-yard has apparently been established at Jerablūs.

The *keleks* used on the middle Tigris are put together at Diarbekr and Mosul.

Metal-work.—This is produced at all the principal towns of Mesopotamia. The Sabian gold- and silver-smiths of lower Mesopotamia (at Amara, Sūq esh-Shuyūkh and Shatrat el-Muntefiq) have a great local reputation. The copper-smiths of Baghdad manufacture boilers, kettles, coffee-pots, and large copper dishes. Other towns where a good deal of copper and iron work is produced are Diarbekr, Mardīn, and Mosul.

Arms.—There has been some manufacture of arms in the towns, especially in Kurdistan. At Suleimāniyeh there is a manufacture of rifles, for which there is a good market among the Kurds of the neighbourhood. The model for these weapons is the Martini-Peabody American patent, but the bore is that of the Russian Berdan rifle, and the cartridges used have been of Russian manufacture. One

craftsman constructs the barrels (spirally welded strips of sheet-iron), another the locks and springs, a third puts together and browns the arms, and an agent sells them, the cheapest for £T2, the dearest for £T4. These rifles are fairly reliable up to 500 yards. They can be turned out at the rate of about 9,000 a year.

Mining.—The only important mines that have been recently worked in this area are the copper-mines at Arghana Ma'den about 45 miles NW. of Diarbekr. In 1907 there were three shafts, two of which (called Sejak and Serhosh) were the property of the Government, while the third (called Lam) belonged to the inhabitants of the neighbourhood. The Government shaft 'Serhosh', which was the only one working, was leased to the inhabitants of Arghana Ma'den, who are mostly Greeks and Armenians. The ore was mined with hand-picks and blasted with native powder made at Egil. Wood-fuel brought from the neighbouring hills was used in the smelting furnaces. Between 1900 and 1906 the yearly average of copper produced was 2,350,000 lb., and the average estimated value of the output was about £36,500. In 1913 the export of copper from Diarbekr (presumably from these mines) was valued at £35,700. The produce went to the United Kingdom. It has been stated that not long before the war the mines were closed down owing to the exhaustion of the supply of wood-fuel on which they depended; but it has been reported recently that they are now being worked and that modern machinery has been ordered for them.

Coal is worked at Nasāleh in the neighbourhood of Kufri (Salāhiyeh). Small quantities, of poor quality, were obtained here before the war, but the Turks recently developed the workings and seem to have obtained in 1916 a fair quality of coal at the rate of 40–50 tons a day.

Some of the coal, iron, and lead deposits in the hill-country of upper Mesopotamia (see pp. 57–8) have been worked intermittently on a small scale.

Quarrying.—The principal quarrying industry is that of the Mosul district. *Fursh*, a soft bluish marble, is exported thence to Baghdad.

Oil and Pitch Production.—The Anglo-Persian Oil Company holds a concession which gives it the exclusive right to bore for oil in Persia except in the northern provinces of Azerbaijan, Gilan, Mazanderan, Astarabad, and Khorasan. When the Turco-Persian frontier was delimited in 1914 certain petroliferous areas in the Mandali—Khanikin—Qasr-i-Shīrīn region were transferred from Persia to Turkey; but the Turkish Government confirmed the rights of the company on the transferred territory. The British Government,

in view of the importance of securing a controlled supply for the needs of the Royal Navy, has invested largely in the company, and in consideration of this financial support arrangements have been made which give the Government the supervision of the Company's general policy and of the further development of the concession.

(*a*) *Production in Arabistan.*—The Anglo-Persian Oil Company's producing field is at Maidān-i-Naftūn 26–30 miles SSE. of Shushtar. At Maidān-i-Naftūn an area of about 3½ square miles was proved by 1918. The wells drilled here have so far given an abundant yield, and prospects of further development are good. Some promising areas have been found in the neighbourhood. A 10-in. pipe-line carries oil from the Maidān-i-Naftūn field to the refinery at 'Abbādān on the Shatt el-'Arab. At the beginning of the war the 'Abbādān refinery had storage for 60,000 tons of crude oil and 50,000 tons of refined oil; but the storage capacity has since been increased, and further considerable extensions were in progress at the end of 1917. The native labour employed by the company is mainly Lur.

There is some insignificant collection of oil by natives near Maidān-i-Naftūn, at Mesjid-i-Suleimān (where the wells are exploited by the Seyyids of Shushtar), and at Shardan near Ramuz. The oil thus obtained is used chiefly for anointing camels against the mange.

(*b*) *Production in Turkish Territory and in the Persian Province of Kirmanshah.*—The places on Turkish territory where oil was more or less regularly obtained are Mandali (Neft Khāneh), Chīah Surkh, Abu Sarkal (near Tūz Khurmatli), Kirkuk, and Kaiyara. There seems to have been some collection (possibly intermittent) of oil at Zakho. The Chīah Surkh and Neft Khāneh wells were in Persian territory until the delimitation of the frontier in 1914, when they were transferred to Turkey, the rights of the Anglo-Persian Oil Company in the ceded areas being preserved. On the Persian side of the present frontier, in the province of Kirmanshah, the Kurds collect oil in places, e. g. at Imām Hasan E. of Khanikin. Up to 1914 the Chīah Surkh wells were worked on a small scale by the Anglo-Persian Oil Company. The Turkish Government leased wells on its territory to contractors. Elsewhere than at Chīah Surkh oil was collected in skins and transported to local refineries by donkeys. There were stills, where refining was carried on by primitive processes, at Kirkuk, Tūz Khurmatli, Mandali, and Kaiyara. Production was on a very small scale. The Mandali springs yielded about 500 gallons a day; those at Kirkuk and Abu Sarkal about 130 and 150 gallons respectively. (On the prospects of the Neft Khāneh field near Mandali see p. 60.) The oil produced was used for lighting, for lubrication, and as a medicine for camel-mange.

Pitch is obtained at Hīt, where there are five bitumen springs, or groups of springs, four on the right bank of the Euphrates, one on the left. In 1909 four of these were being worked and were said to be capable of yielding altogether over 2,000 donkey-loads a day; much less was actually collected. The methods of collection and preparation were primitive. The bitumen is used for pitching boats, bridges, floors, &c. Lack of transport has confined the sale of bitumen to the local Mesopotamian market. On the possibilities of the Hīt district as an oil-producing area see p. 61.

Miscellaneous. (*a*) *Minor Handicrafts.*—Pottery is manufactured throughout the country, though a certain amount is imported from abroad; the pottery of Baghdad, very light and porous, is sold throughout Irak. Much matting is produced in Irak, especially by the marsh Arabs. A number of crafts are specially practised by the Persians of Irak, e.g. at Kazimain house-decorating and painting, and the manufacture of small objects of ivory, wood, and tortoise-shell. At Kerbela filigree work in the precious metals and engraving on mother-of-pearl are executed, and here and at Nejef are made rosaries and praying tablets which, like the inscribed shrouds mentioned above, find a sale among Shiah pilgrims.

(*b*) *Distilling.*—*Araq* is distilled at Qarāreh three miles south of Baghdad, and an inferior quality is made at Hilla. In the first half-year of the British occupation of Baghdad the Government monopoly for the sale of *araq* in the city and surrounding districts brought in £16,000. The spirit is made from *zehdi* dates together with mastic, orange-peel, cardamoms, and other ingredients.

(*c*) *Dried Fruit.*—There is a dried-fruit industry which is said to contain possibilities of development.

(*d*) *Milling* is a fairly important industry in some towns, but modern machinery has not been used, except to a slight extent at Baghdad and Basra.

(*e*) *Wool-pressing* is carried on at Baghdad, Basra, Kut el-Amara, and Amara.

(*f*) *Gypsum-mortar* is manufactured in considerable quantities at Mahmūdiyeh (between Baghdad and Museyib), and at Zobeir near Basra.

(*g*) *Collection of Salt.*—Salt is collected for local use from some of the large fields of Irak and the Jezīreh (see p. 58). The fields have been Turkish Government property, and the right of supplying the produce to the larger towns was leased to contractors; otherwise the Arabs seemed to have helped themselves as they pleased. The produce of the fields in the Sairt district (south of Bitlis) was exported to neighbouring vilayets.

(*h*) *Collection of Galls: Digging of Liquorice.*—Galls are collected by the tribes of the Kurdish hill-country and brought to market at Mosul, Rowanduz, and elsewhere. (On their export see p. 224.) New season galls begin to come into Mosul about the middle of July, and the supply continues until October. Good crops follow severe winters.

On the distribution of the liquorice root see p. 64. In some parts of the country where liquorice grows (e.g. in Arabistan) it has been found impossible to gather the root owing to difficulties of labour and transport. Digging has taken place round Mosul and in Irak as far down as Kut el-Amara on the Tigris and Diwāniyeh on the Euphrates. Women's labour is largely employed. The digging is carried on chiefly in winter. The root takes about four months to dry, and in the process loses about 60 per cent. of its weight. It is then hydraulically pressed into bales at Basra. (On its export see p. 224.) Messrs. MacAndrews, Forbes & Co., who have practically the whole industry in their hands, have been accustomed to lease the ground on which the root is dug, and have also paid a tax on it to the Turkish Government.

CHAPTER XIII

CURRENCY, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

Currency and Exchange

Baghdad and Basra

Turkish Currency.—Before the war the Turkish coinage in Irak was not enough for the needs of the country and had to be supplemented by foreign coins, chiefly Indian and Persian. Since 1914 the circulation of Turkish coins in the area occupied by the British has become unimportant, the principal currency being the Indian coinage and notes introduced by the Expeditionary Force. In April 1917 it was reported that Turkish coinage had been practically eliminated, Turkish *lirahs* circulating in bazaars, but not to any great extent.

The Turkish *lirah*, or pound (£T), has an intrinsic value of about 18*s.* 0¾*d.*, and before the war was ordinarily taken as approximately equivalent to 18*s.* The par of exchange was 110 per cent. (£T110= £100 sterling).

In the calculation of sums of money the *lirah* is resolved into piastres. In Irak before the war there were several different valuations of the piastre, which were used in different kinds of transactions. There are no piastre coins, although, as will be seen, two kinds of piastre practically have equivalents in the coinage (see (*c*) and (*f*) below). The varieties of the piastre were as follows:

(*a*) The 'gold' piastre, at 100 to the *lirah*. This was used for the payment of taxes and other transactions with State departments.

(*b*) The *mejidiyeh* piastre, at 102·6 to the *lirah*. The Imperial Ottoman Bank kept its accounts partly in the gold piastre, partly in the *mejidiyeh*.

(*c*) The silver or *sagh* piastre (also called *mejidiyeh*) at 108 to the *lirah*. This is the piastre commonly used by merchants in transactions, partly owing to its close correspondence with the silver coin known as the *qursh sagh* (value about 2*d.*), partly for convenience of

calculation, 20 *sagh* piastres going to the *mejidi*, the principal silver coin (for which see below).

(*d*) A piastre (sometimes also called *mejidiyeh*) at 103·5 to the *lirah*, used by merchants for some purposes, such as the keeping of wholesale accounts.

(*e*) A piastre at 155 to the *lirah*, used at Basra in the date trade.

(*f*) The *raij*, or small, piastre (I), at 432 to the *lirah*. This is a quarter of the *sagh* piastre, and is used in retail trade. It corresponds to the nickel coin called *mitliq* ($\frac{1}{2}$*d.*).

(*g*) The *raij*, or small, piastre (II), at 414 to the *lirah*. This is a quarter of the piastre at 103·5 (*d* above).

The first four of the above-mentioned piastres were sometimes known as 'big' or 'grand seigneur' piastres. In quotations of prices the *sagh* piastre (occasionally denoted by the letters *g. s. p.*) was generally used.

In the calculation of small sums the *para* is much used, 40 *paras* going to the *sagh* piastre. There are no *para* coins.

A unit of computation used in the quotation of prices in the date market is the *shami*, equivalent to 5 gold piastres. There was formerly a coin of this name with a nominal value of ten gold piastres, but having been reduced after the Russo-Turkish War to the value of 5 gold piastres, which was less than the value of the metal contained in the coin, it was everywhere melted down, and has now altogether disappeared.

There are five Turkish gold coins, of 5, $2\frac{1}{2}$, 1, $\frac{1}{2}$, and $\frac{1}{4}$ *lirahs* respectively. Even before the war the first two were very rarely seen, and the last infrequently. As has been mentioned above there is still a limited circulation of *lirahs*; at the beginning of 1917 they were current at a greatly enhanced rate, about 10 per cent. above their rupee value.

The principal coin is the *mejidi* or *mejidiyeh*. In cash transactions, where no special arrangement exists, 5·4 *mejidis* are reckoned to the *lirah*. The value of the *mejidi* in terms of piastres is as follows:

18·5	gold piastres.
19	*mejidiyeh* piastres at 102·6 to the *lirah*.
20	*sagh* piastres at 108 to the *lirah*.
19·1	piastres at 103·5 to the *lirah*.
80	*raij* piastres at 432 to the *lirah*.
76·6	*raij* piastres at 414 to the *lirah*.

Before the war the *mejidi* was ordinarily reckoned as the equivalent of about 3*s.* 4*d.* of English money.

Other Turkish coins, with their approximate pre-war English values, are as follows:

			s.	d.
1	Fulsain (5 Paras)	=		$\frac{1}{4}$
2	Fulsain = 1 Qursh Raij or Mitliq	=		$\frac{1}{2}$
2	Mitliqs = 1 Qamari	=		1
4	Mitliqs = 1 Qursh Sagh	=		2
5	Mitliqs = 1 Ruba Bashlik or Abu Khamseh	=		$2\frac{1}{2}$
8	Mitliqs = 1 Qurshain Sagh or Abu Thamaniyeh	=		4
10	Mitliqs = 1 Nasf Bashlik or Abu Ashreh	=		5
2	Nasf Bashliks = 1 Bashlik or Ruba Mejidi	=		10
2	Bashliks = 1 Nasf Mejidi	=	1	8
2	Nasf Mejidis = 1 Mejidi	=	3	4

Of these the *fulsain* and *mitliq* are nickel; the *qamari*, *ruba bashlik*, and *nasf bashlik* alloy, and the rest silver. Before the war the $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{4}$ *bashlik* were uncommon, and the others, except the *mitliq*, by no means plentiful.

Turkish coins of the same nominal value may differ considerably in weight, &c. The distinction between 'good' and 'bad' money varies locally: coins that would be considered 'bad' in some towns or districts will pass in others. At Baghdad *lirahs* and *mejidis* were assayed for local circulation by *sarafs* (see p. 206).

Foreign Coinage in Irak up to 1914.—The import of foreign silver was legally forbidden, but in fact, the amount of Turkish coinage being inadequate, the use of foreign currencies was inevitable.

Persian coinage was specially common, owing to the close commercial connexion between Irak and Persia and the great numbers of Persian pilgrims who visited the country. There was little Persian gold, but much Persian silver—the double *qrān* (then about $8\frac{1}{2}d.$), the *qrān* (about $4\frac{1}{4}d.$), the half-*qrān*, the quarter-*qrān*, and the *sittah fulus* (about $\frac{3}{4}d.$). A Persian copper coin, erroneously called *shāhi* (worth about $\frac{1}{16}d.$), was also used.

There was a large quantity of Indian silver in Irak, especially in Basra. Seizures of Indian coin were occasionally made by the Turkish authorities.

Some English, French, and Russian gold was in circulation.

Foreign Currency since 1914.—The Expeditionary Force has been financed with Indian rupees (accompanied by proportionate amounts of small copper and nickel coins) and with Indian currency notes. These found immediate acceptance, the popularity of Indian notes being specially marked, and the currency of Irak is now predominantly Indian. By April 1917 not only Turkish but Persian

coinage had been reduced to insignificance in the occupied area in southern Irak, though Persian coins had still a small circulation in bazaars.

The English equivalents of Indian coins are as follows:

1 Pie	. . .	= $\frac{1}{3}$ Farthing.
3 Pie	= 1 Pice	. = $\frac{1}{4}$*d.*
4 Pice	= 1 Anna	. = 1*d.*
16 Annas	= 1 Rupee	. = 1*s.* 4*d.*
15 Rupees	. .	. = £1.

Maria Theresa dollars (*riyāls*, worth about $1\frac{1}{2}$ rupee) were imported from Aden and Masqat for the purchase of camels in Arabia.

Exchange.—The rate of exchange for the *lirah* was variable; it might fall as low as $105\frac{1}{2}$ (£T$105\frac{1}{2}$ = £100 sterling) in the date season, and rise to 110 or higher in winter. The *qrān* exchange also fluctuated (see further below, p. 237), but in their accounts merchants used a fictitious book-*qrān* fixed at 34·4 to the *lirah*. The Baghdad money market was controlled by *sarafs* (compare p. 206). The money-changer's business was made very lucrative by the number of different coinages in circulation. Merchants wishing to dispose of their foreign money usually purchased drafts allowing coins to return to the country of their origin, these drafts having a rate of their own different from that of the coinages.

Mosul

Mosul has a piastre of its own, the valuation of which is as follows:

40 Mosul paras	= 1 Mosul *piastre.*
$25\frac{1}{2}$ Mosul piastres	= 1 *mejidi.*
$137\frac{1}{2}$ Mosul piastres	= 1 *lirah.*

Arabistan

Currency.—The following Persian coins were current in Arabistan before the war:

The *siyah pul*, a copper coin of variable value; it has been known to stand at $\frac{1}{56}$, $\frac{1}{54}$, and $\frac{1}{64}$ of the *qrān* at the same time in different parts of Arabistan.

The *shāhi*, nickel, $\frac{1}{20}$ of the *qrān*.

The *qamari*, nickel, $\frac{1}{10}$ of the *qrān*.

The *qrān* or *hazar* (at Shushtar and Dizfūl sometimes called *riyāl*),

silver; value before the war about 4*d.* or 4¼*d.* (see below, under *Exchange*).

The *dū hazar*, silver, = 2 *qrāns*.

The following gold coins were rarely seen: the gold *dū hazar* (passed at 3½–4 *qrāns*); the *panj hazar* (nominally 5 *qrāns*, passed at 10½–11 *qrāns*); the *ashrafi* (nominally 10 *qrāns*, passed at 20½–22 *qrāns*).

There are two units of calculation (not coins) in common use: the *dinār*, of which 1,000 go to the *qrān*; and the *tūmān* = 10 *qrāns*. Fractions of *qrāns* are generally expressed in *qamaris* or half-*qamaris*.

Indian and Turkish coins, as well as Maria Theresa dollars, were also current. Recently the quantity of rupees in the country has greatly increased.

Exchange.—The *qrān* exchange has given serious trouble in the past few years. Before the war the exchange with the rupee was at the rate of 365–385 *qrāns* to Rs. 100. Soon after the beginning of the war the *qrān* depreciated, and the rate was 425 and more. Early in 1916 the *qrān* began to appreciate, and the process continued rapidly throughout that year. In November 1916 the rate was 250 in Arabistan; early in January 1917 it was less than 200. Then began a reaction, and in April 1917 the rate was about 260.

The causes of the appreciation of the *qrān* are obscure. Among them may be, first, the rise in the price of the silver; secondly, the flooding of northern Persia with Russian paper money; and thirdly, the curtailed coinage of new Persian currency due to the difficulty of importing silver.

The appreciation was against the British interests, as mules and supplies were being purchased in south-western Persia for the Expeditionary Force in Mesopotamia, and were being paid for in *qrāns*, which were being bought for the purpose in large quantities. In the course of 1916 the purchase of *qrāns* was suspended, and orders were issued that supplies were to be paid for, so far as possible, in rupees. The result has been a large increase in the number of rupees circulating in southern Persia.

Weights

Baghdad.—The standards of weights vary from place to place. Even at Baghdad, the commercial capital, there is much unnecessary complication. Two systems prevail: (*a*) *Local*, based on the Baghdad oke (*huqqeh*) of 8 lb. 12 oz. 8 dr. (*b*) *Non-local*, based on the Constantinople oke of 2 lb. 12 oz. 12 dr.

(*a*) The scale of local weights is as follows:

I. Corresponding to English Avoirdupois

Turkish.	English (avoirdupois).		
	lb.	oz.	dr.
1 Ruba		8	12½
1 Waqiyeh (= 4 Rubas)	2	3	2
1 Huqqeh (= 4 Waqiyehs) . . .	8	12	8
1 Charak (= 1½ Huqqehs) . . .	13	2	12
1 Mann (= 4 Charaks)	52	11	0
1 Wazneh (= 4 Manns)	210	12	0
1 Taghar (= 20 Waznehs) . . .	4,215	0	0

The above are used for local produce and remain constant, whatever the substance weighed.

II. Corresponding to English Grains

Turkish.	English.
	Grains.
1 Quirat or Hubba	3·093
1 Dirham = 16 Qirats	49½
1 Mittiqal Baghdad = 1½ Dirham . . .	74¼
1 Mittiqal Ajami (for pearls only) = 22½ Qirats .	69½
1 Chaki = 100 Mittiqal Baghdad . . .	7425

The foregoing scale is used at Baghdad for weighing precious metals and stones.

(*b*) The non-local weights, corresponding to English avoirdupois, vary according to the commodity in question, these variations being due to the addition or subtraction of allowances customary in each case; for example:

	Avoirdupois		
	lb.	oz.	dr.
i. *Gall-nuts.*			
Sold by kantars: 1 kantar = 223⅕ Constantinople okes . . . . . =	624	4	3⅕
(4 *waqiyehs* of 11 oz. 3 dr. each = 1 Constantinople oke in the case of this commodity.)			

	Avoirdupois lb.	oz.	dr.
ii. *Wool, gums.*			
Sold by maunds: 1 maund = 12½ Constantinople okes . . . . . =	34	15	6
(The Constantinople oke is also known as an *astana* in the case of this commodity.)			
iii. *Grain, vegetables, dates.*			
Sold by waznehs: 1 wazneh = 78 Constantinople okes . . . . . =	218	2	8
iv. *Wood, charcoal, peas.*			
Sold by waznehs: 1 wazneh = 50 Constantinople okes =	139	13	8
(20 waznehs = 1 *taghar* in the case of wood and charcoal.)			
v. *Metals, coffee, pepper.*			
Sold by maunds: 1 maund = 6 Constantinople okes =	16	12	8

The French kilogram (= 2·2046 lb.) is used to a limited extent as an official measure under the name of *huqqeh ashshari* or decimal *huqqeh*, and 100 kilograms are treated in the case of grain as equivalent to 1 *wazneh*. Apothecaries also employ the French kilogram with its multiples and subdivisions.

The result of the multiplication of standards is that there are at least 2 kinds of *waqiyeh*, 3 of *huqqeh*, 2 of *mann*, 3 of *wazneh*, and 2 of *taghar* in simultaneous use at Baghdad.

Basra.—At Basra the local unit is a *huqqeh* of 2 lb. 12 oz., and the local *waqiyeh* = 2½ *huqqehs*. Weighment is usually by *maunds*, but the number of *huqqehs* to the *maund* varies somewhat as follows:

(*a*) For *grain, lime, wool,* and *skins:*
1 maund = 60 huqqehs.

(*b*) For *meat, provisions,* and *groceries:*
1 maund = 10 huqqehs.

(*c*) For *ghī:*
1 maund = 50 huqqehs.

(*d*) For *dates:*
1 maund = 54 huqqehs.

The Basra *taghar*, containing 1,200 *huqqehs*, is in practice regarded as the equivalent of 1½ ton.

The weights corresponding to English Troy, in use among goldsmiths and jewellers, are as follows:

24 hubba = 1 miskal = 4 dwt. Troy.

A Persian *miskal*, weighing 10 per cent. less than the Arabic or 87 gr. Troy, is generally employed for pearls.

Mosul.—Two scales of weights obtain at Mosul:

		lb. avoirdupois
(*a*) Ordinary:		
1 Ogia	=	0·28
1 Mosul oke = 16 ogias or 1·6 Constantinople oke	=	4·53
1 Wazneh or mun = $6\frac{1}{2}$ Mosul okes or 10·6 Constantinople okes	=	29·47
1 Kantar = 20 waznehs	=	589

The above are used in weighing wool, mohair, galls, gum, grains, seeds, peas, beans, *ghī*, cheese, and flour. Meat, bread, vegetables, cream, &c., are sold by the local oke of 16 ogias in the bazaar.

		lb. avoirdupois
(*b*) *Atari* or grocers' weights:		
1 Dirhem	=	0·07
1 Ogia = 4 dirhems	=	0·28
1 Oke = 12 ogias or 1·2 Constantinople oke	=	3·4
1 Mun = 6 Mosul okes or 7·2 Constantinople okes	=	20·4
1 Kantar = 30 muns	=	612

Atari weights are used for sugar, metal, soap, indigo, dates, tea, nuts, spices, &c.; but the Constantinople oke of 2 lb. 12 oz. 12 dr. is mostly employed by retail trades in imported articles. For local produce the Baghdad oke of 8 lb. 12 oz. 8 dr. is the usual medium.

Troy weight has its counterpart at Mosul, as follows:

		gr. Troy
1 Qirat	=	4
1 Denk = 4 qirats	=	16
1 Dram = 4 denks	=	64
1 Miskal = $1\frac{1}{4}$ dram	=	80

As at Baghdad, the Mosul apothecaries employ the French metric system.

Diarbekr.—The scale of weights in use at Diarbekr is as follows:

		lb. avoirdupois
1 Oke = 400 dirhems	=	2·82
1 Batman = 6 okes	=	16·9
1 Kantar or kile = 30 batmans	=	507

A *kantar* or *kile* at Mardīn = 40 *batmans*, i. e. 676 lb. The *kuchek* is $\frac{1}{16}$th of a *kile*, equivalent accordingly to $31\frac{11}{16}$ lb. at Diarbekr or $42\frac{1}{4}$ lb. at Mardīn. The terms *nuyi* for half an oke, and *tukht* for a quarter of an oke, are commonly used in the Diarbekr vilayet.

Precious stones and gold are weighed as follows:

1 Gūd = 4 bugdehs.
1 Miskal = 24 gūds.
(1 Miskal = $1\frac{1}{2}$ dram.)

Arabistan.—The following weights are those which are in use in more than one or two trade centres:

The Miskal, of which $97\frac{3}{4}$ (97·744) go to 1 lb.; in use throughout the country.

The Batman, or Man-i-Tabrīz = 640 *miskals* = 6·5478 lb. This is the unit of weight adopted by the Persian Imperial Customs.

The Man-i-Shiraz = 720 *miskals* = 7·3662 lb.; used to some extent in general trade.

The Man-i-Shāhi = 1,280 *miskals* = 13·095 lb.; used in arranging transport on the Lynch Road.

The Huqqeh (Oke) el-Ahwāz = 2·87 lb.; used by the Euphrates and Tigris Steam Navigation Company on the Kārūn.

The Kharwar or Khalwar = 100 *batmans*; used in some places for estimating (but not for buying or selling) grain.

Local weights are as follows:

(*a*) *Mohammareh.*

Man-i-Bazar = (nominally) 147·3 lb., consisting of 14 *waqiyehs* of 600 *miskals* each; in practice variable.

Man-i-Sif = (nominally) 159·6 lb., consisting of 26 *waqiyehs* of 600 *miskals* each; in practice variable.

Man-i-Basra = 168 lb.; used in export trade.

Taghar-i-Basri = 3,360 lb.; employed also at Nāzirī by European merchants.

Kāreh = about $1\frac{1}{2}$ ton (see below under Ahwāz); used for computing the date crop in the Shatt el-ʿArab.

(*b*) *Ahwāz.*

Huqqeh el-Ahwāz = 2·87 lb.

Waqiyeh el-Ahwāz = 4·30 lb. ($1\frac{1}{2}$ *huqqeh*).

Man-i-Shushtar = 15·478 lb.; the standard weight for ordinary purposes (on its subdivisions see below).

Man-i-Ismā'ili, or Simāīni, = 392 lb. (about); used for transactions in grain; variable.

Taghar el-Ahwāz = 20 Man-i-Ismā'ili.

Kāreh = 100 Man-i-Ismā'ili = about $1\frac{1}{2}$ ton.

(*c*) *Hawīzeh.*

Man-i-Hawīzeh = 108·35 lb. (?). It is said to be equal to 7 *man-i-Shushtar*, but may be considerably less—26 Ahwāz *huqqehs*.

(*d*) *Dizfūl.*

Man-i-Dizfūl = 16·969 lb. (on its subdivisions see below).

(*e*) *Shushtar.*

Man-i-Shushtar (sometimes called by Arabs Man-i-Khān) = 15·478 lb. (on its subdivisions see below).

(*f*) *Fellāhīyeh.*

Man-i-Fellāhīyeh (or Man-i-Doraq) = 248 lb.; divided into 12 local *waqiyehs*.

(*g*) *Hindīyan.*

Man-i-Hindīyan = 240 lb.

Man-i-Dih Mulla = $247\frac{1}{2}$ lb.

(*h*) *Jerrāhi.*

Man-i-Khalfābād = 124 lb.

(*i*) *Ramuz.*

Man-i-Ramuz = 106 lb.

(*j*) *Bandar Ma'shur.*

1 Waqiyeh = 1 Bushire Man = $7\frac{3}{4}$ lb.
16 Waqiyehs = 1 Man-i-Khalfābād = 124 lb.
32 Waqiyehs = 1 Man Hashim = 248 lb.
100 Man Hashim = 1 Kāreh = 24,800 lb.

The *man* at Dizfūl, Shushtar, Nāzirī, and perhaps elsewhere is divided as follows:

4 Sanars = 1 Charak.
2 Charaks = 1 Pashti.
2 Pashtis = 1 Dahsi.
4 Dahsis = 1 Man.

Measures

Linear

Baghdad.—Three systems prevail, each based upon a different *dhara* or 'yard'.

(*a*) The *dhara Baghdad*, or cubit of Baghdad, is the one most generally used for cotton cloths, &c.

		inches
1 Dhara Baghdad = 4 charaks . . .	=	$29\frac{3}{4}$
1 Charak = 4 aqads	=	$7\frac{7}{16}$
1 Aqad	=	$1\frac{55}{64}$

(*b*) The *dhara Haleb*, or cubit of Aleppo, is used for silks or woollens.

		inches
1 Dhara Haleb = 4 charaks	=	$26\frac{7}{8}$
1 Charak = 4 aqads	=	$6\frac{3}{4}$
1 Aqad	=	$1\frac{11}{16}$

(*c*) The *dhara Shah* is used for measuring carpets or other dealings with Persians.

		inches
1 Dhara Shah = 4 rubas or charaks . .	=	42
1 Ruba or Charak = 4 aqads . . .	=	$10\frac{1}{2}$
1 Aqad	=	$2\frac{5}{8}$

British goods are measured in English yards, Continental goods in metres. It will be observed from the above tables that three different *charaks* of length obtain at Baghdad besides the *charak* of weight, and one *ruba* of length besides the *ruba* of weight. A mason's cubit (*mamar*), equal to $31\frac{1}{2}$ in., is used chiefly by builders and for land measurement.

Basra.—The English yard of 36 in. is in general use, being known as *dhara* and subdivided into 16 *aqads*. But the Aleppo *dhara* of 27 in. is also employed.

Mosul.—The *dhara* at Mosul measures $31\frac{23}{32}$ in., being as elsewhere divided into 16 *aqads*.

Diarbekr.—The *dhara* here measures 29·9 in. and is also called *arshin*. It is divided into 4 *charaks* or 16 *qirchs*, which latter would appear to be synonymous with *aqad*.

Arabistan.—The *dhara* (Persian *zar*) varies from 32 in. at Shushtar and Fellāhīyeh to 37 in. at other places. The half-yard is called *nim* by Persians, or *nuss* by Arabs; the quarter-yard is called *rub*, or *ruba*, or *charak*. The *charak* is divided into 4 *qirchs*.

The *Gaz-i-Shāh* measures 40·41 in.

Piece-goods are measured by the English yard, or by the actual cubit (the length of a man's forearm and hand), or by the double cubit (the distance from a man's nose to the tip of his finger when the arm is extended).

Distance

In Turkey distances (except in so far as official measurements are made in kilometres) are calculated in hours. The official 'hour' may be taken as the equivalent of $3\frac{1}{2}$–4 miles. It therefore represents a greater distance than can actually be covered in an hour under normal conditions by troops on the march; and it is more than the hour's march of laden camels under any circumstances, or of other pack-animals on difficult ground (compare pp. 278–9). But 'camel hours' and 'pack-animal hours' are not infrequently used to estimate distance.

In Persia the *farsakh* (Arabic *sā'at*) is used. The *farsakh* is theoretically 3·87 miles, but is actually variable, being taken as the equivalent of an 'hour'. It may be considered to be about $3\frac{1}{2}$–4 miles.

Square Measure, applicable especially to Land

Baghdad.—The commonest unit of land measurement is the *faddan*, which term is here defined as 'the area which two men can cultivate', or 'a surface which can be completely sown with 500 *huqqehs* of wheat and 700 *huqqehs* of barley', in all 1,200 (Constantinople) *huqqehs*. The Baghdad *faddan* is subdivided into *donums*, square *jaribs*, and square *dharas* (*mamari*), as follows:

			approximately
1 Faddan = 200 donum atik . .	=	$44\frac{1}{2}$ acres.
1 Donum atik = 1,600 sq. dhara mamari	=	0·24 ,,
1 sq. Dhara mamari	=	6·53 sq. ft.
or		
1 Faddan = 18 sq. jaribs . . .	=	$44\frac{1}{2}$ acres.
1 sq. Jarib	=	2·47 ,,

The *jarib* is a measure of length, equal to 100 metres or 109 yards. In Khorāsān N. of Baghdad there is a *faddan* of 513 *donums* or $123\frac{1}{4}$ acres, and on the Khālis canal one of 340 *donums* or $81\frac{3}{5}$ acres. The *juft* is the area which one yoke of oxen can plough, and it varies from 70 to 100 *donums* (16·8 to 24 acres).

Basra.—For the purpose of land or surface measurement at Basra a *dhara* of nearly 19 in. is employed, and $6\frac{1}{2}$ *dharas* = 1 *gusba* (about 10 ft. $2\frac{1}{2}$ in.). 20 sq. *gusbas* ($204\frac{1}{6}$ ft. × $204\frac{1}{6}$ ft.) = 1 *jarib* = $41{,}684\frac{1}{3}$ sq. feet = 0·95 acre.

The *jarib* is also subdivided as follows:

1 Jarib = 10 gifiz	=	$41{,}684\frac{1}{3}$ sq. ft.
1 Gifiz = 10 esbrans . . .	=	$4{,}168\frac{1}{2}$,,
1 Esbran	=	$416\frac{3}{4}$,,

The *donum* system prevails as far as Mosul and Diarbekr.

Arabistan.—The *faddan* (Persian *khish* or, in the Hindīyān district, *gao*, a word used elsewhere on the Persian coast) is described as the area that can be ploughed during the ploughing season by one pair of bullocks, or needs 100 Shushtar *mans* (13 cwt.) of seed to sow it.

The *jarib* is used in the Shatt el-'Arab district. Like the Baghdad *jarib* it is about $2\frac{1}{2}$ acres, but is somewhat variable. It is described as accommodating 200 date-trees.

Liquid Measure

There is no standard measure for liquids, which are sold by the pot or bottle, the pots being of all sizes and the bottles generally reputed pints or quarts.

Time

The day is divided into 12 hrs., of which the 12th ends at sunset, or rather 7 mins. after. Thus, when the sun sets at 6 p.m., 7 o'clock by local time corresponds to 1 p.m. European style. Sunset is the fixed point of reckoning for each day.

At the March and September equinoxes 6 o'clock Turkish = noon.

The Eastern custom of referring to a night or evening as part of the day following, rather than the day preceding, is productive of much confusion: e.g. Monday night or evening means the night or evening between Sunday and Monday (cf. our Christmas Eve, Easter Eve), not Monday evening in its current modern sense. 'Monday evening' according to European idiom must be described as the evening of the day of Monday.

Turkish Reckoning of Years.—Two years in use are to be distinguished:

(*a*) The Hejira year. This is the year of the Mohammedan Era, which is calculated from July 15, 622 A.D., the date of Mohammed's flight from Mecca.

The Hejira year is lunar, consisting of 12 months and of 354 or 355 days. Every odd month (1st, 3rd, &c.) has 30 days, and every even one 29, except in leap years, when the last month has 30 days. The Mohammedan cycle contains 30 years, in which the leap years are the 2nd, 5th, 7th, 10th, 13th, 16th, 18th, 21st, 24th, 26th, and 29th.

To find the Christian year in which a given Hejira year begins:—Multiply the Hejira year by 2·977; divide the product by 100, and deduct the quotient from the Hejira year; add to the result 621·569, and the result will be the Christian year in which the Hejira year begins.

To find the Hejira year which begins in a given Christian year:—Subtract 622 from the Christian year; multiply the result by 1·0307: cut off the last two decimals and add ·46; if there is no surplus decimal the result will be the Hejira year; if there is a surplus decimal the result will need the addition of 1.

1st Moharrem (the first day of the Mohammedan year), 1337 A.H. = 7th October, 1918 A.D.

1st Moharrem, 1338 A.H. = 26th September, 1919 A.D.

(*b*) The financial year. This is an official year used in the Turkish Empire for financial and other administrative purposes. It was introduced in 1789, and was intended to correspond with the Orthodox year, which is used in Russia and in other countries where the Greek Orthodox Church has been established. It begins on March 1st of the Orthodox year, or on March 14th of our year.

The Turkish financial year 1334 began on March 14th, 1918.

The Turkish financial year 1335 will begin on March 14th, 1919.

Persian Reckoning of Years.—Two years are in use:

(*a*) The Hejira year described above.

(*b*) The financial year, which is solar and begins on March 21st of our year.

CHAPTER XIV

COMMUNICATIONS AND TRANSPORT

Main lines of communication—Railways—Roads and road transport—Waterways and river transport—Telegraphs and telephones.

Main Lines of Communication

A. From the Persian Gulf to Baghdad or Northern Arabistan

I. *From the Persian Gulf to Baghdad*

Basra is the gate of Irak on this side, and the routes from the Gulf to Baghdad may be divided into the approach from the Gulf to Basra and the lines of communication between Basra and Baghdad.

(*a*) Approach to Basra from the Gulf.

The Shatt el-'Arab (Fāo—Basra, about 67 miles by river; Bombay—Basra, about 1,620 miles; Aden—Basra, about 1,970 miles; Plymouth—Basra *via* Suez and Aden, about 6,340 miles).

The Shatt el-'Arab waterway is at present the only important line of communication between the Gulf and Basra. It is navigable by ocean-going steamers, but the bar at its mouth is not passable for vessels drawing more than about 20 ft. Measures are being taken to deepen the channel by dredging (see further below, p. 280).

Before the war there was no port accommodation for sea-going steamers, which anchored in mid-stream, and received their cargoes by means of *baghalahs* (country boats).

At Magil (5 miles above Ashar Creek and the Turkish custom-house) there is 1½ mile of river-bank suitable for the construction of deep-water wharves. Here wharves capable of accommodating ocean-going steamers have already been built.

[Some years before the war Koweit was considered as a possible terminus for the proposed continuation of the Baghdad Railway to the Gulf. Koweit town is about 110 miles from Basra, from which it is separated by desert. It lies on the SE. side of Koweit Bay, which is about 20 miles long and about 10 miles broad. Vessels anchor in

the bay 1–3 miles from the shore and landing is by boat. The opinion that Koweit might be made the port of Irak seems to have been connected with an exaggerated idea of the difficulty of making the Shatt el-'Arab accessible to ships drawing more than 20–21 ft. It appears that the construction of the harbour works needed to make Koweit a well-equipped port would be exceedingly costly. (On the nature of the coast between Koweit and the Shatt el-'Arab see p. 29.) It appears that vessels of 20–25 ft. draught and 450 ft. length can navigate the Khōr 'Abdallah and Khōr eth-Tha'alab up to the Umm Qasr creek, which is about 40–45 miles across the desert from Basra. See Vol. II, *Routes* I, C, 23 a and b.]

(*b*) Communications between Basra and Baghdad.

The line of through communication between Basra and Baghdad at present follows the Tigris, as on the Euphrates there is no through waterway from Basra to northern Irak that is practicable for large river-craft at all seasons. But the extension of the Baghdad Railway to Basra was planned to follow the line of the Euphrates, keeping to the edge of the Arabian Desert past the marshes of southern Irak.

(i) *Tigris line.*

(1) River-route (500 miles). This route is practicable at all seasons for craft drawing $3\frac{1}{2}$ ft. See further pp. 280–2.

(2) Land communications. Railways: Basra—Amara, 112 miles, metre gauge.

Kut—Baghdad (about 105 miles ?), metre gauge.

Road (about 350 miles): since 1915 there has been a good deal of road-construction along the banks of the Tigris, and it seems that light motors can now pass in the dry season from Basra to Baghdad.

(ii) *Euphrates line.*

(1) River-route (Basra—Hindiyeh Barrage, about 400 miles). Practicable in high water for steamers drawing about 4 ft., but in low water only small craft can pass the shallows between Kurna and Nāsirīyeh and on the Bahr-i-Shināfiyeh. See further pp. 282–4.

(2) Land communications. Railway: Basra—Nāsirīyeh, 141 miles, metre gauge; along the border of the Arabian Desert.

[The extension of the Baghdad Railway was designed before the war to pass by Museyib, Kerbela, and Nejef, and thence along the edge of the desert to Basra.]

Caravan-routes and roads: Basra—Baghdad *via* Nejef, about 420 miles; *via* Hilla, about 370 miles. Before the war the only roads on this line that were of much importance were those from Nejef and Hilla to Baghdad.

Basra—Nāsirīyeh (140 miles). Desert route along southern side

of the Euphrates *khōr*. Passable for wheeled traffic (including light motor-lorries) except when the floods are out round Khamisiyeh and Nāsirīyeh.

Nāsirīyeh—Nejef (170 or 145 miles). Either by edge of Arabian Desert throughout, or by desert-edge to Qasr Rahīm and then across Bahr-i-Nejef when dry. Easy desert route, not known to be passable for wheels.

Nāsirīyeh—Hilla *via* Samāweh (170 miles). Tracks along Hilla branch probably not at present passable for wheels.

Nejef—Baghdad *via* Kerbela and Museyib (110 miles). Before the war this was an unmetalled road passable for carriages and light motors in dry weather and unless interrupted by severe floods, except at the pontoon bridge over the Euphrates at Museyib. The road was much used by pilgrims to Kerbela and Nejef.

Hilla—Baghdad (60 miles). Railway (4 ft. 8½ in.). Road passable for carriages and light motors in dry weather and if not interrupted by floods: it joins the Museyib—Baghdad road about 30 miles from Baghdad.

II. *From the Persian Gulf to Northern Arabistan*

Up to Ahwāz-Nāzirī the river-route is the only one of importance.

(*a*) River-route.

(i) *From Fāo to Ahwāz-Nāzirī rapids* by Shatt el-'Arab and Kārūn.

Fāo—'Abbādān (A.P.O. Co.'s oil-refinery and terminus of pipe-line), 31 miles; Fāo—Mohammareh, 46 miles (Basra—Mohammareh, 22 miles); Mohammareh—Nāzirī, about 110 miles.

On the Shatt el-'Arab see p. 280. The Mohammareh anchorage for ocean-going vessels is in that river.

The Kārūn up to Nāzirī is navigable for vessels of 5–6 ft. draught except in low water, when vessels drawing 3½ ft. may find difficulty within 20 miles of Nāzirī. The Ahwāz-Nāzirī rapids practically block navigation. Goods are unloaded at Nāzirī, and transported by tram to a point above the rapids, about 1½ mile upstream.

(ii) *Ahwāz—Shaleili* (about 70 miles).

Practicable for shallow-draught steamers. Shaleili is on the Āb-i-Gargar branch of the Kārūn about 7½ miles below Shushtar, and 4–5 miles above Dār-i-Khazineh, whence a cart-road leads to Maidān-i-Naftūn.

(*b*) Land communications.

The alluvial plains along the lower Kārūn can be traversed easily, when dry, by pack-animals and light carts, but become impracticable after heavy rain or when the floods are out.

When the ground is dry light motors can travel from Mārid, on the left bank of the Kārūn 8 miles above Mohammareh, to Ahwāz (58 miles); from Ahwāz to Shushtar (65 miles), crossing the Āb-i-Gargar by the Band-i-Qīr boat-bridge; and from Ahwāz to Shush (75 miles).

From Ahwāz to the Maidān-i-Naftūn oil-field there are two roads:

(i) *Via* Band-i-Qīr and Dār-i-Khazineh (82 miles); a cart-track, but at Dār-i-Khazineh where the Āb-i-Gargar is crossed there is neither bridge nor ford.

(ii) *Via* Abgungi (about 69 miles); passable for carts to Abgungi, thence a good pack-road. Water scarce from mile 24, where the track leaves the Kārūn.

B. From the Direction of Syria to Baghdad

As the Syrian Desert (see p. 21) is a bar to direct communication between Irak and southern or central Syria, the main routes to Baghdad on this side enter Mesopotamia in the upper part of the middle Euphrates valley. Two sets of routes may be distinguished: those which having entered the Euphrates valley follow it down to Fellūjeh W. of Baghdad, and those which strike across upper Mesopotamia and pass round by Mosul. To the first of these groups belong the road and river-routes from Aleppo to Baghdad *via* the Euphrates valley; to the second belongs the line of communication already partly covered by the Baghdad Railway (Aleppo—Jerablūs—Nisibin—Mosul—Samarra—Baghdad).

[Distances from Aleppo or Damascus to the Syrian coast are:
Aleppo—Alexandretta, by rail (*via* Toprak Qal'ah), 135 miles.
Aleppo—Suedia, by road, 89 miles.
Aleppo—Latakiyeh, by road, 100 miles.
Aleppo—Tripoli, by rail, *via* Homs, 188 miles.
Damascus—Beirut, by rail, *via* Rayak, 92 miles.
Damascus—Haifa, by rail, *via* Derat, 178 miles.]

I. *The Euphrates Valley Routes*

(*a*) Aleppo—Baghdad.

(i) *Land-route.*

Aleppo—Baghdad road (527 miles) *via* Meskeneh (57 miles), Deir ez-Zor (205 miles), Ānah (340 miles), Hīt (424 miles), Fellūjeh

(483 miles). The Euphrates is crossed by a boat-bridge at Fellūjeh. The road is practicable for motor-traffic. Railway: Fellūjeh—Baghdad (4 ft. 8½ in.); and line under construction from Fellūjeh up Euphrates valley.

(ii) *River-route.*

Meskeneh (57 miles by road from Aleppo)—Fellūjeh, 570 miles.

Jerablūs (74 miles by rail from Aleppo)—Fellūjeh, 650 miles.

Birijik (about 80 miles by road from Aleppo)—Fellūjeh, 590 miles.

Apart from a few occasions on which shallow-draught steamers or motor-launches have made the journey between Meskeneh and Fellūjeh, this route has been used by *shakhtūrs*, which navigate downstream only, and are towed back empty. See further p. 286 and p. 292.

(*b*) Damascus—Baghdad *via* Tadmor and Deir ez-Zor (about 610 miles).

From Damascus to Deir ez-Zor (about 290 miles) there is a fairly easy and well-watered route across desert or steppe. From Deir ez-Zor the Aleppo—Baghdad road is followed.

[Until 1912 a camel-post used to follow a direct route across the desert between Damascus and Hīt; but this route, owing to scarcity of water, is suitable only for riding-camels. Damascus—Baghdad *via* Hīt, about 490 miles.]

II. *Routes from Aleppo to Baghdad* via *Mosul*

In the past the usual caravan-route from Aleppo to Mosul avoided the steppes of the Jezīreh, principally because of their insecurity; between the Euphrates and Mardīn it made a détour to north by Diarbekr, and again between Nisibin and Mosul it passed east of the Tigris by Jezīret-ibn-'Omar and Zakho. Similarly the main land-route from Mosul to Baghdad skirted the edge of the Kurdish hills by Erbil, Altun Köprü, Kirkuk, and Kufri, and avoided the shorter way by the Tigris valley, which from a few miles below Mosul down to Tekrit was empty of settled inhabitants and was dominated by the Shammār.

In recent times the shorter ways between Aleppo and Mosul and between Mosul and Baghdad have been coming into use, and the trace of the Baghdad Railway does not follow the détours above mentioned.

(*a*) Line of the Baghdad Railway (Aleppo—Baghdad, about 640–650 miles by rail and road).

(i) *Aleppo—Nisibin.* By rail, about 277 miles; *via* Jerablūs (Euphrates bridge; 74 miles) and Ras el-'Ain (203 miles).

(ii) *Nisibin—Mosul.* By direct road across steppe (*via* Demir Kapu Khān and Kesik Köprü ?), passable for motors in dry weather, about 130 miles. Water scarce in summer; it appears that wells have lately been sunk at some of the halting-places. Railway construction in progress.

(iii) *Mosul—Samarra.* By road, on right bank of Tigris, passable for motors, about 165 miles. (Railway under construction; see p. 263.)

By river, about 190 miles. *Keleks* (large rafts on inflated skins) navigate downstream only, taking 2½–11 days: see further p. 287.

(iv) *Samarra—Baghdad.* By rail, 74 miles.

By river, 105 miles. *Keleks* take 1–4 days. Steamers drawing about 4 ft. can ascend to Samarra in a high river: see further p. 287.

(*b*) Caravan-route *via* Diarbekr, Mardīn, Mosul, and Kirkuk (750–800 miles by road).

This route has a number of variations between Aleppo and Mosul.

(i) *Aleppo—Diarbekr* (250–230 miles). Passable for wheels. The Euphrates has been usually crossed at Birijik (by ferry), but in the years preceding the war more southerly crossings (Jerablūs, Tel Ahmar) were coming into use for caravans bound for Urfeh. From Birijik there is a road to Severek and Diarbekr *via* Hovek; another route passes by Urfeh and joins the more direct road between Hovek and Severek. Aleppo—Diarbekr *via* Birijik and Urfeh, about 250 miles; *via* Birijik and Hovek, about 230 miles; *via* Jerablūs and Urfeh, 240 miles; *via* Tel Ahmar and Urfeh, about 235 miles.

[From Urfeh a direct route leads to Mardīn by Veirān Shehr (about 110 miles). This is about 65 miles shorter than the détour from Urfeh to Mardīn *via* Diarbekr, but the road is not practicable throughout for wheels; it is in parts poorly supplied with water, and as it leads through the Milli country it is insecure.]

(ii) *Diarbekr—Mosul.*

(1) Land-route *via* Nisibin.

Diarbekr—Nisibin *via* Mardīn (95 miles). Road passable for wheels.

[A Decauville Railway is reported to run from Tel Helif (on the Baghdad Railway about 24 miles W. of Nisibin) in the direction of Diarbekr. It appears to have reached a point some miles on the Diarbekr side of Mardīn.

There is a broad-gauge line from Derbesiyeh Station (on the Baghdad Railway between Ras el-'Ain and Tel Helif; see p. 262 below) to a point a few miles S. of Mardīn.

From Diarbekr a pack-road leads across the Tur Abdin by Midiat to Jezīret-ibn-'Omar. It is about 140–145 miles by this route from

Diarbekr to Jezīret-ibn-'Omar, or 20–15 miles shorter than by the route *via* Nisibin.]

Nisibin—Mosul (170–130 miles).

On the direct route from Nisibin to Mosul *via* Demir Kapu Khān (about 130 miles) see above, p. 252, B II (*a*) (ii).

There is a caravan-route from Nisibin to Mosul *via* Jezīret-ibn-'Omar (bridge over Tigris), Zakho (bridge over Khabūr), and the Zakho Pass across the Jebel Abyadh to Mosul (170 miles). It is not passable for wheels throughout.

Another route goes by Feishkhabūr (ferry over Tigris) and joins the Zakho—Mosul road at Simel (total distance about 145 miles). This is passable for wheels between Nisibin and Feishkhabūr.

(2) River-route.

About 335 miles. Downstream *kelek* traffic only. Rafts are said to take 4–20 days.

(iii) *Mosul—Baghdad.*

On the direct route by the right bank of the Tigris (about 240 miles) see above, p. 252, B II (*a*) (iii)–(iv).

Route *via* Erbil, Altun Köprü, Kirkuk, and Kufri (about 295 miles). Passable for wheels. Before the war wheeled vehicles had to be ferried across the Zābs. The Turks have now a temporary bridge on the Great Zāb, and apparently another on the Lesser Zāb. The stone bridge over the latter river at Altun Köprü is impracticable for vehicles.

From this route branch roads leading to the Kurdish highlands and across the Persian frontier. See pp. 274–5 below.

(*c*) Aleppo—Mosul *via* Deir ez-Zor, Tel es-Sawwar (or Shedādi), 'Ain el-Ghazal (or Beled Sinjar), and Tel A'far. About 400 miles. The route by Tel es-Sawwar and 'Ain el-Ghazal is passable for light wheeled vehicles. The Aleppo—Baghdad road is followed down the Euphrates valley to Deir ez-Zor, where there is a stone bridge across the river, believed to have been completed since the war. There are ferries across the Khabūr at Tel es-Sawwar and Shedādi. Water is scarce in summer on the steppe between the Euphrates and Tigris.

[Damascus—Mosul *via* Deir ez-Zor, about 600 miles. Compare B I (*b*) above.]

C. From the Direction of Anatolia and Armenia

The ranges of the Taurus here form a barrier across which there are at present only a few routes of any importance.

I. *Routes from Anatolia entering Mesopotamia on the side of the Euphrates*

(*a*) The line of the Baghdad Railway. Haidar Pasha—Baghdad, about 1,520 miles. The railway had not been completed at the beginning of 1918.

(i) *Haidar Pasha—Jerablūs via* Konia and Aleppo, 950 miles. Baghdad Railway. At the end of 1917 the tunnels in the Taurus south of Kara Punar (645 miles from Haidar Pasha) were apparently not yet pierced for standard gauge, but a narrow-gauge line was working here. There was a motor-road across the gap in the standard-gauge line (Kara Punar—Geldek ?).

(ii) *Jerablūs—Nisibin*; by railway, about 200 miles.

(iii) *Nisibin—Samarra via* Mosul; by road, passable for motors, about 300 miles (for railway N. of Samarra see p. 263); or by river from Mosul, see p. 287.

(iv) *Samarra—Baghdad*; by railway, about 74 miles.

(*b*) By the Baghdad Railway and the Euphrates valley.

(i) By railway to Jerablūs, and thence by river to Fellūjeh (Jerablūs—Fellūjeh, 650 miles, 12–45 days by *shakhtūr*; compare pp. 251, 286).

(ii) By railway to Aleppo and thence by road *via* Meskeneh and the Euphrates valley to Fellūjeh (Aleppo—Baghdad, 527 miles; compare pp. 251, 286).

(*c*) Adana—Jerablūs or Meskeneh, by road. There may be now communication for wheeled traffic between Adana and Killis or Aleppo *via* the Hasan Beyli Pass in the Amanus. From Killis to Jerablūs there was before the war a pack-road that could easily have been made passable for wheels; and from Aleppo to Meskeneh there is a motor-road.

[Before the war there was a road from Adana to Birijik *via* the Baghcheh Pass in the Amanus and ʿAintāb (about 170 miles). It was not passable for wheels in the Amanus.]

(*d*) From the direction of Malatia there appears to be a moderately easy way across the Taurus by Pelvereh and the valley of the Aq Su. This is followed by the route from Malatia to Marʿash (before the war a half-completed chaussée) and to ʿAintāb (*via* Belveren or Marʿash), Killis, and Aleppo; from which places the Euphrates is easily accessible by roads which either are passable for wheels or could easily be made so (e. g. Marʿash—Samsat (Euphrates ferry)—Urfeh; ʿAintāb—Birijik; ʿAintāb—Jerablūs; Killis—Jerablūs; Aleppo—Meskeneh).

[From Albistan to Marʿash, and from Malatia to Adiaman (in the

direction of Samsat), and to Kiakhta (in the direction of Gerger), there are more or less difficult tracks for pack-animals.

From Kharput to Gerger and Samsat along the Euphrates there is only a difficult mountain-track.

The Euphrates is not ordinarily used as a waterway from Armenia to Mesopotamia, since, though downstream navigation by *keleks* is possible from Erzingan on the Frat Su, and from a point 3 or 4 hours above Palu on the Murād Su, there are difficult and dangerous rapids in the stretch where the river breaks through the Taurus, between Kumur Khān and Chunkush ferry.]

II. *Routes crossing the Taurus between the Euphrates and Lake Van*

In the Taurus ranges between the Euphrates and Lake Van there are two principal gates giving access to Mesopotamia from the north, the Arghana Pass north-west of Diarbekr and the Bitlis Pass north-east of Diarbekr. Besides these there are a number of other ways across the mountains, of which the most important appear to be Mush—Hazro or Zokh *via* the Kulp valley and the Chabakchur plain—Lijjeh *via* Pechar.

Of the main routes which enter our area in this region all but one meet at Diarbekr. The exception is the route from Bitlis to Mosul *via* Sairt and Jezīret-ibn-'Omar.

The distances to Baghdad given below under routes (*a*)–(*e*) are calculated by Diarbekr, Mardīn, Nisibin, and the trace of the Baghdad Railway. Compare B II (*b*) ii and (*a*) ii–iv.

(*a*) Sivas—Diarbekr *via* Malatia, Kharput, and the Arghana Pass (290 miles). Chaussée.

[Sivas—Baghdad, about 760 miles.

Samsun—Sivas—Baghdad, about 980 miles.

Angora—Sivas—Baghdad, by Angora—Sivas chaussée, about 1,040 miles; by a more direct route between Angora and Vozgad, on which a narrow-gauge railway has been begun, about 1,010 miles.]

(*b*) Kaisarieh—Diarbekr *via* Albistan, Malatia, Kharput, and the Arghana Pass (about 340 miles). Road, passable for wheels except between Albistan and Malatia.

[Kaisarieh—Baghdad, about 810 miles.]

(*c*) Erzerum—Diarbekr *via* Mush, Bitlis, Ziyāret Wā'iz el-Qur'āni, Zokh, the Batman Bridge, and Farqīn (about 300 miles). From Mush to Bitlis passable for wheels; from Bitlis to Ziyāret Wā'iz el Qur'āni

pack-road, difficult before the war. From Ziyāret Wā'iz el-Qur'āni to Diarbekr there is an unfinished chaussée. From Zokh to Diarbekr there is a route *via* the Desht-i-Keri and Ermi, which is about 20 miles shorter than that by the Batman Bridge and Farqīn; but the ford by which it crosses the Batman is impassable in flood.

[Erzerum—Baghdad, about 770 miles.]

(*d*) Erzerum—Diarbekr *via* Mush and Hazro (about 230 miles). It was reported in 1916 that a road for wheels was under construction between Mush and Hazro; this may follow the Kulp valley route, which before the war was a mule-track.

[Erzerum—Baghdad, about 700 miles.]

(*e*) Erzerum—Diarbekr *via* Oghnat, the Chabakchur plain, and Lijjeh (about 200 miles). This was not passable for wheels before the war, but was used as a summer-route by mule-caravans. During the war it has been followed by infantry.

[Erzerum—Baghdad, about 670 miles.]

(*f*) Bitlis—Mosul *via* Sairt and Jezīret-ibn-'Omar (about 220 miles). This road, which passes by the Bitlis, Bohtan, and Tigris valleys to Jezīret-ibn-'Omar, was not passable for wheels before the war. On the roads from Jezīret-ibn-'Omar to Mosul see p. 253. Approximate distances to Baghdad by this route to Mosul and thence by Samarra are:

Erzerum—Baghdad, about 615 miles.

Trebizond—Erzerum—Baghdad, about 550 miles.

[Less important routes across the Taurus between the Euphrates and Lake Van are the mule-tracks from Palu to Haini and Lijjeh, and track (not passable for wheels, but apparently fairly easy for pack-animals) from Kharput to Chermuk *via* Pusherto (for Severek or Diarbekr).

East of Lake Van the very difficult mountain-country of central Kurdistan is crossed by no important route from eastern Armenia. The track from Van to Mosul *via* Bāsh Qal'ah, Julāmerk, and Amadiyeh is in parts very difficult even for pack-animals.]

D. From the Persian Plateau to Mesopotamia and Arabistan

Mesopotamia and Arabistan are separated from the Persian plateau by a barrier of mountains which greatly impedes communication. By far the most important approach on this side is the route from Kirmanshah to Baghdad, which runs through the depression in the barrier by Qasr-i-Shīrīn and Khanikin.

I. *Kirmanshah—Baghdad* via *Khanikin*

About 220 miles. A great trade-route. Railway, Baghdad—Khanikin, about 94 miles; metre gauge. Road passable for wheels, except after heavy snow or rain in winter.

[Tabriz—Baghdad *via* Bijar, Sain Qal'ah, and Kirmanshah, about 565 miles. This follows the main caravan-route from Tabriz to Kirmanshah, which is passable for camel-transport, and has been used by Persian artillery.

Tabriz—Baghdad *via* Sakiz, Senna, and Kirmanshah, about 530 miles.

Tehran—Baghdad *via* Hamadan and Kirmanshah, about 520 miles. Passable for wheels except after heavy snow or rain in winter.]

II. *Routes North of the Main Kirmanshah—Baghdad Road*

None of these is passable for wheels throughout. The principal are:

(*a*) Urmia—Mosul *via* Ushnu, Jildigan, Shinawa (Lahjan plain), the Giru-i-Sheikh Pass, Rayat, Rowanduz (about 220 miles). From Shinawa to Rowanduz (about 90 miles from Mosul) and perhaps as far as Baba Chichek (about 63 miles from Mosul) this route is fit for pack-animals only, and is liable to be blocked by snow in winter. It was used for a move on Urmia by Khalil Bey in the summer of 1915.

[The road from Ushnu to Rowanduz by the Kelishin Pass is some 16–20 miles shorter than that by the Giru-i-Sheikh Pass, but it is more difficult.

Tabriz—Mosul *via* Ushnu and Rowanduz, about 315 miles.

Tabriz—Mosul *via* Sūj Bulāq, Shinawa, and Rowanduz, about 300 miles.]

(*b*) Urmia—Raniyeh (for Altun Köprü and Baghdad, or Erbil and Mosul) *via* Ushnu, Jildigan, the Lahjan plain, the Wazneh Pass, and Derbend (about 150 miles). Between the Lahjan plain and Raniyeh this route is fit for pack-animals only. Liable to be blocked by snow in winter.

[Raniyeh—Baghdad *via* Altun Köprü and Kufri, about 270 miles; passable for wheels, or could be made so without difficulty.

Raniyeh—Baghdad *via* Altun Köprü, the Lesser Zāb, and Tigris. By road to Altun Köprü (about 65 miles), and thence by *kelek*.

Raniyeh—Mosul *via* Erbil, about 115 miles; passable for wheels.]

(*c*) Banah—Raniyeh *via* Ser Desht (about 135 miles). Pack-road from Ser Desht (mile 35).

(*d*) Banah—Suleimāniyeh (for Mosul or Baghdad), ? 75 miles. Pack-road, used by infantry in the winter of 1916–17.

[Suleimāniyeh—Baghdad *via* Kirkuk and Kufri, about 255 miles. Fit for wheels throughout if the report (May 1918) of the recent improvement of the Suleimāniyeh—Kirkuk road is correct.

Suleimāniyeh—Baghdad *via* Zagirmeh Pass and Kufri, about 190 miles. Pack-road from Suleimāniyeh to Kufri (70 miles); Kufri—Baghdad, passable for wheels.

Suleimāniyeh—Mosul *via* Kirkuk, about 175 miles. Passable for wheels, perhaps throughout, at any rate from Kirkuk.]

(*e*) Senna—Suleimāniyeh *via* Penjevin (about 140 miles). Pack-road.

(*f*) Senna—Suleimāniyeh *via* Tavala. Pack-road, reported to be used by an annual caravan from Suleimāniyeh to Tabriz.

(*g*) Kirmanshah—Suleimāniyeh *via* Halebjeh (about 170 miles). Pack-road.

III. *Routes South of the Main Kirmanshah—Baghdad Road*

Between the main Kirmanshah—Baghdad route and the Persian Gulf the least difficult part of the mountain-barrier seems to lie somewhat west of a direct line between Khurrāmābad and Dizfūl. It is traversed by the routes mentioned under (*c*) below.

(*a*) Kirmanshah—Baghdad *via* Mandali (about 215 miles). Pack-road diverging from main route at Khorāsābad about 46 miles from Kirmanshah.

(*b*) Kirmanshah—Kut el-Amara *via* Deh Bālā (200 miles). This route, which leads through the Pusht-i-Kūh, is suitable for pack-transport only.

(*c*) Khurrāmābad—Dizfūl (115–175 miles). There are a number of routes suitable for pack-transport between these places, the easiest of which appear to be that by Āb-i-Sard, Valmiān, and Āb-i-Tirada (152 miles, making a détour to west, but keeping east of the Kashgan river), and the longer détours by Pul-i-Madiān Rūd and Pul-i-Kurr-o-Dukhtar or Pinjreh (165 or 175 miles). There is a fairly direct caravan-route *via* Āb-i-Sard, Ser-i-Gul, and Āb-i-Tirada (115 miles).

On the projected railway from Mohammareh to Khurramābād *via* Dizfūl see p. 267.

(*d*) Isfahan—Ahwāz (Lynch Road) *via* Kavarukh, Dū Pulān, and Malamir (about 295 miles). Pack-road, very difficult on a section of about 100 miles through the Bakhtiyāri mountains. The Bazuft and Kārūn rivers are crossed by suspension bridges (steel wire and iron) built by Messrs. Lynch.

A new and considerably easier alignment for a road from Isfahan to the Arabistan plains has recently been discovered. It lies some way S. of the Lynch Road, than which it is about 20 miles longer. It is believed that the construction of a motor-road on this line would not be difficult.

(*e*) Shiraz—Ahwāz *via* Behbehan (about 300 miles). From Shiraz to Behbehan there is a track for pack-caravans which is not much used on account of the insecurity of the country. From Behbehan to Ahwāz there is a route *via* Ramuz passable for wheels when the ground is dry.

(*f*) Bushire—Ahwāz *via* Beni Ismail or Bandar Dilam and Deh Mulla (? about 260 miles). This route lies over a plain throughout its course. It seems that when the ground is dry it would be passable for wheels with some improvement at nullahs and the bridging of the Hindīyan and Jerrahi rivers.

(*g*) Bushire—Mohammareh *via* Beni Ismail or Bandar Dilam, Hindīyan, Bandar Ma'shur, Janjīreh, and Fellāhīyeh (? about 275 miles). From Bushire to Janjīreh (about 50 miles from Mohammareh) the ground covered by the route is apparently passable for wheels when dry; the Hindīyan would need bridging. In the Janjīreh—Fellāhīyeh district the country is much intersected by canals, and communication between Janjīreh and the Kārūn is usually by boat; there are said to be paths fit for pack-animals here.

E. From the Direction of Arabia to Irak

The main approaches to Irak from Arabia are a number of routes crossing steppe or desert, of which some, coming from Jebel Shammār (Hā'il) or Qasīm (Boreidah), strike the Euphrates at Nejef, Samāweh, or Sūq esh-Shuyūkh, others connect Boreidah, Riyādh, or again the coastal region of Hasa, with Basra by way of Koweit and Zobeir.

On the routes between Hā'il or Boreidah and the points above mentioned on the Euphrates (routes (*a*)-(*f*) below) water is scanty and difficult of access except after rain, when pools may be met with. The only permanent wells yielding a supply sufficient for more than

a small party are those at Hayyānīyeh, Hāzil, Loqah, and Leinah, and others within a radius of seventy miles from Hā'il. The forage to be found is generally suitable only for camels. A limited quantity of fuel is afforded by sparse and low vegetation. No supplies are to be procured *en route* except such meat as may be obtainable in spring-time from herdsmen near the tracks. The *Hajj* caravan from Nejef to Mecca passes through Hā'il. Small columns of Turkish regular troops, 2,000–4,000 strong, have marched from Nejef or from Samāweh to Hā'il (1903 and 1905); but on each occasion they had been invited by the Emir of Hā'il, who provided guidance and transport. Hā'il is connected with the Nejd (Riyādh) by a fairly easy and well-watered route passing through Ayūn el-Qasīm, Boreidah, Aneizah, and Shaqrah; some supplies at the three last-named places.

The route from Boreidah *via* Hafar, Riqā'i, and Koweit to Zobeir and Basra (see (*g*) below) presents no serious difficulties. Water is obtainable on most stages, as well as camel-grazing sufficient for a small party, and a fair amount of fuel as far as Haleibah. No supplies are to be found *en route.*

On the route from Zilfi to Koweit (see (*h*) below) water is scarce; it cannot be relied on between Artāwīyeh and Safah, or between Safah and Koweit, distances of over 100 miles: there is fair grazing in places; fuel is very scarce. Zilfi is 48 miles east of Boreidah, from which it is separated by a heavy sand-desert containing some oases. Between Zilfi and Riyādh there is a route which is good going, and on which water is never far away; supplies also could be obtained in small quantities.

On the route from Hofūf through Hasa to Koweit (see (*i*) below) water is obtainable throughout, and is usually plentiful; forage is usually good, especially in spring; fuel generally from bushes or brushwood; a little wheat and barley at 'Nta. The track from Qatīf to Koweit is little frequented, traffic between these places being mostly by sea; the route is easy, and water is generally plentiful; forage is generally sufficient for a small caravan; fuel is scarce in parts; no supplies. From the ports of Qalif and 'Oqair routes *via* Hofūf afford the shortest and easiest passage to the Nejd, but the country traversed is particularly unsafe.

For details of the above routes see *Handbook of Arabia,* vol. ii.

The following are approximate distances:

(*a*) Hā'il—Nejef.

(i) *Via* Hayyānīyeh and Loqah (about 357 miles). This route is now used by the *Hajj* and good caravans.

[Mecca—Nejef *via* Hā'il, about 836 miles.
Medina—Nejef *via* Hā'il, about 632 miles.]

(ii) The *Darb Zobeideh via* Sha'ibah, Trobah, Bīr Beleghbiyeh, Birket Ashabah (or 'Ashshār), Birket ez-Zebalah, Birket el-Jumeimeh (about 403 miles). This, the old *Hajj* route, passing about 40 miles west of (i). It is provided with wells and tanks at regular intervals, but water is scarce, the rain not being sufficient to fill the reservoirs, and the *Hajj* now follows the Hayyānīyeh route as safer and more direct.

(An alternative route diverges from near Trobah, and makes a détour to east *via* Khadrah, Leinah, and Selmān wells, and rejoins the *Darb Zobeideh* about 40 miles south of Nejef.)

(iii) *Via* Hazil and Bīr Samīt (? about 377 miles). For most of its length this way passes west of the Hayyānīyeh route.

(*b*) Boreidah—Nejef.
(i) *Via* Hā'il, Hayyānīyeh, and Loqah (about 505 miles).
(ii) *Via* Bīr Zerud, Hayyānīyeh, and Loqah (about 476 miles).
[Riyādh—Nejef *via* Boreidah and Hā'il, about 740 miles.
Riyādh—Nejef *via* Boreidah and Bīr Zerud, about 701 miles.
Mecca—Boreidah, about 480 miles.]

(*c*) Hā'il—Samāweh, by the *Darb Zobeideh* to Bīr Beleghbiyeh, thence to Leinah wells, and along the *Darb Selmān*, by the Selmān wells (about 344 miles).

(*d*) Boreidah—Samāweh *via* Ayūn el-Qasīm, Quseibah, Leinah wells, and the *Darb Selmān* (about 365 miles).
[Riyādh—Samāweh *via* Boreidah, about 600 miles.
Mecca—Samāweh *via* Boreidah, about 845 miles.]

(*e*) Hā'il—Sūq esh-Shuyūkh *via* Bīr Beleghbiyeh and Leinah wells, thence by the wells of Umm Amārah, Unsab, Ghubbah and Arkamīyeh, and by Qasr Bīr Shagrah (about 390 miles).

(*f*) Boreidah—Sūq esh-Shuyūkh, as by (*d*) to Leinah wells, and thence as by (*e*), about 390 miles.

(*g*) Boreidah—Basra *via* Hafar, Riqā'i, Koweit, and Zobeir (about 460 miles).

(The alternative route from Hafar to Koweit *via* Abul Hiran is of about the same length as that *via* Riqā'i.

From Riqā'i to Zobeir there is a direct route which is about 70 miles shorter than that by Koweit, but it is waterless.)

(*h*) Zilfi—Basra *via* Safah, Koweit, and Zobeir (about 410 miles).
[Riyādh—Basra *via* Zilfi, about 614 miles.]

(*i*) Hofūf—Basra *via* 'Nta (Anta), Inqair (Injair, Naqair), and Koweit (about 455 miles).
[Hofūf—Riyādh, about 200 miles.]

(*j*) Qatīf—Basra *via* Inqair and Koweit (about 366 miles).
[Qatīf—Riyādh *via* Hofūf, about 305 miles.
'Oqair—Riyādh *via* Hofūf, about 249 miles.]
On the ports of Qatīf and 'Oqair see *Persian Gulf Pilot*, 1915, pp. 134–5, and 117, and *Handbook of Arabia*, vol. i, pp. 307–8.

Railways

I. *Railways Completed*

(*a*) Completed sections of the Baghdad Railway.
Within our area two sections of the line are open to traffic: that from Jerablūs to Tel Helif or Nisibin (about 189 or 203 miles) and that from Samarra to Baghdad (about 74 miles), leaving an interval of about 287 miles between Nisibin and Samarra.
Gauge, 4 ft. 8½ in. Single line.
For the connexion of the Jerablūs—Nisibin section with Anatolia and Syria see p. 251 and p. 254.
(i) *Jerablūs—Nisibin* (203 miles).
A list of stations and approximate distances is given below, but beyond Ras el-'Ain the mileage is uncertain.

Intermediate miles.	Stations.
—	Jerablūs (74·2 miles from Aleppo)
15·2	Siftek
7·9	'Arab Punār
13·1	Kharab Nas
12·2	Qul Tepeh
12·6	Tel Abiyadh
—	Abu Qubbeh
25·9	Gojar (Nus Tel)
13·4	Tu'am
13·4	Tel Hamud
12·4	Ras el-'Ain
25·4 ?	Aradeh
14·9 ?	Derbisiyeh
13·05 ?	Tel Helif
14·3 ?	Qasr Serchikhen
9·5 ?	Nisibin

Station buildings between Jerablūs and Tel Abiyadh are said to be made of concrete brick owing to the cost of stone.

The Jerablūs railway bridge across the Euphrates is 892 yards long and consists of 10 spans with an overhead lattice girder. The breadth of the bridge is 20 ft. (15 ft. for railway, 4 ft. for pathway). The foundations are of cement concrete lowered into a water-tight iron casing made of interlocking piling 45 ft. × 20 ft. in plan. The top of this piling is at low-water level, above which the pier is of smaller section. The concrete goes right up to the bed-plate of the bridge, and is stone-faced. In the sandy bed of the river the concrete goes down to a depth of 43½ ft. (13 metres); elsewhere it is on rock foundations. An earth bank with a stone-wall foundation has been made on the right bank of the Euphrates above the bridge, to prevent the river floods from damaging the railway bank west of the bridge.

As regards other bridges on this section of the Baghdad Railway, the only available information is as follows:

Between 'Arab Punār and Kharab Nas there are apparently 3 plate-girder bridges over the Qaramush.

Between Tel Hamud and Ras el-'Ain there is reported to be a lattice-girder bridge 66 yds. long over the Jirjib Chai.

Branch Lines:

(1) Derbesiyeh—Mardīn. A broad-gauge line is reported to run from Derbesiyeh to the neighbourhood of Mardīn. Its northern terminus is apparently 4 miles S. of Mardīn town. Length, 14 miles.

(2) From Tel Helif in the direction of Diarbekr. A Decauville railway is reported to run from Tel Helif towards Diarbekr. It apparently extends to a point a few miles beyond Mardīn.

(ii) *Samarra—Baghdad* (73·59 miles).

Intermediate miles.	Stations.
—	Samarra (on right bank of Tigris)
12·85	Istablāt
11·68	Beled
11·24	Sumeikeh (branch to Tigris opposite Sa'diyeh)
12·42	Khān Meshāhidiyeh
12·98	Tajiyeh
7·14	Kazimain
5·28	Baghdad

In December 1914 the railway had been extended from Samarra to a point 25 miles N. of Tekrit.

(*b*) Railways constructed in Irak since 1914:

(i) *Basra—Amara* (112 miles, *via* Kurna at mile 43). Metre gauge.

(ii) *Basra—Nasirīyeh* (141 miles, *via* the border of the desert south of the Euphrates). Metre gauge.

(iii) In N. Irak (to Dec. 1918): Kut—Baghdad (metre); Baghdad—Khanikin (metre); (Baghdad—25 miles N. of Tekrit, see p. 263); Baghdad—Fellūjeh—Dhiban near head of Saqlāwiyeh canal (4 ft. 8½ in.); Baghdad—Hilla (4 ft. 8½ in.); Hilla—Kifl (2 ft. 6 in.).

II. *Railways Projected or Proposed before 1914*

(*a*) Completion of the Baghdad Railway between Nisibin and Samarra (about 287 miles).

The line is planned to run direct from Nisibin to Mosul *via* Demir Kapu Khān and Kesik Köprü, and from Mosul to Samarra down the right bank of the Tigris *via* Tekrit.

Nisibin—Mosul, about 123 miles.

Mosul—Samarra, about 164 miles.

It appears that in the first half of 1918 work was in progress on formation levels between Nisibin and Demir Kapu Khān, about 43 miles ESE. of Nisibin.

(*b*) Extension of the Baghdad Railway to Basra.

This extension was projected to run as follows:

El-Baj (Euphrates crossing upstream of Museyib); thence across desert to

Kerbela; thence along the edge of the desert to

Nejef; thence across the depression of the Bahr-i-Nejef (?) and along the edge of the desert west and south of the lower Euphrates, passing some miles south of Samāweh and Nāsirīyeh.

Basra, about 350–370 miles from Baghdad.

The line would be cheap and easy to construct. The only engineering work of any magnitude that would be needed would be the bridge over the Euphrates at El-Baj.

Between Baghdad and the Euphrates this line would pass through country capable of agricultural development. It would carry the great pilgrim traffic to and from Kerbela and Nejef. Branch lines would be needed to bring it into connexion with the agricultural areas on the lower Euphrates. The alignment along the desert was chosen owing to difficulties of railway construction in the alluvial plain; and between Nāsirīyeh and Basra it is the only possible trace.[1]

[1] Another route that was proposed for a railway from Baghdad to Basra is as follows: by the right bank of the Tigris to opposite Kut el-Amara, thence by the right (west) side of the Shatt el-Hai to Nāsirīyeh, and thence by the edge of

It was part of the German scheme that the railway should be eventually prolonged from Basra to the Persian Gulf at Koweit, a distance of about 100 miles across desert.

(c) Projected branches of the Baghdad Railway within this area:

(i) To Urfeh (from Tel Abiyadh station to Urfeh *via* Harrān is about 37 miles).

This branch would serve the agricultural district of the Harrān—Urfeh plain.

(ii) Tel Helif—Mardīn—Diarbekr—Arghana Ma'den (about 125 miles).

At Arghana Ma'den the Mesopotamian railway system was to connect with the system of eastern Anatolia and Armenia.[1]

(iii) Mosul—Erbil (about 37 miles).

This branch would serve the agricultural districts in the Mosul—Erbil plain, which have possibilities of considerable development.

(iv) Sumeikeh—Sa'diyeh—Delli 'Abbās—Khanikin (about 75 miles), and Delli 'Abbās—Tūz Khurmatli.

The line to Khanikin would serve the very fertile Khālis region, and also, together with its branch to Tūz Khurmatli, the oil-fields on the Persian frontier.

Moreover Khanikin lies at the natural gate from Mesopotamia into Persia, and through it runs the great Baghdad—Kirmanshah trade-route. The branch line from the Baghdad Railway to Khanikin was meant eventually to connect with a line to Tehran *via* Kirmanshah and Hamadan.

(v) El-Baj (on the right bank of the Euphrates opposite Museyib)—Hīt (about 110 miles).

the desert south of the Euphrates to Basra. The distance from Baghdad to Nāsirīyeh, where this route meets that of the Baghdad Railway, is about 240 miles. The line would need protection from floods; and the idea was entertained of carrying it along the protective banks which Sir William Willcocks proposed to construct, as a part of his irrigation scheme, on the right bank of the Tigris between Baghdad and Kut el-Amara, and on the right bank of the Hai.

The possibility of constructing a line along the Hilla branch of the Euphrates has also been taken into consideration.

[1] Projected lines of this latter system were:

Samsun—Amasia—Tokat—Sivas—Kharput—Arghana Ma'den (French concession).

Kharput—Mush—Bitlis—Van (French concession).

Angora—Yozgad—Sivas (French concession).

Angora—Kaisarieh—Sivas (German concession; an extension of the Anatolian Railway Haidar Pasha—Eski Shehr—Angora).

Sivas—Erzingan—Pekerij—Erzerum (with branch Pekerij—Trebizond).

(*d*) Proposed connexions between Baghdad and the Syrian coast or Egypt *via* the Euphrates valley.

The following have been considered as possible lines for railway connexion between Irak and Syria:

(i) Baghdad — Fellūjeh — Euphrates valley — Aleppo — Alexandretta.

The distance from Baghdad to Aleppo would be about 520 miles (Aleppo—Baghdad *via* the Baghdad Railway, about 625 miles).

At present there is railway connexion between Aleppo and Alexandretta *via* Baghcheh and Toprak Qal'ah (135 miles).

The distance between Aleppo and Alexandretta, as the crow flies, is about 60 miles, but any railway construction between these points would be difficult and costly.

Railway construction between Aleppo and Suedia (about 80 miles) or between Aleppo and Latakiyeh (about 100 miles) would be considerably easier than between Aleppo and Alexandretta; and there is a French concession for a line from Aleppo to Latakiyeh. But at Suedia conditions are not at all favourable to the development of a considerable port, and Latakiyeh in this respect is very inferior to Alexandretta.

Aleppo is connected with Tripoli by a standard-gauge line *via* Hama and Homs.[1]

(ii) Baghdad—Fellūjeh—Ānah[2]—Deir ez-Zor—Palmyra—Homs—Tripoli.

About 620 miles, of which about 65 miles are covered by the Homs—Tripoli line.

(iii) Baghdad—Fellūjeh—Ānah—Abu Kemal—Palmyra—Homs—Tripoli.

About 550 miles, of which about 65 are covered by the Homs—Tripoli line.

This is the shortest line to the Syrian coast.

(iv) Baghdad—Fellūjeh—Ānah—Abu Kemal—Palmyra—Damascus—Rayak—Beirut.

About 630 miles, of which about 95 are covered by the Damascus—Rayak—Beirut line.

The Damascus—Beirut line has a gauge of 1·05 metre (3 ft. 5·34 in.). Between Rayak and Beirut gradients are very steep, and the rack-and-pinion system is in use.

[1] The rails of the Homs—Tripoli line were taken up in 1916 for use on the Baghdad Railway.

[2] Baghdad—Ānah *via* Fellūjeh and the Euphrates valley, about 180 miles. Baghdad—Ānah across the Jezīreh desert, about 160 miles.

Damascus is connected with Haifa by a line *via* Deraa (177 miles; 1·05 metre gauge).

(Baghdad—Beirut *via* Deir ez-Zor, Palmyra, and Damascus, about 700 miles.)

(v) Baghdad—Fellūjeh—Hīt—Damascus—Beirut.

About 590 miles, of which about 95 are covered by the Damascus—Beirut line.

From Hīt to Damascus this line leads straight across the country, following the former camel-post route, over very arid desert.

(vi) Nejef—Cairo *via* Jauf, Maan, Akaba, and Suez (about 875 miles).

(*e*) Proposed connexions between the Shatt el-'Arab (Basra or Mohammareh) and northern Arabistan (Ahwāz or Dizfūl) and south-western Persia (Isfahan, &c.).

(i) Mohammareh or Basra—Ahwāz or Dizfūl.

A line to Ahwāz or Dizfūl from the Shatt el-'Arab would be of the greatest importance for the development of Arabistan.

Before the war there was a British project for a line from Mohammareh to Dizfūl. Two possible routes were considered: the first leaves Ahwāz to E. and passes by Kūt Nahr Hashim (164 miles to Dizfūl); the second runs by the western bank of the Kārūn to Amīnīyeh, opposite Ahwāz, and thence proceeds straight to Dizfūl (174 miles).

An alternative scheme has since been proposed which would make Basra the port of Arabistan as well as of Irak, and would therefore carry the railway serving the Kārūn region from Basra to Ahwāz (about 80 miles); this section would ultimately be extended to Dizfūl.

Construction in the plains of Arabistan would be easy.

(ii) Ahwāz—Isfahan.

It has been reported that on the new alignment for a road from Arabistan to Isfahan, S. of the Lynch route, it might prove possible to construct a light railway.

(iii) (Mohammareh—) Ahwāz—Shiraz—Bandar 'Abbās.

Proposed before the war as a British line. 'The value of the Shiraz—Mohammareh connexion appeared to be purely strategical, but it was important to secure an option for it to block, if necessary, the possible extension of the Baghdad Railway in this direction.' Construction in the mountains would be difficult and costly owing to the nature of the country; opposition from the tribes of this region would be likely.

(iv) Dizfūl—Khurramābād.

It was contemplated in 1911–14 that the proposed British line

from Mohammareh to Dizfūl should be continued to Khurramābād, there to connect with a Russian line from Julfa. The object of the proposal was to obtain an entry for British trade from the Shatt el-'Arab into western Persia alternative to the Baghdad—Kirmanshah route, which, it was then expected, would be captured by the branch of the Baghdad Railway to Khanikin. The construction of the line across the hills from Dizfūl to Khurramābād would be difficult and expensive.

Roads and Road Transport

In the absence of good made roads land traffic in Mesopotamia has been accustomed to pass from point to point by the line which circumstances might make the easiest at the time, and a caravan-route may have many possible variations great and small. It is therefore of importance for travellers to have good guides or trustworthy local information, not only in the trackless steppe or desert, but also where a number of possible tracks exist, in order that the easiest line may be followed. Reliable native information is very difficult to obtain; the native often thinks that he has an interest in misinforming the traveller, and even if he is willing to tell the truth his computations of times and distances are generally very inaccurate.

Road Communications in Irak

In Irak the waterways have been much more important than the roads. In general it may be said there is either too much or too little water for movement by land, which is restricted by great areas of swamp, temporary or permanent, or may be stopped after rain by morasses of mud, or is impeded by the frequent canals intersecting the country near the rivers, or, on the other hand, is hampered by lack of drinking-water in the dry steppes. The principal road communications in the country before the war were in northern Irak, where well-used routes radiate from Baghdad. In central and southern Irak there was some local caravan traffic across the open steppes or along the paths by rivers or canals, but communications were maintained chiefly by water. Since 1914 communication for wheeled transport (at least in the dry season) has been opened up on the line of the Tigris.

Along the Tigris the immediate neighbourhood of the banks is generally the driest part of the country, as, owing to the transverse slope of the ground away from the river, most of the water escaping from the Tigris bed, or spilt towards the Tigris from the Euphrates,

or descending from the Persian hills forms lakes or marshes at some distance inland from the banks; but even the ground close to the river may become marshy in many places when the floods are at their height. It appears that where the Euphrates flows in a definite channel through the alluvial plain, as well as along the Shatt el-'Arab, analogous conditions are found.

The alluvial plains are destitute of stone for metalling; this can, however, be obtained at points along the edge of the Arabian Desert (in the neighbourhoods of Hīt and Samāweh and at Jebel Sinam 30 miles SW. of Basra).

(*a*) Principal routes for wheeled traffic are:

Baghdad—Nejef *via* Museyib and Kerbela.

Baghdad—Hilla.

Baghdad—Mufraz (at the head of the Mahmūdiyeh canal on the Euphrates).

Baghdad—Fellūjeh (for Aleppo).

Baghdad—Samarra (continued to Mosul).

Baghdad—Delli 'Abbās *via* Bāqūbeh (for Kufri, Kirkuk, and Mosul).

Baghdad—Khanikin *via* Bāqūbeh (for Kirmanshah).

Basra—Baghdad *via* Kurna, Amara, and Kut el-Amara.

Basra—Nāsirīyeh by the edge of the desert.

Nāsirīyeh—Kut el-Amara by a track running some distance inland from the right bank of the Shatt el-Hai.

Of these roads all but the third and the last three were much used, and under favourable conditions were practicable for wheeled transport before the war; but they were unmetalled, and after heavy rain were liable to become impassable for wheels and difficult even for pack-animals. The neighbourhood of Baghdad may be so widely inundated during the flood season that on the right bank of the Tigris the city can be approached only along the tops of bunds, while on the left bank passengers and goods coming by the Khanikin road have occasionally to be ferried across the floods to the bund protecting the city on that side.

The plains of Irak, where they are not encumbered by marsh or intersected by water-cuts, and at times when the surface is dry, are usually more or less passable by light wheeled transport, and even by light motor-lorries; but patches of soft sand may cause difficulty in places, and 'even where the surface is good at first it soon cuts up and becomes heavy if a succession of vehicles attempt to make a track'; see further on mechanical transport in Irak p. 276. The large dry canals may in parts (e. g. the Nahrawān between 'Azīzīyeh

and the Diyāleh) serve as roads fit for motor transport; where they are fairly intact they are protected from flood by their banks and by the high level of their beds.

(*b*) Routes for pack-animals.

Paths fit for pack-animals (at least in the dry season) can be found in the cultivated country along the rivers and canals. There are also routes used by camel and donkey caravans across the steppes (e. g. Baghdad—Mendali, Kut el-Amara—Bedrah, Amara—Dizfūl, in the plains NE. of the Tigris; and between the rivers, Hilla—Bogheileh, Afaj—Bogheileh).

(*c*) Bridges.

The rivers of Irak are crossed at a number of points by boat-bridges. Most of these consist of a roadway on pontoons or native boats (*safīnehs* or *danaks*). Usually one or more portions of such a boat-bridge can be swung open to let vessels pass. In a high flood a boat-bridge may have to be temporarily removed. It seems that most of the boat-bridges can take fairly light wheeled transport, but before the war some of them (e. g. that at Museyib) were apparently fit for pack-animals only.

There are a number of brick bridges carrying roadways across canals in northern Irak; and there is an iron bridge across the Kharr canal, 4 miles from Baghdad, on the Baghdad—Nejef road.

Recent railway and road-construction has involved a good deal of bridge-building along the line of the Tigris and elsewhere.

The smaller water-cuts are bridged, if at all, by planks of palm-tree wood, which may not be practicable for laden pack-animals.

The Euphrates from Fellūjeh downwards is bridged at the following points:

Fellūjeh (boat-bridge).

Museyib (boat-bridge).

Hindiyeh Barrage at the head of the Hindiyeh branch; the barrage forms a bridge capable of taking heavy wheeled transport, which cannot use the Museyib boat-bridge.

Tawarīj (on the Hindiyeh branch; boat-bridge).

Kūfeh (on the Kūfeh channel of the Hindiyeh branch; boat-bridge).

Hilla Regulator (at the head of the Hilla branch; the regulator affords a bridge capable of taking heavy wheeled transport).

Hilla (on the Hilla branch; boat-bridge).

Diwāniyeh (on the Hilla branch; boat-bridge).

Samāweh (boat-bridge).

Nāsirīyeh (boat-bridge).

Sūq esh-Shuyūkh (boat-bridge).

Kurna (road and railway bridges at the mouth of the Old Channel of the Euphrates).

Gurmat Alī (road and railway bridges (pontoon) at the mouth of the New Channel of the Euphrates).

The Tigris from Samarra downwards is bridged at the following points:

Samarra (boat-bridge).

Baghdad (boat-bridge).

Qarāreh (boat-bridge).

Kut el-Amara (boat-bridge).

Amara (new pile bridge with steel floating section to allow passage of river-traffic; total length 750 ft., floating section 270 ft.; width 20 ft.).

Latlāteh (boat-bridge).

The Diyāleh is crossed by boat-bridges at Bāqūbeh and at its mouth.

There are many ferries on the Euphrates and Tigris, on which *shakhtūrs* and *quffehs* ply.

Road Communications in Arabistan

The plains of Arabistan, where not covered with permanent marsh or (as in the Fellāhīyeh district) intersected by frequent canals, generally afford in dry weather a surface which is passable for light wheeled transport; but rain may make them quite impracticable for wheels and difficult if not impassable for pack-animals. Even in dry weather heavy transport is liable to stick in patches of sand. In the foothills of the Persian highlands there are some tracks passable for carts, but among the higher ranges there are only tracks for pack-animals except where the Baghdad—Kirmanshah route ascends to the Persian plateau by Qasr-i-Shīrīn and Ser-i-Pul. The high passes are liable to be blocked by snow in winter.

(*a*) In Arabistan light wheeled transport can pass in dry weather with little difficulty over the following routes:

Mārid—Shushtar *via* Ahwāz and the Band-i-Qīr bridge (light motor-lorries).

Shushtar—Dizfūl?

Manduwan (near Mohammareh)—Amīnīyeh (opposite Ahwāz).

Amīnīyeh—Shush (light motor-lorries).

Ahwāz—Maidān-i-Naftūn *via* Band-i-Qīr bridge and Dār-i-Khazineh (where the Āb-i-Gargar would need bridging).

Ahwāz—Behbehan *via* Ramuz.

Ahwāz—Bandar Dilam *via* Deh Mulla or Hindīyan (the Hindīyan would need bridging).

Ramuz—Bandar Ma'shur.

Janjīreh—Bandar Dilam *via* Bandar Ma'shur and Hindīyan (the Hindīyan would need bridging).

(*b*) The following tracks are passable for pack-animals:

Amīnīyeh (Ahwāz)—Amara.

Dizfūl—Amara *via* Shush (from Shush onwards practicable for wheels in the dry season).

Ahwāz—Maidān-i-Naftūn *via* Abgungi.

Shushtar—Maidān-i-Naftūn.

Shushtar—Ramuz.

Behbehan—Hindīyan.

Behbehan—Bandar Dilam.

For the routes crossing the mountains from Arabistan or Irak to Isfahan, Khurramābād, and Kirmanshah see pp. 258–9, 257. Of the cross-routes in the highlands may be mentioned the mule-tracks from Khurramābād to Deh Bālā, from Deh Lurān to Deh Bālā, and from Deh Bālā to Qasr-i-Shīrīn and Ser-i-Pul. There is a way reported to be passable for all arms along the lower valleys of the Pusht-i-Kūh from Dizfūl to Deh Lurān and Zorbatiyeh on the Kut el-Amara—Kirmanshah route.

(*c*) Bridges, Ferries, and Fords.

The Kārūn is bridged at the following points:

Band-i-Qīr (boat-bridge over the Āb-i-Gargar branch of the river, passable by field-artillery).

Shushtar (Pul-i-Lashkar, stone bridge, on south side of town to Miyānāb Island; Pul-i-Bulaiti, a dam across the Āb-i-Gargar east of the town; the Pul-i-Dizfūl, north of Shushtar over the Āb-i-Shatait, is broken down).

Pul-i-Shālū or Gudar-i-Bulatak on Lynch Road (iron suspension bridge, 20 miles from Malamir and 130 miles from Ahwāz).

Dū Pulān (brick bridge on Lynch Road, 183 miles from Ahwāz). Above Dū Pulān the upper Kārūn is bridged 3 miles above Dūvizdeh Imam (stone and mortar), at Kāj (stone and mortar), at Rustāmi (wooden; ruins of stone bridge), and at Pul-i-'Ali Kūh (6 miles above Rustāmi; wooden).

The Diz is bridged at Dizfūl by a stone and brick structure.

The Bazuft is bridged at Pul-i-Amarati on the Ahwāz—Dizfūl road at about 166 miles from Ahwāz (steel wire suspension).

The Kārūn is unfordable in Arabistan, and also apparently in the Bakhtiyāri mountains up to its junction with the Āb-i-Behistābād.

Where it is not bridged crossings have to be made by ferry (*keleks* at Shushtar and in the hills).

The Karkeh and Diz are fordable in places except in the flood season, when they can be crossed only by *kelek*. The Shur becomes unfordable after rain.

On the Jerrāhi there are many fords in summer, and near Khalfābād and Cham es-Sabi it can be crossed throughout the year except after recent rain. The Hindīyan is fordable in places to within 9 miles above Hindīyan town.

Road Communications in Upper Mesopotamia

In the plains of upper Mesopotamia, which lie above the high flood-level of the rivers, road communication is naturally far easier than in Irak. For the most part the surface of these upland plains is easily traversable by pack-animals, and either is practicable for wheeled transport, or can be made so without difficulty. The going may be heavy after rain; bridges on the larger rivers are rare; *wadis* are frequent in some parts, especially under the hills, and there are patches of marsh-land where drainage from the hills collects. But lack of water and supplies in the steppes and the insecurity of the country have been the chief obstacles to communication.

In the lower hill-country there are a good many fair pack-roads between the principal centres and a few routes passable for wheels. In the high ranges there are more or less difficult mule-tracks; north of the Baghdad—Kirmanshah route, roads for wheeled transport crossing the mountain-barrier which bounds our area occur only between the Euphrates and Lake Van. The plains enclosed in the highlands are often marshy and are liable to become very muddy in wet weather. The hill-country is inadequately supplied with bridges (see below, p. 275), and the larger streams are generally unfordable after rain in the winter and during the spring floods caused by rain and melted snow. In the winter roads are often blocked by snow for days or weeks.

Before the war there were a few stretches of metalled road in upper Mesopotamia, but these were usually allowed to fall into disrepair, so that caravan traffic sometimes preferred the easier beaten track. Apart from these chaussées or fragments of chaussées the roads were unmade except here and there in the highlands where some cutting had been done.

Since 1914 a good deal of work seems to have been done by the Turks towards making routes on their principal lines of communication fit for mechanical and other wheeled transport.

(*a*) Main routes believed to be passable for wheeled traffic :

Baghdad—Aleppo *via* Fellūjeh, Hīt, Ānah, Deir ez-Zor, and Meskeneh.

Baghdad—Mosul *via* Samarra and the right bank of the Tigris.

Baghdad—Mosul *via* Kufri, Kirkuk, Altun Köprü, and Erbil.

Kirkuk—Suleimānīyeh (reported to have been recently made fit for wheels).

Mosul—Nisibin *via* Demir Kapu Khān.

Nisibin—Diarbekr *via* Mardīn.

Diarbekr—Ziyāret Wā'iz el-Qur'āni *via* Zokh (for Bitlis ; see below under pack-route Jezīret-ibn-'Omar—Bitlis).

Diarbekr—Kharput *via* Arghana Pass.

Birijik—Diarbekr *via* Hovek and Severek.

Birijik—Diarbekr *via* Urfeh and Severek.

Jerablūs—Urfeh.

Urfeh—Harrān (and on to Ras el-'Ain ?).

Ras el-'Ain—Nisibin.

Ras el-'Ain—Mardīn.

Deir ez-Zor—Mosul *via* Tel es-Sawwar and Tel A'far.

Across the desert or open steppe of the upper Mesopotamian plains it is generally possible to find lines which need little or no improvement for wheeled transport, at any rate in dry weather. Thus motors can traverse the arid desert between Ānah and Baghdad or between Hīt or Ramadiyeh and Tekrit or Samarra. It is probable that in the neighbourhood of the Khabūr and the Belikh there could be found easy lines for wheeled transport connecting the Baghdad Railway in the neighbourhood of Harrān or Ras el-'Ain with the Euphrates valley. In many instances wheeled traffic can pass most easily by making détours from the regular routes, and this is often done by native drivers.

(*b*) Main routes practicable wholly or in part for pack-animals only :

Kufri—Suleimāniyeh.

Suleimāniyeh—Halebjeh (for Kirmanshah or Senna).

Suleimāniyeh—Penjevin (for Senna).

Suleimāniyeh—Baneh.

Suleimāniyeh—Raniyeh.

[Suleimāniyeh—Kirkuk ? See under 'Routes for Wheeled Traffic' above.]

Altūn Köprü—Raniyeh *via* Köi Sanjak (does not need much improvement for wheels).

Raniyeh—Ser Desht.

Raniyeh—Lahjan plain *via* Wazneh Pass (for Ushnu and Urmia).
Raniyeh—Rowanduz.
Raniyeh—Erbil *via* Köi Sanjak (does not need much improvement for wheels).
Erbil—Rowanduz (there may possibly be a recently made cart-road between these places).
Mosul—Rowanduz *via* the Great Zāb ferry at Girdamamik and Baba Chichek (passable for carts to Baba Chichek).
Rowanduz—Ushnu *via* Kelishin Pass.
Mosul—Van *via* Amadiyeh, Julāmerk, and Bāsh Qal'ah.
Mosul—Jezīret-ibn-'Omar *via* Simel and Zakho (passable for wheels to the Jebel Abyadh).
Mosul—Jezīret-ibn-'Omar *via* Simel and Feishkhabūr (passable for wheels to Simel).
Jezīret-ibn-Omar—Bitlis *via* Sairt and Ziyāret Wā'iz el-Qur'āni (may have been improved since 1914, but before the war the stretch along the Bitlis valley from Ziyāret Wā'iz el-Qur'āni (where the Diarbekr—Bitlis road joins) was a very difficult mule-track).
Jezīret-ibn-'Omar—Diarbekr *via* Midiat.
Jezīret-ibn-'Omar—Nisibin (needs improving for carts near Jezīret-ibn-'Omar).
Mardīn—Urfeh *via* Veirān Shehr.
Diarbekr—Mush *via* Hazro, Pasur, and the Kulp valley (apparently passable for wheels to Pasur and may have been recently improved beyond that place).
Diarbekr—Chabakchur plain *via* Lijjeh (for Erzerum; apparently passable for wheels to Lijjeh).
Diarbekr—Palu *via* Haini or Piran.
Diarbekr—Chunkush *via* Chermuk (passable for wheels to Chermuk).

(*c*) Bridges, Ferries, and Fords.

Bridges on the larger rivers are rare. They occur at the following places:

On the Tigris above Samarra:
At Diarbekr (stone).
At Jezīret-ibn-'Omar (boat-bridge).
At Mosul (boat-bridge).
On the Euphrates:
At Deir ez-Zor (stone; unfinished in 1917, completed only from r. bank to island; thence to l. bank 'floating' (boat?) bridge).
At Jerablūs (railway).

On the Great Zāb :

At Eski Kelek on the Erbil—Mosul road (trestle-bridge capable of taking field-artillery, recently built).

On the Lesser Zāb :

At Altun Köprü (a narrow bridge steeply arched, not passable for wheels).

On the Batman Su :

Batman Köprü, west of Farqīn on the Diarbekr—Bitlis road (stone).

Stone or brick bridges are occasionally found on the smaller streams in and near the hills ; many of these are in a more or less ruinous condition. In the mountains plank bridges for foot-passengers or pack-animals occur ; these are liable to be swept away in flood-time.

There are ferries (large pontoons, *quffehs,* or *keleks*) at some of the principal river-crossings.

The larger rivers are fordable in places during the low-water season (late summer and early autumn). The smaller stream-beds contain little if any water in the summer and autumn, but after rain or the melting of snow in the hills may become impassable for some time.

Road Transport

(*a*) Mechanical transport :

Before the war motor-cars had occasionally traversed some of the main routes in the plains of upper Mesopotamia and northern Irak.

During the present war motor-lorries have been employed on the lines of communication of the British and Turkish forces.

The following notes on the use of mechanical transport in Irak are taken from *Field Notes on Mesopotamia,* February 1917 :

The most important types of vehicles in use are the Peerless, Fiat, and Napier motor-lorries.

Climatic conditions are not favourable to mechanical transport. (i) The enormous variations in the temperature, and therefore in the density of the air, make the adjustment of the carburettor with the fixed mixture preparation almost impossible. (ii) The cooling effect of the radiator is materially reduced owing to the great heat prevailing in Irak during the summer months. The engine has therefore to work at an unusually high temperature, and this unfortunate circumstance is aggravated by the difficulty of obtaining suitable heavy oil.

Difficulties are also caused by the alluvial soil of the plains and the lack of made roads. Anything heavier than a 30-cwt. lorry will

probably break through the desert crust and get bogged in the mud beneath. Where the ground is soft solid tyres will cut from the outset, so that pneumatic tyres are almost essential. The consumption of petrol is extraordinarily high (3–4 miles per gallon for Peerless lorries) owing to the impossibility of using the higher gears even in dry weather. In wet weather it has been found that mechanical transport is quite unable to move anywhere.

The general conclusions with regard to motor transport in Irak have been summed up as follows:

(1) *Weight on road.*—Should be as small as possible.

(2) *Bearing surface of wheels.*—Should be relatively as large as possible compared with power and weight of car.

(3) *Tyres.*—Should be pneumatic without exception.

(4) *Springs.*—Strong springs absolutely essential, with an extra leaf in addition to the maker's usual specification. This applies both to back and front springs.

(5) *Shock-absorbers.*—Should be fitted to rear springs.

(6) *Buffers.*—Buffers such as 'Nevajahs' should be fitted to all springs in addition to the shock-absorbers specified above.

(7) *Radiators.*—Big radiators are absolutely necessary, preferably honeycomb.

(8) *Adjustable extra air-inlets.*—Are necessary.

(9) *Wheels.*—Should be of metal, not wood.

(10) *Bodies.*—Should be light.

(11) *Spare parts.*—These should be in a proportion of at least 15 per cent. This is one of the most important points of all.

(*b*) Wheeled vehicles drawn by animals:

The common name for all animal-drawn wheeled vehicles used in the country or towns is *araba*. The following types may be distinguished:

(i) The *araba* or *yāilā*. A light four-wheeled carriage on springs, drawn by 2 or 3 horses or mules. The whole body is covered by a rounded hood for protection against sun or bad weather. The vehicle is entered from the side. It can hold 2 passengers comfortably, and will take up to 4; 2 persons can be stretched inside the wagon. The front part forms the seat for the driver, and a fair amount of baggage can be carried behind. The hood-construction acts as a good protection if the carriage overturns, as sometimes happens in the hills. An inferior make of this type is used for the transport of baggage or goods, taking perhaps up to 15 cwt.

The width of the araba's wheel-track is about 4 ft., the width of the body about 5 ft.

The hire of these carriages before the war cost £T10–15 for the Baghdad—Aleppo and Aleppo—Mosul journeys and £T5–10 for the journey from Baghdad to Mosul.

(ii) *Omnibus.* A four-wheeled covered coach, without springs, made of wood. It is drawn by 3 or 4 mules. It is square-shaped, and has the appearance of a primitive hotel omnibus. The entrance is at the back, and the seats, which run along the sides, can take ten or twelve persons. This vehicle is suitable only for passenger traffic and for routes on the flat.

These omnibuses ply on the roads from Baghdad to Kerbela, Nejef, Hilla, Samarra, and Bāqūbeh.

(iii) *Gharry* (generally so called at Basra) or *araba* (generally so called at Baghdad). A four-wheeled carriage on springs, drawn by 1 or 2 horses; it will take 2 passengers comfortably, can hold 4. It is principally used in the larger towns, and is suitable for short journeys only.

(iv) *Carts* of various types (two-wheeled or four-wheeled) are met with in northern Mesopotamia, but infrequently. They are used for heavy draught work and are drawn by bullocks or mules.

(*c*) Transport animals:

Almost all land transport in Mesopotamia was still carried on by pack-animals before the war.

Camels are used for pack-transport in the drier parts of the plains, especially in desert and open steppe, and also in the lower hill-country. They are useless on marshy, muddy, or slippery soil.

The usual pace of a camel-caravan is 2–2½ miles an hour, and its daily march would be generally 10–15 miles.

The carrying capacity of the camel varies very considerably with different circumstances—the length of the journey, the character of the surface, the water and grazing obtainable *en route*, and the bulk of the load. Under favourable conditions a fairly strong camel may be expected to carry 450–500 lb. (in two packages), and exceptional animals will take up to 600 lb. On the other hand 330 lb. is said to be the average for desert routes.

See further on the camel pp. 182–4.

Horses and *ponies* are used for draught or pack work on the well-watered routes in the plains and on the less difficult roads in the hills.

Baggage-ponies will generally carry a load of about 300 lb. in two packages, and under favourable conditions will move at about 3½–4 miles an hour. The usual day's march for these animals is about 20–25 miles.

See further pp. 184–5.

Mules are used as pack-animals in the hills, and are employed especially in the more mountainous country, where the roads are too difficult for horses. In the plains they are used mainly in drawing carriages and for military purposes.

The pack-mule will usually carry a load of about 300 lb., and mule-caravans can move at about 3½–4 miles an hour under favourable circumstances, 20–25 miles being a fair day's march.

See further pp. 185–6.

(The circumstances mentioned above as affecting the carrying capacity of the camel also make a considerable difference to ponies and mules.)

Donkeys are used as transport-animals everywhere, and especially for local, short-distance traffic. They will carry loads of 120–150 lb., and can generally do about 3 miles an hour.

See further p. 186.

Bullocks are employed in some districts of upper Mesopotamia on specially heavy draught work, and for carting agricultural produce, &c.

Khāns

Khāns (caravanserais) are found in towns, in some of the larger villages, and at halting-places on some of the main routes. They are quadrangular enclosures containing a courtyard in which beasts are tethered. Round this courtyard, in the inside of the outer wall, are alcoves which are used as rooms and sometimes as stables. In the larger *khāns* there is an upper story with rooms for travellers.

There is usually a well either in or close to the *khān*. Beasts are watered either from this, or, where possible, from a neighbouring stream or canal. Fodder can generally be obtained at a *khān*, being purchased either from the *khānji* or from sellers who bring it to the hostel. In the same way fuel is often brought to the *khān* for sale, and occasionally vegetables, &c. But supplies usually, and sometimes fuel and fodder, have to be purchased in the bazaar.

Khāns are generally dirty and insanitary.

Charges are trifling. There is a fixed charge for beasts, but for their personal accommodation travellers pay as they choose. Some *khāns* in Mesopotamia are endowed by pious founders and provide Moslem pilgrims with free accommodation, but most are privately owned or leased by the Government.

Waterways and River Transport

Principal Waterways of Irak

(*a*) The Shatt el-'Arab and Tigris up to Baghdad.

(i) *Persian Gulf—Basra.* The Shatt el-'Arab can be ascended as far as Basra by ocean-going vessels, but its navigation is impeded by a large bar at its mouth. It has been reported, however, that this bar can probably be dredged so as to allow the passage of vessels of 25–26 ft. draught. So long as it remains undredged vessels of more than 11 ft. draught have to wait for the flood, vessels of about 20 ft. draught can cross at high-water springs, and vessels of about 17 ft. at neaps. Vessels drawing more than 20 ft. are lightened outside the bar, or complete their loading there, according as they are inward or outward bound.

There is anchorage in 34–48 ft. of water in Basra reach. Since 1915 a number of wharves which can accommodate ocean-going steamers have been built at Magil 5 miles upstream of the Ashar Creek. Railway tracks are here run alongside the discharging berths, which are so arranged that four or five steamers can unload at the same time, and warehouses have been built immediately opposite. Travelling cranes have also been provided.

Since 1916 one ocean-wharf has been built at Basra, besides various departmental wharves; under a revised system of port organization ocean-going vessels are to be dealt with at Magil (11 berths) and Nahr Umar (2 berths).

A large repair workshop for river-steamers was erected on the river front in 1916. The construction of a dry dock for river-steamers was taken in hand. This was afterwards stopped, and work was begun on two slipways, the larger of which would be suitable for the biggest boats plying on the Tigris.

Before the war there was a small dock, with workshops, in Magil Creek. Only small repairs on river-steamers could be done here.

(ii) *Basra—Baghdad* (500 miles). Practicable throughout the year for suitable steamers (i. e. with independent engines, good ground gear, and steam capstans fore and aft) drawing 4 ft., but at the worst places all steamers stick frequently in low water and have to be hauled through shallows. In high water depths of 20 ft. and more can be found except on Kurna bar and in the worst stretches between Ezra's Tomb and Qal'at Sālih, where about 13 ft. of water is to be expected.

Width of river 200–500 yds., except in the narrows between

Ezra's Tomb and Qal'at Sālih, where in places it is only 65–75 yds. Current about $1\frac{1}{2}$ m.p.h. in low water; in flood-times it may be 6 m.p.h. or more, and averages about 4 m.p.h.

The greatest difficulties are to be found: (1) in the reaches above mentioned from Ezra's Tomb up to Qal'at Sālih, where, owing to the great volume of water spilt from the river-bed down large canals above Qal'at Sālih, the channel narrows and shallows; moreover the bends here are very frequent and sharp; (2) at places between Kut el-Amara and Baghdad, where there are banks of silt which give much trouble in low water.

Besides the seasonal variations in the state of the river, changes are constantly taking place which more or less alter the details of navigation from year to year. When the river is falling in the summer the channels take some time to form and are often very erratic.

The improvement of the waterway of the Tigris has been under consideration, and certain measures have already been taken:

(i) Kurna—Amara.

Some work has already been done to improve conditions in the narrows between Ezra's Tomb and Qal'at Sālih.

The measures that have been recommended include the following:

(1) Restriction of the amount of water taken off by the larger canals, so far as may be consistent with the needs of agriculture; closure of unimportant and useless channels.

In 1916 a weir was built at the head of the Michrīyeh canal, where the loss of water from the main channel was then most serious. Later it was found that there was serious danger from the increasing spill of water down the Jehāleh (Chahala) canal at Amara. A bar which had previously acted as a weir at the head of this canal had disappeared, and more and more water was here escaping from the river-bed. In the spring of 1917 measures to check this process were under consideration.

(2) Dredging of narrowest parts of the navigation channel.

(3) Conservancy regulations, to prevent the Arabs of the neighbourhood from cutting canals at the river-bends, and from reclaiming land on the river-bank by means of brushwood groynes.

(4) Construction of retired bunds or levees in order to provide for the ultimate flow of the bulk of the river's flood-waters down the regenerated channel.

The digging of new cuts across the bends would not be safe unless a careful survey had made it possible to foretell what would be the effect on the river downstream.

(ii) Amara—Kut el-Amara.

Measures recommended are:

(1) Maintenance and improvement of existing bunds, and construction of new bunds.

(2) Restriction of the amount of water taken off by irrigation-channels so far as may be consistent with the needs of agriculture; closure of unimportant and useless channels.

(iii) Kut el-Amara—Baghdad.

The frequency of banks of silt in this part of the river is due largely to the untrained condition of the river-bed and the very winding course which it follows. 'Bandalling', or the construction of groynes of bamboos and reed-matting at the upper ends of sand-banks so as to increase the size of the banks, proved successful in the summer of 1917. The digging of new cuts across the bends (as the Turks cut the bend below Ctesiphon, 1915) might, unless based on a most careful examination of local conditions, have undesirable consequences.

(*b*) The Euphrates up to Fellūjeh.

The lower Euphrates is navigable for laden native boats of the larger or smaller types according to the season and the conditions on the different stretches or channels of the river. In the years before the war small steamers had occasionally made the journey from Kurna to the Hindiyeh Barrage; but in low water steamers and fully laden native boats of the larger kinds could not pass the shallows in the lakes, or the mud bars which occurred here and there, and especially near the entrances and exits of the lakes. Conditions have now been somewhat improved by dredging between Kurna and Nāsirīyeh, but the shallows of the Bahr-i-Shināfiyeh are apparently still impassable in low water for anything but the smallest, or quite lightly laden, native craft. The navigable arms of the river are in parts narrow and tortuous. The details of navigation are liable to change from year to year.

(i) *Kurna—Nāsirīyeh.*

In high water steamers drawing 5 ft. can pass from Kurna to Nāsirīyeh. Up to 1916 steamers and large native boats fully laden could not reach Sūq esh-Shuyūkh in low water owing to shallows on the Chubeish bar, the Hammār Lake, and the Haqiqeh bar. Dredging operations were undertaken in the autumn of 1916 in order to open a channel for the low-water season. In 1915 and 1916 the main navigation channel between the Hammār Lake and Sūq esh-Shuyūkh had followed the Haqiqeh arm, the Haqiqeh dam having been destroyed by the British in 1915; but as rice-cultivation in the neighbourhood was dependent on this dam it was reconstructed, and the Mezlaq

channel was improved for navigation, the bar obstructing its eastern end being apparently dredged. From Sūq esh-Shuyūkh to Nāsirīyeh there are ample depths at all seasons.

Between Kurna and the Hammar Lake the width of the channel is 180–160 yds.; the Mezlaq channel was reported in 1915 to be only 25 yds. wide for the first 2 miles above its mouth; from Sūq esh-Shuyūkh to Nāsirīyeh the average width is 150–200 yds. The current is slight to Sūq esh-Shuyūkh, thence to Nāsirīyeh it is reported to be 2½–3 knots.

Large native boats navigate from Gurmat 'Ali to the Mezlaq channel across the Euphrates *khōr* in high water.

(ii) *Nāsirīyeh—Samāweh.*

Navigation on this stretch appears to be easy. A steamer drawing 3 ft. 2 in. made good running here in February. The width of the river is said to be about 300 yds. to Durāji, and from there to Samāweh about 50–120 yds.

(iii) *Samāweh—Hindiyeh Barrage* (Hindiyeh branch).

The navigation channel in 1913 followed the Shatt Khansar between Samāweh and Shināfiyeh, crossed the Bahr-i-Shināfiyeh, and thence proceeded up the Shāmiyeh channel to Kifl.

A steamer drawing 3 ft. 2 in. made this voyage in February 1912 and at the beginning of July 1913, but in the months when the river is lowest only small *bellams*, or large *bellams* laden to not more than one-third of their capacity, can cross the Bahr-i-Shināfiyeh. There is a bar at the southern entrance to the Shināfiyeh Lake, where in February 1912 there was less than 2½ ft. of water. Navigation on the lake is difficult and variable. The Shāmiyeh channel had 4–7 ft. of water in July 1913. Its width was generally 50–150 yds., but navigation was somewhat hampered by irrigation-dams which left only a narrow fairway with a strong current.

The Kūfeh channel from the Bahr-i-Shināfiyeh to Kifl is practicable only for small native boats.

Depths on the Hindiyeh branch have been reduced by the Hindiyeh Barrage, and in 1917 they were further decreased owing to the cutting by the Turks of the Saqlāwiyeh dam (near Ramādiyeh), which has now been repaired.

(iv) *Samāweh—Hilla Regulator* (Hilla branch).

This arm is probably navigable for large native craft and small steamers in high water, the Hilla Regulator being open. Exact information is not available.

(v) *Hindiyeh Barrages and Hilla Regulator.*

The Old Hindiyeh Barrage, near the head of the Hindiyeh branch and about 6 miles below Museyib, practically blocks navigation,

though empty native craft can be hauled or shot over it in high water.

The New Barrage (about $\frac{1}{2}$ mile above the Old) and the Hilla Regulator (about $\frac{1}{4}$ mile above the New Barrage) are not passable for large river-steamers, as their navigation locks are only $26\frac{1}{4}$ ft. wide.

(vi) *Hindiyeh Barrage—Fellūjeh.*

Depths on this stretch are reported to be $3\frac{1}{2}$–$6\frac{1}{2}$ ft. in low water and average 18 ft. in flood. The width of the river is generally 150–300 yds. Current in January about 2 m.p.h.

(*c*) Shatt el-Hai (Shatt el-Gharaf).

The Shatt el-Hai affords a waterway only in the high-water season; in low water it is practically dry.

It is reported that river-steamers drawing $4\frac{1}{2}$ ft. can navigate from Kut el-Amara to Abu Mahau from February to June, and native craft drawing up to $2\frac{1}{2}$ ft. can generally use this part of the channel in July and December.

From Abu Mahau to Decha Suweij (20–25 miles from Nāsirīyeh) the channel is about 12 ft. broad and $2\frac{1}{2}$ ft. deep in high water.

There is in normal years no water communication between Decha Suweij and Nāsirīyeh, though in exceptionally high water, in 1915, the Turks sent convoys of small *bellams* to the Euphrates about 5 miles below Nāsirīyeh by the Umm Jemal canal. In high water large *bellams* can generally pass from the Euphrates to the Khōr Huseiniyeh and reach the north-eastern limit of that lake, about 6 miles from Decha Suweij.

The only reliable waterway between the Shatt el-Hai and the Euphrates is the Nahr Beidhā or Beda'ah, which takes off from the Shatt el-Hai about 2 miles above Shatrat el-Muntefiq and runs to the Hammār Lake. This is practicable for large *bellams* from December to July.

The Nahr Hamzeh or Shatt el-Ibrāhim branches from the Shatt el-Hai about 20 miles below Shatrat el-Muntefiq and discharges into the Hammār Lake. This is passable for small *bellams* from December to July.

(*d*) The Diyāleh.

The Diyāleh is navigable by *safīnehs* in high water to within a few miles of the Hamrīn hills. In March 1917 H.M.S. *Stonefly* ascended the river to Bāqūbeh. In the low-water season there is no waterway on the Diyāleh, its supply being diverted near the Hamrīn hills into the Khālis and other canals.

The river follows a tortuous course, and is 50–150 yds. broad.

The passing of upward and downward-bound vessels might cause difficulty owing to the sharp bends and the high banks which restrict the range of vision. Current 3 m.p.h. in the lower reaches, gradually increasing to 4 m.p.h.

Principal Waterways in Arabistan

(*a*) The Kārūn.

(i) *From Mohammareh to Nāzirī.*

The Kārūn up to the Ahwāz-Nāzirī rapids is generally navigable for vessels of 5–6 ft. draught, but in low water vessels drawing only 3½ ft. may have difficulty at places within 20 miles of Nāzirī. Width about 300 yds. Current 5–7 m.p.h. in a high river, and about 2–2½ m.p.h. in low water.

The Nāzirī rapids are passable by towing, but even native boats find great difficulty here in a low or very high river. The rapids have twice been ascended by craft under steam. Usually cargoes are landed below the rapids at Nāzirī and transported to Ahwāz at their upper end.

(ii) *From Ahwāz to Shaleili.*

From Ahwāz shallow-draught steamers can navigate the Kārūn to Shaleili on the Āb-i-Gargar branch of the river, about 70 miles above Ahwāz and 7½ miles below Shushtar. Dar-i-Khazineh, where are the A.P.O. Co.'s sheds, and from which a cart-road leads to Maidān-i-Naftūn, is 4–5 miles below Shaleili.

It is reported that a little blasting would open up the channel at Shushtar.

(*b*) The Bahmān Shīr.

The Bahmān Shīr mouth of the Kārūn is navigable for about 30 miles from the Persian Gulf by vessels drawing 7 ft., but in the uppermost 14–15 miles it is very shallow, the channel being obstructed by mud-flats. Native sea-going boats cannot pass the shoals of the upper Bahmān Shīr without waiting for the tide, which here makes a difference of about 9 ft.

(*c*) The Āb-i-Diz.

The Āb-i-Diz was ascended in August 1892 by a stern-wheeler drawing 2½ ft. as far as Umm el-Wāwīyeh 20 miles from Dizfūl. But a recent report states that, while the Diz is navigable by country boats 'for some little distance' above its junction with the Kārūn, even in the flood season of 1916 boats failed to get within 25 miles of Shush (i. e. perhaps about 40 miles of Dizfūl).

(*d*) Mārid Canal.

There is *bellam* traffic between Mohammareh and Fellāhīyeh by the Mārid—Fellāhīyeh canal.

Principal Waterways in Upper Mesopotamia

(*a*) The Euphrates from Birijik to Fellūjeh.

The middle Euphrates has up till now been used mainly for downstream traffic by *shakhtūrs* (see p. 292) from Birijik, or, since 1914, from Jerablūs or Meskeneh. Steamers have occasionally navigated the river, and an experiment was made in 1911 with two large and powerful motor-boats; but of these latter one was wrecked and the other was subsequently transferred to the Tigris.

(i) Downstream navigation. (1) *Shakhtūrs* take from about 14 to about 45 days from Jerablūs or Birijik to Fellūjeh, according to the state of the river, the wind, &c. (2) Steamers drawing 3–4 ft. and motor-launches have done the journey from Meskeneh to Fellūjeh, but only in a full river would the journey be fairly safe.

(ii) Upstream navigation. (1) Native craft do not navigate upstream of Hīt owing to the swiftness of the current, especially at the rapids. *Shakhtūrs* are towed back empty. (2) Light-draught steamers can ascend to Meskeneh in high water, but progress would be slow, and it has been reported that a speed of 12 knots would be needed to make head against the current between Hīt and Ānah. In low water the upstream journey would be dangerous, perhaps impracticable, for steamers.

From a report of 1903 it would appear that navigation (especially in the months of mean water) could be improved by considerable engineering works at the rapids below Hadiseh between Hīt and Ānah, at those off Ānah town, and at those of Abu Quba'i and El-Hammām above Raqqah. The dams of the water-wheels (*naurs*) which occur on some stretches of the river help to impede navigation.

The Germans are said to have improved the waterway since 1914, but details are lacking. It seems that they have placed life-saving apparatus at dangerous places, and have destroyed a number of *naurs*.

(*b*) The Tigris from Diarbekr to Baghdad.

The upper and middle Tigris is an important waterway for downstream traffic, the craft in use being rafts on inflated skins (*keleks*; see p. 291).

(i) *Diarbekr—Mosul* (? about 335 miles). The times taken by *keleks* on this stretch of the river are reported to vary from about 4 to about 20 days, according to the state of the river, the wind, &c.

Rocks and whirlpools make navigation difficult and somewhat dangerous in the gorges between the mouth of the Batman Su and Hasan Kaif, and again between the Bohtan and Jezīret-ibn-'Omar. Rapids also occur in the stretch between Jezīret-ibn-'Omar and Mosul.

(ii) *Mosul—Baghdad* (? about 300 miles). Times taken by *keleks* vary from about 3 to about 15 days (or 2–10 days to Samarra), according to the state of the river, the wind, &c.

Safinehs can ascend from Baghdad to Samarra (106 miles by river) in high water. It appears that in low water they would have to be unloaded and portaged over shallow places.

With regard to steamer navigation satisfactory information is not available. It seems that in a high river (April–June) steamers drawing $4\frac{1}{2}$ ft. can ascend to Tekrit (140 miles above Baghdad), while steamers of $3\frac{1}{2}$–4 ft. draught can reach Qal'ah Sherghat (about 220 miles above Baghdad). In low water (September–November) steamers drawing $3\frac{1}{2}$ ft. or more cannot navigate above Baghdad; but the shallow-draught steamer *Julnar* is said to have been able to reach Samarra at that season.

Before 1917 there had been hardly any navigation of the river above Samarra by steamers. In 1839 the *Euphrates* (3 ft. draught) reached Sultān 'Abdallah 40–45 miles below Mosul. In the spring of 1917 a number of Turkish steamers, drawing $3\frac{1}{2}$–$4\frac{1}{2}$ ft., passed upstream of Baghdad, and one, the *Khalifa*, drawing about $3\frac{1}{2}$ ft., reached Haji 'Ali a few miles below Kaiyara and about 20–25 miles above Qal'ah Sherghat; she there went aground.

The current is strong. Rocks which endanger navigation occur above Samarra, and rapids are formed by rocks or ledges of shingle. It is believed that, if the rocks forming the principal obstacles to navigation were removed by blasting, shallow-draught steamers of considerable power could ascend to Mosul.

(*c*) The Lesser Zāb.

This river is navigable by *keleks* from Taktak (about 45 miles above Altun Köprü) to its junction with the Tigris. There is a good deal of *kelek* traffic from Altun Köprü and Baghdad, but in low water *keleks* of the larger kind, carrying goods, do not usually travel on the Lesser Zāb.

Usual times for *keleks* from Altun Köprü to the Tigris are: in high water, 12–24 hrs.; in low water, about 3 days.

It is possible that small steamers of considerable power could navigate the Lesser Zāb in high water as far as Altun Köprü. There are rocks and rapids in the channel, and in low water depths in places are only 1–2 ft.

River Transport in Irak

(*a*) *Steamers and Motor-vessels.*

Typical classes of steam river-craft now in use are: (i) Improved Medjedieh class: 225 ft. long, 52 ft. beam, $4\frac{1}{2}$ ft. draught, independent paddles. (ii) Stern-wheelers: 150 ft. long, 35 ft. beam, $4\frac{1}{4}$ ft. draught. (iii) Tugs: (1) independent paddles: 115 ft. long, $39\frac{1}{2}$ ft. beam, $4\frac{1}{3}$ ft. draught; (2) tunnel-screws: $81\frac{1}{2}$ ft. long, 17 ft. beam, $3\frac{2}{3}$ ft. draught. All these classes use oil-fuel. Motor-craft are of many types, but for general purposes a 40-ft. launch of 30 h.p. is used.

(*b*) *Native Craft.*

(i) The *safīneh* or *maheileh* is a type of native sailing-vessel used on the rivers of Irak. It is common on the Shatt el-'Arab and Tigris from Basra up to Samarra, and *safīnehs* of the smaller kinds are found on the Euphrates. *Safīnehs* are built mainly at Basra.

It appears that, while *safīneh* is the general name for craft of this type, the word *maheileh* is used for large *safīnehs*.

The *safīneh* may be from 30 to 80 ft. long, with a beam about one-third of its length. Its carrying capacity may be 10–75 tons, according to size, and a large *safīneh* may hold up to 60 passengers. Draught, when fully loaded, 3–4 ft. Crew, 3–15 men; the captain of the *safīneh* is called the *nokada*.

The *safīneh* is built with considerable sheer, giving the midship portion a freeboard of about a foot only when the vessel is fully loaded, while the gunwale at bow and stern is several feet above water. The *safīneh* is an open boat, but the larger sizes have a poop, and all have a steering platform aft as well as a small forecastle deck for working ground tackle and for poling.

The bow is pointed (the stern also to a lesser degree), and the lines of the vessel are fine. There is one mast, carrying a lateen sail, and the vessel is steered with an ordinary tiller and a broad rudder.

Against the wind, or against the current when there is no following wind, the *safīneh* is towed or poled along the shallow water close to the river-bank. Towing is done by means of a long rope attached to the top of the mast. Usual speeds are:

Baghdad—Basra: high water, 4–7 days; low water, 2–3 weeks.

Basra—Baghdad: high water, 2–3 weeks; low water, 5–7 weeks.

A great deal of time is lost on the upstream journeys owing to the frequent necessity of towing.

Cost of construction, £100–£250.

Average freights, Baghdad—Basra 15*s*.–25*s*. per ton d.w.

The *baghalah*, used for lightering on the Shatt el-'Arab, has a hull

shaped like that of a *safīneh*. It is generally poled, but with a following wind a small mast and sail may be used. A large *baghalah* may take 100 men or 20 horses.

(ii) The *danak* is a sailing-vessel found principally on the Euphrates, though large *danaks* are to be met with on the Tigris.

The *danak* is 30–40 ft. long, and is generally of from 9 to 11 tons burden. It is an open boat, pointed at bow and stern, with a platform at each end. The stem and stern-post rise above the gunwale, but the *danak* is not built so low amidships as the *safīneh*. The hull is coated with bitumen. The vessel may be either sailed or poled; there is one mast with a lateen sail.

The *danak* is a much clumsier-looking craft than the *safīneh*, and is lighter and less strong in its construction. It is used mainly for light bulky cargoes such as date-stalks.

(iii) The *bellam* is used on the Shatt el-'Arab and the canals taking off from that river. Large cargo *bellams* are also found on the lower Euphrates.

The small *bellam* as seen at Basra (*bellam Ashāri*) is long and narrow, somewhat resembling the Venetian gondola. It is about 20 ft. in length, and 3 ft. in its greatest beam. The *bellam* is flat-bottomed, and draws very little water. It is generally poled, but can also be rowed, paddled, or sailed. There is a platform at either end. The *bellam* is usually poled by two men (one on the fore platform and one on the aft, or both forward), and steered by a third with a paddle. These boats are used for passengers and small goods traffic.

The large *bellams* (*aragiyeh*) are used as lighters or cargo-boats. They may be as much as 60 ft. in length, and carry 9–60 tons, according to size.

(iv) The *mashhūf* is a canoe used in southern Irak on the marshes of the lower Tigris and Euphrates. It is the chief means of locomotion possessed by the Ma'adan, or 'marsh Arabs', of this region.

The ordinary *mashhūf* is 15–20 ft. in length, and can hold up to 4 or 5 persons. It is constructed of light planks or reeds, and is covered with bitumen. It can be rapidly propelled by a man with a paddle who sits aft.

A larger type of *mashhūf*, called *kaiyariyeh*, has a mast and sail. It is built of thin planking and is covered with bitumen.

(v) The *quffeh*, a kind of coracle, is found principally on the Tigris in the neighbourhood of Baghdad, but is also met with elsewhere on the Tigris and on the Euphrates. Between Samarra and Baghdad it is used for downstream navigation as well as for ferrying; else-

where, chiefly for the latter purpose. Large *maheilehs* sometimes have a *quffeh* as a dinghy.

The *quffeh* is circular in shape and made of wicker-work thickly coated with bitumen. *Quffehs* are generally 4–5 ft. in diameter, but some are only 3 ft. 8 in. across, others as much as 10 ft. Their depth varies from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ ft. A normal-sized *quffeh* will carry 4–5 passengers, but a very large one will hold 20 persons, or one camel and several passengers. The *quffeh* is usually paddled by two men. It is not handy to work upstream.

River Transport in Arabistan

(*a*) *Steamers.*

The Kārūn between Mohammareh and Nāzirī was navigated before the war by the following steamers:

Malamir, Messrs. Lynch & Co., 3 ft. 10 in. draught, 110 tons capacity, taking 600 passengers, besides 6 first-class, and capable of towing 2 barges of 50–70 tons. Usual times, 36 hours up (with halts), and 14 hours down.

Nasrat, Naziri Company (Mu'in ut-Tujjar), 3 ft. 4 in. draught, 65 tons capacity, taking 200 passengers, besides 4 first-class, and capable of towing 2 barges of 50 tons. Usual times, 36 hours up (with halts), and 14 hours down.

On the Kārūn between Ahwāz and Shaleili there were the following steamers:

Shushan, Persian Government, worked by Messrs. Lynch & Co., 2 ft. 6 in. draught, 50 tons capacity, capable of towing 1 barge of 40 tons. Usual times, 36 hours up and 12 hours down.

Muavin (?), Naziri Company (Mu'in ut-Tujjar), 2 ft. 6 in. draught, 20 tons capacity, taking 150 passengers, and capable of towing 1 barge of 40 tons.

It was reported in 1916 that 'when the Anglo-Persian Oil Company's stern-wheeler *Aminiyeh* is above the rapids with barges she can tow two 80-ton barges to Dar-i-Kazineh in 24 hours'.

(*b*) *Native Craft.*

Safīnehs (*maheilehs*) and *bellams* are used for transport on the Kārūn. *Bellams* are used on the canals of the Fellāhīyeh district, and *mashhūfs* on the marshes of the Karkeh. On these types of craft see above, pp. 288–9.

River Transport in Upper Mesopotamia

(*a*) *Steamers and Motor-vessels.*

Before the war there was no regular service of steamers on the middle Tigris and Euphrates, though experiments had been made.

In 1836 Chesney descended the Euphrates from Birijik with two steamers, lost one of them at El-Qaim, and with the other (which drew 3 ft.) reached Basra. In 1870 Midhat Pasha, then vali of Baghdad, started a service of two small steamers between Fellūjeh and Meskeneh. But this was soon discontinued; it appears that one of the vessels was wrecked on the rocks just below Ardeshir near Ānah. In 1911 two large and powerful motor-boats (length, 65 ft.; draught, 2½ ft.) were placed on the river. One of these was soon afterwards wrecked, and the other was withdrawn. Since 1914 the Turks have apparently used motor-boats, and possibly small stern-wheelers, on parts of the middle Euphrates. (See further p. 286.)

The Tigris was ascended in 1839 by the ss. *Euphrates* (3 ft. draught) as far as Sultān 'Abdullah, about 40 miles by river below Mosul. Between 1839 and 1917 light-draught steamers had very rarely gone above Samarra, and none had passed above the Hamrīn hills. A small steam-launch plied fairly regularly between Samarra and Baghdad. The German archaeological expedition at Qal'ah Sherghat used a motor-boat on that part of the river.

It is reported that in the flood-season of 1917 the *Khalifa*, drawing 3½ ft. or 4 ft. according to load, reached Haji 'Ali, a few miles downstream of Kaiyara, and about 55 miles by river from Mosul. Other Turkish steamers then reached various points between Tekrit and Haji 'Ali. It is reported that motor-boats are being constructed in Germany for use on the Tigris.

(*b*) *Native Craft.*

(i) The *kelek*, a raft supported on inflated skins, is used for downstream navigation, principally on the Tigris from Diarbekr to Baghdad and on the Lesser Zāb from Altun Köprü, and occasionally on the lower courses of the chief tributaries of the Tigris other than the Lesser Zāb. (Outside our area there is *kelek* navigation on the Frat Su and Murād Su in Armenia.) There are also *kelek* ferries on the upper Tigris and on the Tigris tributaries, as well as on the upper Kārūn.

The *kelek* consists of a square platform of timber built up with layers of poles to a thickness of 1½–2 ft., and then covered with rough planks. On the under side and round the edges of this platform are attached inflated skins, the number of which varies from 50 to 800, according to the size of the raft. A small hut or tent can be erected on the raft to serve as a cabin.

The carrying capacity of a *kelek* may be from 5 to 35 tons. A raft of 200 skins is said to be about 20 ft. by 30 ft.

The *kelek* can move downstream only, and is steered by means of

two roughly fashioned oars. In hot weather the exposed parts of the inflated skins have to be constantly splashed with water to prevent them from bursting. In the intense summer heats the larger *keleks* carrying merchandise rarely navigate, but the smaller types used for passenger traffic travel on the Tigris and Lesser Zāb throughout the year. Adverse winds greatly delay progress, and may make it impossible for days.

On arrival at their destination, the rafts are dismantled, the wood sold, and the skins retanned and conveyed by pack-transport to the point of departure.

Rafts from Diarbekr usually stop at Mosul. Rafts from Mosul go down to Baghdad, but raftmen (*kelekjis*) are changed at Tekrit. The crew of the raft usually numbers 2 or 4 men.

Normal times for *kelek* journeys are :

Mosul—Baghdad, 2–4 days in high water ; 8–15 days in low water.

Altun Köprü—Confluence of Lesser Zāb and Tigris, 10 hours in high water ; 2–3 days in low water.

The hire of a *kelek* is reckoned according to the number of skins. Before the war a small raft could be hired for the journey from Mosul to Baghdad for about £5–£8.

(ii) *Shakhtūrs*, flat-bottomed boats, navigating downstream only, used on the Euphrates between Birijik and Fellūjeh ; they sometimes descend the river as far as Museyib or the Hindiyeh Barrage. Before the war they were built only at Birijik ; since 1914 they have been constructed at other places on the Euphrates for use on the Turkish lines of communication (*shakhtūr*-building has been reported as occurring at Jerablūs, Deir ez-Zor, Ānah, and Hīt).

They are oblong in shape, 18 ft. long, 8 ft. wide, with a depth from gunwale to flooring of about 2½ ft. When fully loaded they draw 1½ ft. The bottom consists of tree-trunks sawn in half, beneath which flat boards are nailed ; and a flooring of flat boards is fastened 1 ft. above the bottom. The sides and ends of the boats consist of flat boards roughly nailed together, the interstices being stuffed with rags daubed with bitumen. One boat carries about 5 tons. *Shakhtūrs* almost always travel in pairs, fastened together side by side. They are steered by clumsy sweeps, pulled in the bow, and are so unmanageable that they can travel only in a flat calm. They are liable to be stopped by the slightest wind. The times taken by *shakhtūrs* on their journeys vary enormously according to the state of the river and the wind. The journey from Birijik to Fellūjeh may take from 12 to 50 days or more.

Shakhtūrs take merchandise downstream and are towed back empty, usually by Ānah men.

Telegraphs and Telephones

Lower Mesopotamia (South of Baghdad)

(*a*) The Indo-European Telegraph Department's cable from India is landed at Fāo.

(*b*) There is a land line from Fāo to Basra by the right bank of the Shatt el-'Arab. This line is connected with Mohammareh.

(*c*) Before the war a Turkish line ran from Basra to Baghdad *via* Kurna and the Tigris.

Branches from this line were: (i) Kut el-Amara—Kut el-Hai; (ii) Kut el-Amara—Bedrah—Mandali—Shahraban (on the Baghdad—Khanikin line; see below, under 'Upper Mesopotamia').

(*d*) Before the war a Turkish line ran from Basra to Baghdad *via* Kurna and the Euphrates, passing by Hilla.

Branches from this line were: (i) Hilla—Nejef; (ii) Hilla—Hindiyeh—Kerbela; (iii) Museyib—Kerbela—Nejef.

(*e*) There is a telegraph line from Mohammareh to Ahwāz, Shushtar, Dizfūl, and Shush.

(*f*) From Ahwāz to Bushire there is a line *via* Behbehan and Borazjun.

(*g*) There is now telegraphic communication between Basra and Koweit.

(*h*) There were wireless stations at the beginning of 1917 at Basra, Amara, the Anglo-Persian Oil Company's field at Maidān-i-Naftūn, Bahrein, Bushire, and Harjano.

(*i*) The Anglo-Persian Oil Company have an overhead telephone from Maidān-i-Naftūn to 'Abbadan Island (following the pipe-line), with a branch to Mohammareh.

(*j*) Telephone systems have been introduced at Basra and elsewhere.

Upper Mesopotamia (North of Baghdad)

(*a*) Before the war the following Turkish telegraph lines ran north from Baghdad.

(i) To Mosul and Diarbekr (for Constantinople) *via* Bāqūbeh, Kufri, Kirkuk, Altun Köprü, Erbil, Mosul, Zakho, Jezīret-ibn-'Omar, Midiat, Mardīn.

[From Diarbekr the line is continued to Kharput and Sivas, and thence across Anatolia *via* Angora.]

(ii) To Khanikin *via* Bāqūbeh, Shahroban, and Qizil Ribat.

[From Khanikin the line was continued across the Persian frontier to Kirmanshah and Tehran.]

(iii) To Samarra *via* Kazimain and Beled.

(iv) To Aleppo by the Euphrates valley *via* Fellūjeh, Hīt, Ānah, Deir ez-Zor, Meskeneh.

(*b*) There is now a telegraph line from Aleppo to Nisibin following the Baghdad Railway.

Before the war Nisibin had telegraphic communication with Mardīn on the Mosul—Diarbekr line.

(*c*) From Aleppo to Diarbekr there is a telegraph line *via* Birijik, Urfeh, and Severek.

(*d*) Besides the Baghdad—Khanikin line mentioned above there were before the war the following telegraph lines in the direction of the Persian frontier :

(i) Kirkuk (on the Baghdad—Mosul line)—Suleimāniyeh *via* Chemchemal. From Suleimāniyeh there were lines to Shehr Bazar and Gulambar respectively.

(ii) Erbil (on the Baghdad—Mosul line)[1]—Qal'ah Dizeh (Hamīdiyeh) *via* Köi Sanjak.

(iii) Erbil—Rayat *via* Rowanduz.

(*e*) Diarbekr—Van *via* Farqīn, Zokh, Sairt, and Bitlis[2] (with branches from Zokh to Hazro and Kulp, and from Vostan, on the southern shore of Lake Van, to Shattakh).

Van[3]—Serai *via* Archag.

Van—Bāsh Qal'ah.

Bāsh Qal'ah—Julāmerk.

Bāsh Qal'ah—Dīzeh and Neri (Shemsdinan).

Bāsh Qal'ah—Dilman (for Urmia or Tabrīz).

[1] From Erbil, besides the lines towards the Persian frontier, there is a line to Makhmūr on the western side of the Qara Chok Dāgh.

[2] Bitlis is connected through Mush with Erzingan and Erzerum.

[3] There is also a line from Van to Bayazid *via* Archag and Bergri. From Bergri a line runs along the northern shore of Lake Van to Akhlat and thence to Alashgird and Mush.

VOCABULARIES

ARABIC, PERSIAN, TURKISH, ARMENIAN, KURDISH, SYRIAC

Note on Pronunciation

Consonants.

' = a slight stop, as in the middle of the compound word *sea-eagle*

' = a sound formed deep in the throat to be learnt by oral example

dh	like *th* in *this*
gh	a guttural *r*
ḥ	a strong aspirate
kh	like *ch* in *loch*
q	a guttural, or emphatic, *k*
r	to be distinctly trilled
ṣ	emphatic *s*
ṭ	emphatic *t*
th	as in *thing*
ch	as in *chat*
ẓ	emphatic *z*
zh	like the *s* in *pleasure*

Other consonants pronounced as in English.

Vowels.

a	pronounced as *a* in *about*
ā	as in *far*
e	as in *get*
e (Turkish)	as *e* in *father*
é (Turkish)	as in *met*
é (Syriac)	as *a* in *gate*
ē (Arabic)	as *ey* in *obey*
	as in *hit*
	as *ee* in *seen*
o	as in *got*
ō (Arabic)	as in *hope*

ö	pronounced	as *u* in *fun*
u		as in *pull*
ū		as *oo* in *pool*
ü		as *u* in French *tu*

Diphthongs.

ai	pronounced	as *i* in *mind*
au (aw)		as *ou* in *out*
oi		as *oi* in *oil*

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
able, to be	qadar, yaqdir	tawānistan	bilmék
I can	aqdir	mī-tawānam	bilirim, qādir im
about (approximately)	naḥu (of numbers), taqrīban	taqrīban, kam-wa-pīsh	ashāghi-yuqāri
about (around)	ḥawl	pīrāman-e	étrafinda, étrafda
(concerning)	min jehet	dar khusús-e	da'ir
above	fōq	bar bālā-yi, bālā-yi	yuqāri-da
abroad	börra (barra)	dar khārij	dishāri-da
abuse (*v.*)	ḥaqqar, yuḥaqqir	fuḥsh dādan, deh *or* la'n kardan, kun	süymék
accept	qabal, yaqbal	qabúl kerdan	qabūl étmék
accident	muṣībah	ittifáq, āriza (event); āsīb (calamity)	tésaduf, qazā
accidentally	bi-taṣāduf	sahvan	qazā-rā, qazā olaraq
accompany, I accompany	rāfaq, yurāfīq urāfīq	hamrāh raftan, hamrāh mī-ravam	réfāqat étmék, bérābér gélio-rim
according to	ḥasab	ber hasb-e	göré
account (*n.*)	ḥisāb	hisáb	hisab
on account of	min sebeb	barāye, khātir-e	-den dolayi
accurate (of calculation)	mudaqqaq	sahīh, bi-sabab-e (calculation)	tam, doghru
across	'abr	ān taraf	-den (of motion); öté tarafda (of rest)
action (in war)	'arkah	jang	ghavghā, muhārébé

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
able, to be	garogh, garoghanal	kārin	l-mṣayā
I can	garogh yem	az dkārim, az shém	ībī, mṣin
about (approximately)	shourch, mod	nézīk	taqrīban
about (around)	shourch, polordig	chārrakh (*declin.*), ledāor	erzībānī
(concerning)	ngadmamp, vra	bamaṣlaḥati..., b'īshé...	būt
above	verev, i ver	sar, lasar	l-'él
abroad	ardasahman	walāté gharīb	l-athra khenna
abuse (*v.*)	thshnamanel, nakhadel	lauma kir	mṣū'éré
accept	untounil	gabūl kirin	mqābil
accident	argadz	'āriz, muṣībah	gidshā
accidentally	badahmamp	bakhalat	b-ghelṭa
accompany,	ungeranal,	gal chōin	īzāla 'emm
I accompany	yes g'ungeranam	azé galwī dchém	bzālī 'emm
according to	hamemad, ust	bi-mūjib, ḥasb, ākh binū	
account (*n.*)	hashiv, hamar	hsaib, zhmārtin, hezhmār	khishbūnā
on account of	ust hashvin *or* hashvoyn	sababé, lebar,	būt khatir d-
accurate (of calculation)	jisht	dirist, mazbūṭ	khātirjam
across	meg-tién-miuse (*lit.* 'from one side to the other')	'ubūr, lavé ṭarafé	lōgībā
action (in war)	baderazmil, baderazmagan kordzoghoutiun	sharr, jang	plāsha

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
Administration	idārah	idāra	idāré, hukumét
admiral	amīr el-baḥr	daryā-begi, amīr-i-baḥr	amirāl. qapudān pasha
Admiralty	Nadhārat el-baḥrīyah	wazārat-i-baḥrīyeh	Bahrīyé qapusu
adrift	ṭāyif	rū-yi-āb	suyun aqintisi-ilé
advance (of money)	ʻarabūn	pīsh-qist, pīsh-akī, or salaf	peshin, testimat
advanced guard	muqaddamat el-ʻaskar	muqaddame-yi-lashkar	pīshdār
aeroplane	ṭaiyārah (*pl.* ṭaiyārāt)	ṭaiyāreh	taiyāré
afloat	ṭāyif	bālā-yi-āb	yüziyor
aft	mu'akhkhar es-safīnah		qich
after	baʻd	baʻd az	-soñra (*suffix*)
afternoon	baʻd edh-dhuhr	baʻd-az-zuhr	ikindi
again	marrah thāniyah	du bāra	bir daha, tekrār
age (of persons)	ʻamr	sinn	yash
agent	wakīl	āmil	vékīl
ahead of	guddām	pīsh, jilau	iléri-da, ün-da
alive	ḥai (*plur.* aḥyā)	zindeh	sāgh, hayatda
all	kull	hameh, jamīʻ	hép
allowed, to be	jāz, yajūz	rukhṣat yāftan, yāb	braqilmaq
ally	ḥalīf (*pl.* ḥulafā)	muttaḥid, muḥālif	muttafiq
almost	taqrīban	taqrīban	az qaldi, héman-héman
alone	waḥdi, waḥdek, &c.	tanhā	yaliniz
alongside	bi-jānib (by side of), ila jānib (to side of)	pahlū	yanina, yaninda, borda bordaya

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
Administration	varchoutiun	siāsa, idāra	hüqma
admiral	dzovagal	saré baḥré	résha d-yāma
Admiralty	Dzovayin nakhararoutiun		
adrift	herratsial, alevar	sar avé chōin	ṭeplé resh māyā
advance (of money)	gankhav-tramdal	garz kirin, bdain dā	qā khishbūnā
advanced guard	arrachakount	péshé ʻaskaré	qamayūtha d-ʻaskar
aeroplane	otabarig	ṭaiyāra	taiyārah
afloat	aledzoup, dzpoun	sar avé	resh māyā
aft	hedguys navi	pé gamiya	kharāya d-gamiya
after	hedo	pāshé	bāthar
afternoon	hedinq, irignatem	pāshé nīvro	bāthar palga d-yauma
again	norén	jārak di, dīsa	midré
age (of persons)	dariq	ʻumr, sinn	shiné
agent	kordzagal	wakīl	vakil
ahead	arrcheven	péshīn	qamāya
alive	gentani, voghch	sākha	bé-khāyé
all	amen, polor	hamma	kull
allowed, to be	tuyladrvil	izin haya	kbāré
aliy	tashnagits, zinagits	hāvāl	khaura
almost	krete	taqrīban	taqrīban
alone	minag	bténé	be-l-ḥōdhé
alongside	unt yergaynoutiamp	nézīké	b-qōrba

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
already	qad (*followed by verb*)	qabl az īn	shimdi bilé, zātan
although	wa law, ma'a ann	agarcheh	eyerché
altogether	sūwa (in a body)	tamāman, bi-jumlagī	bitün bitün
always	dā'iman, kullish (entirely), kull waqt	hamīsheh	dā'imā, hér zémān
ambush (*n.*)	kamīn	kamīn	pusu, kemin
ammunition	dhakhīrah	zakhīre-yi-jang	jébhāné
ammunition-wagon	'arabat edh-dhakhīrah	'arābe-yi-jubbekhāneh	jébhāné-'arabasi
amuse	wennes, yu-wennis	safā dādan, *or* khush kardan	eiléndirmék (*trans.*)
anchor (*n.*)	angar, marsa	langar	démir
anchor (*v.*) (*intrans.*)	debb angar, yadibb angar	langar andākh-tan	démir atmaq
and	wa	u *or* wa	ve
angry	za'lān, ghadh-bān	khishmnāk	darghin
animal	ḥaiwān	haivān (*properly* haya-vān)	haivān
ankle	ka'b (*dual* ka'bēn)	qūzaq	topuq
answer (*v.*)	jāwab, yujāwib	jawāb dādan, deh	jevāb vérmék
anvil	sindān	sindān	urs
anybody	aḥad	har kas	(bir) kimsé
anywhere	fi ai makān, wēnma	har jā bāshad	hér nérédé
apple	tuffāḥah (*pl.* tuffāḥ)	sīb	elma
appoint	'ayyan, yu'ayyin	ta'yīn kardan, kun	ta'yīn étmék
approach (*v.*)	taqarrab ila, yataqarrab ila	nazdīk āma-dan, āi	yanashmaq
apricot	mishmish	zardālū	qaisi

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
already	arten		
although	theyev, thebed yev	walāu	shūd, āpen
altogether	miasin, untamenn	bḥammī	b-tamamūtha
always	mishd	har waqt	dāīm
ambush (*n.*)	tarnamoud	kamīn	būṣā
ammunition	rrazmamterq	jaubakhāna	jaubakhāna
ammunition-wagon	rrazmamterqi garrq		
amuse	zpostsnel	ṣafā kirin, khu-ash būyī	magkhik
anchor (*n.*)	khariskh	marsa, langar	marsa
anchor (*v.*) (*intrans.*)	khariskh tzkel	langar avitin	dāre langār
and	yev	wa	wa, ū
angry	pargatsadz	sīl	ḥmīṣa, krība
animal	gentani	ḥaiwān, dahba	héwān
ankle	hot (vodits)	qulpāī	ka'ba
answer (*v.*)	badaskhanel	jawāb dā	mjūweblé
anvil	sal	sindān	sindāna
anybody	vo-yeve-megu	harkas	kül nāshā
anywhere	our yev itsé	har 'ardé	kull dūka
apple	khntzor	sév	khābūshā
appoint	nshanagel	ta'yīn kéryā	mātiw
approach	modenal	nézīk hāt	qrūlé
apricot	dziran	mizhmizh	mishmīsha

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
April	Nīsān	Nīsān	Nīsān
Arab	'Arabī (*pl.* 'Arab)	'Arabī, Tāzī	'Arab
Arabia	Bilād el-'Arab	'Arabistān	'Arabistān
arm (*n.*)	kitf, dhrā'	bāzū (upper); sā'id (lower)	qōl
armed	musallaḥ	musallaḥ	silāhli
armour	dira'	zireh	zirh
arms(weapons)	asliḥah	asliḥeh	silāh
army	jēsh (*pl.* juyūsh)	lashkar	ordu, 'askér
army corps	firqah (*pl.* firaq)	urdū	qol ordū
around	ḥawl	atrāf-e	étrafda
arrange	retteb, yurettib	tartīb dādan, deh *or* ārāstan, ārā	qararlashdirmaq, tértīb étmék
arrest (*v.*)	qabadh 'ala; waggaf, yuwaggif	tauqīf kardan, kun	tutmaq, habs étmék
arrive	waṣal, yoṣal	rasīdan, ras	vārmaq, gélmék
arsenal	tereskhānah	qūr-khāna	topkhāné, térsāné
artillery	madāfi' (cannon), tōbchīa (gunners)	tūp-khāneh	tōplar
ashes	ramād	khākistar	kül
ashore	'ala'l-barr, bil-gā'	bar zamīn	qaraya, qarada
ask	se'el, yes'al	pursīdan,purs	sormaq
I ask	ana es'al	mī-pursam	sorarim
thou askest	inta tes'al	mī-pursī	sorarsin
he asks	hūa yes'al	mī-pursad	sorar
we ask	iḥna nes'al	mī-pursīm	sorariz
you ask	intu tes'alūn	mī-pursīd	sorarsiniz

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
April	April	Nīsān	Nīsān
Arab	Arab	ʻArab	ʻArabāya
Arabia	Arabia	ʻArabistān	ʻArabistān
arm (*n.*)	tev	bāsk	draʻa
armed	zinvadz	bchak	b-chakké
armour	zrah	zir	dirʻ
arms	zenq	chak	chakké
army	zorq	ʻaskar	ʻaskar
army corps	zorakound	ordū	ordū
around	polordig	chārrakh (*declin.*), ledāor	erzībānī
arrange	garkatrel	paikāt kerī	mṭukeslé
arrest (*v.*)	pantargel	guert	erélé, dāwiq
arrive	hasnel	gahesht	mṭélé
arsenal	zinaran, tntanotaran	jabakhāna	jabākhānā
artillery	thntanotq	ṭōp-khāna	ṭōp
ashes	ajiun, mokhir	khollī	qeṭma
ashore	i tsamaq	sar ʻard	resh arʻa
ask	hartsnel,	peṣiār ker	mbuqéré
I ask	yes g'hartsnem	peṣiār kerim	mbaqren
thou askest	tou g'hartsnes	ta peṣiār kerī	mbaqret
he asks	an g'hartsne	au peṣiār ker	kimbāqer
we ask	menq g'hartsnenq	ma peṣiār kerin	mbaqrōkh
you ask	touq g'hartsneq	hūn peṣiār kerin	mbaqrūtū

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
they ask	hum yes'alūn	mī-pursand	sorarlar
I shall ask	ana es'al	khāham pursīd	sorajaghm
I asked	se'elt	pursīdam	sordum
asleep	nāyim	khāb	uyumush, uyquda
ass	ḥamār (*pl.* ḥamīr)	khar, ulāgh	éshék, mérkéb
astern	li-wara	'aqab, dar pai	arqasina, ardinda
at	'ala, bi, fī	nazd, dar	-a, -da (*suffix*)
at least	aqallan	aqallan	olmazsa
at most	el-akther, el-aghlab	muntahāsh	én nihāyét, olsa olsa
at once	hessā, bis-sā'ah	ḥālā, fauran	birdén biré
attack (*n.*)	hujūm	hujūm	hujūm
attack (*v.*)	hejem 'ala, yihjam 'ala	hujūm kardan, kun	hūjūm étmék
August	Āb	Āb, Murdād	Aghostos
Austria	Nimsā	Namseh	Némsé
Austrian	Nimsāwi	Namsāwī	Avstriali, Némséli
authority	ḥukm	iqtidār	hukm
autumn	kharīf	khizān	son bahār
avenge	intaqam, yantaqim *or* akhadh eth-thār, yā'khudh eth-thār	intiqām kashīdan, kash	intiqām étmék
average (*n.*)	mu'addal	bar-āvard-e mutavassit	orta, avarya
aviator	ṭayyār	havā-paimā	tayaréji
awake (*adj.*)	yaqdhān, gā'id, ḥāsis	bīdār	uyaniq
axe	fā's (*pl.* fu'ūs)	tabar	balta

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
they ask	anonq g'hartsnen	awān peṣiār kerin	kimbaqrī
I shall ask	yes bidi hartsnem	azé peṣiār kim	bedmbaqren
I asked	yes hartsri	ma peṣiār ker	mbūqéri
asleep	qouni mech, qnatsogh	khafti	dmīkha
ass	esh, avanag	kar	ḥmāra
astern	i hedoust navi, navi yedeven	la pāshé	b-kharayūtha
at	(*not in use separately*)	é (*as termination*)	bi-
at least	keth, arr nvazn	bkémāhīé	b-qalīlūtha
at most	arr arravel	bgalakiyé	b-kabīrūtha
at once	isguyn	ḥālan	ḥālan, ālbā'āl
attack (*n.*)	hartzagoumn	palāmard	hujūm
attack (*v.*)	hartsagil	hujūm ker	hjimlé
August	Okostos	Ṭabbākh	Ṭabbakh
Austria	Avstria	Ṅamsa	Ṅamsa
Austrian	Avstriatsi	Namsī	Namsāya
authority	ishkhanoutiun, arzhanabadvoutiun	pāya, jāh, qadr	mārūtā, huqma
autumn	Ashoun	paḥīz	chérī
avenge		tōl ṣtandin	shqillé ṭōl
average (*n.*)	michin	takhmīn, taqrīb	qudra
aviator	Trchogh ('flier')	ṭaiyārchī, ferrānchī	nashaparūkhā, ṭaiyārchī
awake (*adj.*)	artoun	hishshār	mrīsha
axe	gatsin	taver	nara

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
axle	miḥwar	miḥwar	mīl
backwards	ila wara	taraf-e aqab, *or* rū bi-pas	géri
bacon	laḥm khanzīr	gūsht-e khūk (pork), gūsht-e-khūk-e dūd dāda, gūsht-e khūk-e bi-namak parvorda	domuz éti
bad	mū zēn, kharāb, radī	bad	fenā
baggage	aghrādh, grādh	asbāb-i-safar	éshyā
bake	khabaz, yakhbiz	pukhtan, paz *or* biryān kardan, kun	furunda pishirmék
bale (*n.*)	fardah (*pl.* fardāt)	basteh, bār	bālya
ballast	thuql māl el-markab	pārsang	safra, kum
bandage (*n.*)	rabāṭ	ʻiṣābeh	sārghi
bank (of river)	jurf, ṣōb	kināreh	sū kénāri, irmaq kénāri
bar (sand)	shelhah	pushta-ye rīg dar dahana-ye rūdkhāna	sighliq
barber	muzēyyin	dallāk	bérbér
barley	shaʻīr	jau	arpa
barometer	mīzān hawa	mīzān-i-hawā	havā-térazisi, barometro
barracks	qishlah	qishleh, sarbāz-khāneh	qishla
barrel (of a gun)	umbūb	lūle-yi-tufang	tuféng démiri
barricade	maḥajar	sangar	métrīs
basket	sellah (*pl.* salāl), zembīl (*pl.* zanābīl)	sapad, zambīl	sépéd, zenbīl
baths	ḥammām	ḥammām	hammām

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
axle	arrantsq	mihvar	qāra
backwards	tebi-yed	pishpāshi, pishtapisht	l-bārū
bacon	khozi aboukht	goshté-barāz	bisrā mlīkha d-khzūrā
bad	kesh, vad	pīs, nachāk	bīsha, la randa
baggage	ireghen, kuyq	tisht, kerpāl	kherrūmerré
bake	khorovel	pézhin	īpélé
bale (*n.*)	balia, apranqi berrn	bār	ṭéna, farda
ballast	navakhij	pārsé gamiyé	ṣabūrta d-markwa
bandage (*n.*)	patet, gab, patatan	péchik	rībāṭa
bank (of river)	kedap	ṭerefé āvé	siptha d-yāma, siptha de-shaṭṭa
bar (sand)	tzogh, arkelq ('sand' = avaz)	khīz, barzakh	qümsāl
barber	saprich	barbar, muzaiyin, sartirāsh	dalāg
barley	kari	jah	ṣāré
barometer	dzanrachap, otatsuyts		
barracks	zoranots	qishla	qishla
barrel (of a gun)	klan (hratsani)	lūlāé tufaka	lwishta detfakta
barricade	badnesh	chapar	chapara
basket	goghov	selā, sebed	qarṭāla
baths	baghniq	ḥammām	ḥammām

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
battalion	ṭābūr	ṭābūr	tābūr
battery	baṭarīyah	baṭarīyeh	tābiyé (fortress); batāriya (movable)
battle	muḥārabah	jang	muhārébé
battleship	markab ḥarbī, manwār	jahāz- (*or* kashtī) i-jangī	harb séfīnési
bay	khalīj	khalīj	körféz
bayonet	sengi, ḥarbah	sar-naizeh	süngü
beach	sāḥil	sāḥil, kināreh	yali kénāri, déniz kénāri
beacon	fanār, manārah	nishān-i-ātashī	fanār
beans	fūl	lūbiyā, bāqilā	baqla, fassulya
bear (*n.*)	dibb	khirs	ayi
beard	liḥyah	rīsh	saqāl
bearer(porter)	ḥammāl	qāsid, hāmil	hammal
bearing (*naut.*)	jihah		jihét
beat (*v.*)	dharab, yadhrib	kūtak zadan, zan	vurmaq
beautiful	ḥulu, jamīl	khushnumā, khūb	güzél
because	min sebeb, li-ana	zīrā, chirā ki	zīrā, chünki
bed	firāsh	takht-i-khāb	yatāq
bedroom	gubbat en-nōm	ūtāq-i-khāb	yatāq odasi
bedstead	charpāyah	takht-e khāb	kérévét
bee	zambūr	zambūr-e asal	ari
beef	laḥm baqar	gūsht-i-gāu	ōküz éti, sighir éti
beer	bīrah	āb-i-jau	arpa suyu, bīra
beet	shawandar	chughundar	panjar
before (time)	gabl	qabl az	-dan évvél (*suffix*)

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
battalion	vasht	ṭābūr	ṭābūr
battery	bātaria, sharq thntanotits		desta d-tōp
battle	baderazm	sharr	sharré
battleship	rrazmanav, mardanav	gamiyé sharré	markwa d-sharré
bay	khorsh, dzots	khalīj	khalīj
bayonet	svin	khīstah	ḥarbah, khishta
beach	dzovap	ṭerafé shaṭṭé	siptha d-shaṭṭa
beacon	hranshan, gragi nshan	nishāné āgiré	nīshan d-nūra
beans	fasoulia, lobi	bāqillé	lōbia, bāqillé
bear (*n.*)	arrch,	herch, khurs	dibbā
beard	morouq	rīh	diqna
bearer(porter)	grogh, danogh (mshag)	ḥāmil, helgirān, birinān	lāblānā, hamāl
bearing	goghm, tirq, untatsq navi		
beat (*v.*)	zarnel, dzedzel	lédā	mkhélé
beautiful	siroun, keghetsig	sherīn, dalāl	randā, shapīra
because	vorovhedev	lebar, bō	min sabab
bed	angoghin	nivīn, dōshak	shwītha
bedroom	nnjaran, nnjaseniag	manzālé nevistiné	ōda di-dmākha
bedstead	mahdjagal, angoghin, mahidjk; karyola (Turkish)	takht	qārāwat
bee	meghou	heng, maishāhingīv	dabāshā
beef	yezan mis	gōshté gāh	bisra d-taura
beer	karechour		bīra
beet	pazoug	shawandār	shawandāré
before (time)	arraoh	péshīn	qam

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
before (place)	guddām	qabl az	önündé (*suffix*)
begin	ibteda, yebtedī	āghāz kardan, kun *or* shurū' kardan, kun	bashlamaq
behind	wara	pusht, pai	ard, arqa
believe	i'taqad, ya'taqid	bāvar kardan, kun	inanmaq
bell	jurs (*pl.* jurūs)	zang	chang (large), chingharaq (small)
below	jōa, taḥt	zīr	alt, altinda
bench (sofa)	takhat	nīmkat	sédir
bend (*v.*)	'awwaj, yu'awwij	kham kardan, kun	eyrimék
berth	firāsh	jā-yi-khāb	yatāq
beside	yem, bi-jānib	pahlū-ye	yaninda
besiege	ḥāṣar, yuḥāṣir	muḥāṣareh kardan, kun	muhāséré étmék, qushatmaq
betray	khān, yakhūn	khiyānat kardan, kun	kheyánét étmék
better; best	aḥsan; el-aḥsan	behtar; behtarīn	daha éyi; én éyi, én a'la
between	bēn	mā bain, dar miyān	ara-sinda
beyond	ghādī	ān ṭaraf-i-..., warā-yi...	üte-sinda
big	kabīr (*pl.* kibār)	buzurg	büyük
bigger; biggest	akbar; el-akbar	buzurgtar; buzurgtarīn	dahā büyük; én büyük
bill (account)	ḥisāb	ḥisāb	hisāb
billet (*trans.*)	nezzel 'askar	jā dādan, deh	oturtmaq
binoculars	darbīn	dūr-bīn	dūrbīn

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
before (place)	arrach, arrchev	labar	qam
begin	usgsel	dastpékir	mdūshinné, mshāre
behind	edev	pāsh, lapīsht	bkharāyūtha
believe	havadal	bāwar kir	mhūmenné
bell	zankag	chang, jinjil	zīgā
below	tsadz, nerqev	bin	iltékh, khō-thed
bench (sofa)	nsdaran	kursi dirézh, pakā	takhtā
bend (*v.*)	theqel, dzrrel	chamīn	tiplé
berth	nav-angoghin		qamarah
beside	patsi, izad	nézīk	l-gība d-
besiege	basharel	ḥaṣār kir	mḥūṣéré
betray	madnel	kheyānat kir	khinné, msāpī
better; best	aveli lav, lavokuyn, amenalav	chéter khwash-tir, qanjtir, chaktir	bish ṭau, *or* bush spayi
between	michev	bén, nāv	bén, bīl
beyond	antin	idī ṭeraf	lau bāla khenna
big	medz	mazin	rāba
bigger; biggest	aveli medz, medzakuyn, amenamedz	mazintir, galak mazin	bish rāba; ka-bīra rāba
bill (account)	hashiv	ḥisāb, zhmār-tin	ḥisāb, khish-būnā
billet (*trans.*)	deghavorel		
binoculars	herratitag (*lit.* telescope); yergachia achotsq (*lit.* two-eyed glasses)	dorbīn	dūrbīn

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
bird	ṭēr (*pl.* ṭuyūr)	murgh	qūsh
bit (of horse)	lijām	dahaneh, lijām	gém
bit (piece)	waṣlah	pāreh	pārcha
bitter	murr	talkh	aji
bitumen	gīr	naft	qara saqiz, yér sakizi
black	aswad	siyāh	qara, siyāh
blacksmith	ḥaddād	āhangar	démirji, na'al-band
blame (*v.*)	lām, yalūm	malāmat kardan, kun	qabāhat bulmaq, zémm étmék
blanket	liḥāf	liḥāf, gilīm	yorghan (quilt)
bleed (*intrans.*)	ṭala' dem, yitla' dem	khūn jārī shudan, shau	qanamaq
blind	a'ma (*pl.* 'amyān)	kūr	kör
blockade (*n.*)	ḥiṣār	muḥāṣareh	abloqa, qushatma
blood	dem	khūn	qān
blow (*v.*)	habb, yahibb	nafkh kardan, kun *or* damīdan, dam	ésmék
blow (*n.*)	dharbah	zarb, zakhm	wurush
blue	azraq	ābī, lājiward	māvi
blunt	a'ma (blind)	kund	kör
boat	bellam (like gondola); mashūf (reed canoe)	zauraq, kashtī	sandal, qayiq
body (living)	jised (*pl.* ajsād)	tan	bédén, vujūd
body (mass of people)	jamā'ah	jam'īyat	jém'iyét
boil (*trans.*)	aghla, yughli *or* fawwar, yufawwir	jūsh dādan, deh	qaīnatmaq
boil (*intrans.*)	ghala, yaghli *or* fār, yafūr	jūshīdan, jūsh	qaīnamaq

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
bird	trrchoun	ṭairek, bāldār	ṭaira
bit (of horse)	santz	lijām, hafsār	leghéma
bit (piece)	badarr, pegor	pechak, parcha	parcha
bitter	tarrn, leghi	taḥl, tāl	marīra
bitumen	goubr	zift, qīr	khīmār
black	sev	rash	kōma
blacksmith	tarpin, yergatakordz	āsengar, ḥadād	ḥaddāda, dāmūrchī
blame (*v.*)	barsavel	razīl kir	mrūzellé lā'im
blanket	vermag	laḥéf, jājīm	khlépā
bleed (*intrans.*)	ariunel	khūn dā	mujrélé dimma
blind	guyr	kōr	simyā, kōra
blockade (*n.*)	basharoumn	ḥiṣār	muḥāṣarah
blood	ariun	khūn	dimma
blow (*v.*)	harvadzel, zarnel	werzīn	mkhélé paukha
blow (*n.*)	harvadz, zarg	sil	laṣṣa
blue	gabuyd	shīn, kau	mīlāna, zarqa
blunt	koul, pout	kōp	kōpa
boat	navag	gamī, belem	gamīyah
body	marmin	lash	paghra
body (mass of people)	khoump, zhoghov	jamā'at	jāmā'at
boil (*trans.*)	yerratsnel (water); khashel (egg)	kalāndī	murthekhlé
boil (*intrans.*)	yerral	kul bi	rthekhlé

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
boiled rice	timmen maṭbūkh	chilāu	pishmish pirinj, pilaf
boiler	fawwārah, kazān	dīg-i-buzurg	qazan
bomb (*n.*)	qanbalah	bomb, qumbara	qumbara
bombard	dharab ṭōp, yadrab ṭōp	bi-tūp bastan	topa tutmaq
bond (legal)	sened	qabz, tamassuk	tahvil
bone	ʻadhm (*pl.* aʻdhām)	ustukhān	kémik
book	kitāb (*pl.* kutub)	kitāb, nāmeh	kitāb
boot	lapjīnah (*pl.* lapjīn); jazmah (native)	kafsh	chizmé, qundura (shoe); pabūj (slipper)
boot-lace	sharīt (el-qandarah)	kafsh-band	qundura qordélasi
both (you)	ithnēnekum	har-du	ikiniz
bottle	shīshah (*pl.* shīyash)	shīsheh	shīshé
bottom	esfel, qaʻr	teh	dib
bow (of ship)	ṣadr el-markab	muqaddame-yi-kashtī	géminin bashi
bowels	maṣārīn	rūdeh	baghirsaq
box	ṣandūq (*pl.* ṣanādīq)	ṣandūq	sanduq, qutu
boy	walad (*pl.* awlād)	pisar	oghlan, chojuq
brackish	māliḥ	shūr	tuzlu
bran	nakhālah	sabūs	kepek
brave	shajjāʻ, jāsūr	shujāʻ, dilāwar	yigit, jesūr
brazier	manqalah	manghal	manghal
bread	khubz	nān	ékmék
breadth	ʻardh	pahnāyī	enlilik
break	kesar, yiksar	shikastan, shikan	qirmaq

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
boiled rice	khashadz printz, plaf	pirinjé kalandī, pilāu	rizza mbūshla
boiler	san, gatsa	qāzān	destītha
bomb (*n.*)	rroump, kndag	qumbarā	qūmbārā
bombard	rrmpagodzel	la-tōp dādin	dārī tōp
bond (legal)	mourhag, arzhetought	band, ʻalāqa	iltīzām
bone	vosgor	hastī, isqān	garma
book	kirq	ktaib, daftar	kthāwa
boot	goshig	jazma, kaōsh	pōtīné, jazma
boot-lace	goshigi thel	rīsé ḳundarah	gdhādha d-qundaré
both (you)	yergouqt al	har-dūān, hardūka	terwé
bottle	shish	shūsh	shūsha
bottom	hadag	bin	shitta
bow (of ship)	arrachagoghm navi	péshīné gamiyé	qamayūtha d-markwa
bowels	aghiq	millāk, rīkhlu	millāké
box	doup, sndoug	sandūq	ṣandūqa
boy	manch	kurr	brōna, yālā
brackish	aghi	nakhwash	malūkha
bran	tep	sāvis, sar-bézhing	
brave	qaj, gdrij	dildār, juwāmér	mar jūrʻitta
brazier	gragaran	manqal, pall	manqal, gūmré
bread	hats	nān	likhma
breadth	laynoutiun	pānī, paḥnī	petiūthā
break	godrel	shikast, shikīān	twéré

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
breakfast	fuṭūr, chai eṣ-ṣubḥ	chai-i-ṣubḥ	qahvalti
breech (of gun)	madhkhar et-tufkeh	teh	top quyrughu, top qichi
breeze	hawa	nasīm, bād	rüzgyār, yél
bribe (*n.*)	rashwah, bakhshīsh	rishva	rishvét, bakhshish
brick (burnt)	ṭābūqah	ājūr	tūla
brick (unburnt)	liben	khisht	kérpich
bridge	jisr (*pl.* jusūr)	jisr, pul	köprü
bridge (of ship)	jisr el-markab	pul-i-jahāz	
bridle (*v.*)	aljam, yuljim	lijām kardan, kun	gém vurmaq
brigade	liwā	fauj	liwā
bright	lāmi', mudhī	raushan	parlaq
bring	jāb, yajīb	āvurdan, ār	gétirmék
broad	'arīdh	pahn, 'arīz	génish
broadside	'urdh	shallīk	alabanda
broken	mukassar, munkasir	shikasteh	qiriq
broker	dallāl	dallāl	dellāl
brother	akh (*pl.* ikhwān)	birādar	qardash
brown	esmar	gandumī	qahvé réngi, ésmér
brush (*n.*)	furshah	furcheh	furcha
bucket	bāldī	saṭl, dūl	qogha
buffalo	jāmūs	gāvmīsh	manda, jamūs
bug	baqq	sās, malleh	takhta-bit

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
breakfast	nakhajash	taisht, fiṭrah	fṭarta, ṭumtā
breech (of gun)	hednadzag hratsani, pampousht tnelou dzag	jihé phīshaka	dūktha d-fīshakké
breeze	zepiurr	bā	pōkha
bribe (*n.*)	gasharq	balṣa, rushwa	rishwāt
brick (burnt)	aghius (thrtzadz) gghmindr	karpīch	lūné kerpīch
brick (unburnt)	aghius (houm)	karpīch, hājūr	lūné
bridge	gamourch	küpri, jisr	gishra
bridge (of ship)	nava-gamourch, gamrchag	jisré gamiyé	gishra d-markwa
bridle (*v.*)	santzel	disgīn, laghāu	leghéma
brigade	kound, zora-kound	firqah	firqah
bright	zvarth	ruhnā, rūzhin	mabehrāna
bring	perel	īnān	muthélé
broad	layn	pān, pehn	pethyā
broadside	goghm navi ousti thnta-notq g'ar-tsagvin	pāniyé	
broken	godradz	shekast	twīra
broker	michnort	jambāz, jumāz	dalāl
brother	yeghpayr, aghpar	brā	akhōna
brown	thoukh	rengitāri, esmar	asmar
brush (*n.*)	khozanag, frcha, vrdzin	furchah	furchah
bucket	duyl, chri tuyl	dōl, ṣatlōk	daula
buffalo	komesh	gāmīsh	gamésha
bug	paytochil	ishpish	bāqa

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
bugle	būrī	shaifūr	boru
build	bena, yibnī	binā kardan, kun *or* 'amārat kardan, kun	yapmaq, binā étmék, qurmaq
bull	thōr (*pl.* thīrān)	nar gau	bogha
bullet	raṣāṣah (*pl.* raṣāṣ)	gulūleh	qurshun
bullock	thōr mukhṣī	nar-gāu	üküz
buoy	shamandarah	langar-gīr	shamandra
Bureau-de-Change	Dukkān eṣ-ṣarrāf	Dukkān-i-ṣarrāf	Sarrāf dukyāni
burn (*trans.*)	aḥraq, yuḥriq	sūkhtan, sūz	yaqmaq
burn (*intrans.*)	ishta'al, yashta'il; iḥtaraq, yaḥtariq	sūkhtan, sūz	yanmaq
bury	defen, yidfun	dafn kardan, kun	gömék, défn étmék
bush	'ulēq, 'agūl	bīsheh	chāli
busy	mashghūl	mashghūl	méshghūl
but	lākin	lākin	ammā, lākin, faqat
butt (of rifle)	qandāgh, cha'b	qundāq, tahre qundāq	qondaq
butter	zibed	kareh	saï-yaghi, téré yaghi
button (*n.*)	dugmah (*pl.* dugam)	dukmeh	duymé
buy	ishtara, yashtarī	kharīdan, khar	satin almaq
by (near)	qarīb min, 'and	nazdīk, pahlūi	yaninda, yaqinda
cabin	qamārah	qamāreh	qamara
cable	silk (*pl.* sulūk)	ṭanāf, ḥabl	qablo, khalāt, zinjir (chain)
cake	kēk	kulīcheh	chörék, qorabiyé
calf	'ijl (*pl.* 'ujūl)	gū sāleh	dana
call (summon)	da'a, yad'ū	ṣadā kardan, kun	chaghirmaq

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
bugle	shepor	būrī	būrī, bōqa
build	shinel, garroutsand	chai kir	bnélé
bull	tsoul, yez	gāh, gānair	taura
bullet	kndag	gulla	gunbulta, gulla
bullock	yerinch	gāhé khaṣī	taura khiṣya
buoy	kharskhanish		
Bureau-de-Change	Loumayapokh, saraf	ṣarrāf	ṣarrāfa
burn (*trans.*)	ayrel	shawéṭandī	mūqidhlé
burn (*intrans.*)	ayril	shaweṭī, sūtī	īqedhlé
bury	thaghel	washartin	qwéré
bush	matsarr	dārek, belek	sīa'a
busy	uspaghvadz	bshūla	blīgā
but	payts	ammā	illa, īnā
butt (of rifle)	hratsanapoun	qundākh	'iqwā d-tōpang
butter	garak	rūn, karā	karā
button (*n.*)	gojag	dūgma, pūlak	dügmā
buy	knel	kirrī	zwinné
by (near)	mod, gov	nézīk	b-qurba
cabin	navaseniag	qamarah	qamarah
cable	herrakratel, baran	warīs, zenjīr	khaula
cake	katha	kāda, kulaicha	kullaiché
calf	horth	gōlik, jūnagāh	sharkha
call (summon)	ganchel	khwastin	qrélé

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
call (cry out)	ṣāḥ, yaṣīḥ	faryād kardan, kun	baghirmaq
calm (*n.*)	hudu	ārām	limanliq
calm (no wind)	sawāli	ārām	limanliq
calm (*adj.*)	hādi	ārām	limanliq
camel	jemel	shutur	dévé
camel-driver	jammāl	shutur-bān	dévéji
camel (riding)	hajīn, dhelūl	shutur-i-sawārī	binéjék dévé
camp (*n.*)	mu'askar, mukhaiyam	lashkargāh	chādir yéri
can—			
I can	ana aqdir	mī-tawānam	bilirim
thou canst	inta taqdir	mī-tawānī	bilirsin
he can	hūa yaqdir	mī-tawānad	bilir
we can	iḥna naqdir	mī-tawānīm	biliriz
you can	intu taqdirūn	mī-tawānīd	bilirsiniz
they can	hum yaqdirūn	mī-tawānand	bilirler
I cannot	mā aqdir	namī-tawānam	qadir déyil im
can you ?	hal taqdirūn	mī-tawānīd ?	bilir misiniz ?
canst thou ?	hal taqdir	mī-tawānī ?	bilir misin ?
canal	tur'ah, nahr	jū, nahr	qanāl
candle	shema' (*pl.* shumū')	shama'	mūm
cannon (*n.*)	ṭōp (*pl.* aṭwāf), medfa' (*pl.* madāfi')	tūp	top
cannon-ball	gullah (*pl.* gulel)	gulūla-ye tūp	obuz
canopy	dhalāl	sāyabān	sāyébān

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
call (cry out)	korral, kochel	dang kir	m'ūyiṭlé
calm (*n.*)	meghmoutiun	huduw, bédan-gāhi	nīkhūtha
calm (no wind)	khaghagh, hantard	rāḥat, bé-bā, sukūn	shelyā
calm (*adj.*)	meghm	hādi, bédang	nīkha
camel	oughd	héshter	gūmla
camel-driver	oughdaban	héshtervān	jammāl
camel (riding)	nsdelou oughd	héshterswār	rkūlé l-gūmla
camp (*n.*)	panag, zora-panag	ūrdī	ma'askar
can—	garogh		
I can	yes garogh yem	az tshém, kārim	ībī, māṣin (*or* mṣin)
thou canst	tou garogh yes	tū tshé, kāri	ībokh, māṣet
he can	an garogh e	au tshét, tkāret	ībé, māṣī
we can	menq garogh yenq	am tshén, tkārin	īban, māṣakh
you can	touq garogh eq	hūn tshén, tkārin	ībaukhū, māṣītūn
they can	anonq garogh yen	wān tshén, tkārin	ībai, māṣī
I cannot	yes ch'em garogh	az nashshim, nekārim	laibī, lé māṣin
can you ?	garogh eq artiog ?	hūn tshén ? tkārin ?	gallo ībaukhū, māṣītun
canst thou ?	ch'es garogh artioq ?	tu tshé ? tkāri ?	gallo ībokh, māṣet
canal	chrantsq	kanāl	néhra
candle	mom, jrak	mūm, shemāl	sham'ah
cannon (*n.*)	thntanot	tōp	tōp gūrā
cannon-ball	kntag	gullaé-tōp	gūla d-tōp
canopy	ambhovani	séwān, nām-ūsiya	makastā

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
canter (*v.*)	hadhab, yahdhib	yurgheh raftan, rau	rahvān gitmék
canvas	jimfās	kirbās	yélkén bézi, yélkén
cap	ṭarbūsh; kap (European)	kulāh	fés, kaskét; shapqa (European)
capable	muqtedir	qābil	qādir, muktédir
cape (promontory)	rā's	ra's	burun
capstan	dūlāb el-ḥabl	charkh-i-langar	bojorghat, ürgāt
captain (of ship)	qabṭān *or* ra'īs el-markab	nā-khudā, ra'īs	re'īs, gémi suwārisi, qapudān
(of native craft)	nokhadha		
captain (military)	yūzbāshī	yūzbāshī	yūzbāshi
captive	asīr (*pl.* usarā)	asīr	esīr
capture (men)	esser, yu'essir	asīr giriftan, gīr	esīr almaq
capture (place)	qabadh 'ala, yaqbidh 'ala	giriftan, gīr	feth étmék
capture (seize, *v.*)	mesek, yimsak	giriftan	tutmaq
caravan	karwān	kārawān, qāfileh	kyārvān
care (you take care!)	dīr bālak	multafit bāsh, *or* hazar kun	diqqat ét, saqin
careful	mutaqayyid	bā-ḥazar	diqqatli, gyuzu achiq
cargo	ḥiml	ḥaml	hamulé, yük
carpenter	najjār	najjār	doghramaji, marangos
carpet	zūlīa, bisāṭ	qālī, farsh	kilīm, hāli
carry	ḥamal, yaḥmil *or* shāl, yashīl	ḥaml kardan, kun *or* naql kardan, kun	tashimaq, götürmék, naql étmék
cart	'arabah	'arabeh	'araba, yük 'araba-si

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
canter (*v.*)	salasmpakel	chārlāp chō, bāz chō	mūṭrélé
canvas	arrakasd		
cap	klkharg, kdag	klō, kōpīn	kūsītha
capable	garogh, jardar	qādir, zīrak	qābīl, ziraq
cape (promontory)	saravand, hrwandan	saré chīāé	résha
capstan	anvord	dūlābé warīsé	dūlāba d-khaula
captain (of ship)	navabed	qapṭān, saré gamīyé	qapṭān
captain (military)	hariurabed	yūzbāshī	yūzbāshī
captive	keri	girtī	éria, ḥbīsa
capture (men)	prrnel, keri prrnel	girt	erélé, dāwiq
capture (place)	kravel	zabt kir, ṣṭand	shqillé
capture (seize, *v.*)	kravel, prrnel	girtin, rahishtin	dāwiq
caravan	garavan	kārwān	karwan
care (you take care !)	ezkoysh yeghir	hishār ba, bālak	hāwit heshar
careful	zkoushavor	hishshār, āgāh	faṭīn
cargo	navaperr	bār	ṭéna
carpenter	hiusn, adaghtsakortz	najār, dārtāsh	nagāra, najār
carpet	kork, carpet	berzīn, fersh	maḥfūrta
carry	danel, grel	bir, hal girt	lābil
cart	sayl, garrq	ʻarabayé bāré	ʻaraba d-ṭéna

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
cartridge	fishgah (*pl.* fisheg)	fishang	fishénk
cart-track	sikkat el-'arabah	rāh-i-'arabī-yeh	'araba yolu
cash	nuqūd	naqd	naqd
castle	qaṣr (*pl.* quṣūr)	burj, qal'ah	qal'é
cat	bazzūnah	gurbeh	kédi
catch	mesek, yimsak	giriftan, gīr	tutmaq, yaqa-lamaq
cattle	mawāshī	ḥaiwānāt	bahāim, hai-wānlar
cavalry	khail, sawā-rīyah	suwāreh	suwāri
cave	mughārah	ghār	maghāra
ceiling	sagf	saqf	tavan
cellar	sirdāb (*pl.* sa-rādīb)	sardāb	makhzén, qilar
cement	kils, chemento	sārūj	chimento
cemetery	maqbarah	qabristān	mézarliq, qa-bristān
centre	markaz (of circle and government)	markaz	mérkéz (gov-ernmental), orta, vésat (of circle)
certainly	ma'lūm, belli	albatteh	élbétté, shübhésiz
chain	zanjīl,	zinjīr	zinjir
chair	skumli, kursi	sandalī, kursī	sandaliyé
change (ex-change, *v.*)	beddel, yubed-dil; ṣarraf (of money)	taghyīr dādan	bozmaq (of money)
change (*n.*)	qusūr (of money)	khurda, pūl-e khurda (of money)	ufaq para (of money)
channel	mejrā	bāghāz, tang-i-daryā	mejrā, yataq, boghaz

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
cartridge	pampousht	fishak	fishakka
cart-track	sayli jampa	rīā 'arabāna	ūrkha d-'araba
cash	badrast ardzat, badrast tram, badrast esdag	drāf, pāra	zūze
castle	amrots, tghiag	qala, kushk	qaṣra
cat	gadou	ketek, psuk	qaṭūtha
catch	prrnel	girt	erélé, dāwiq
cattle	anasoun	dawār, sawāt	ḥaiwāné
cavalry	hedzelazorq	suwār	rakāwé
cave	ayr, qarayr	mughāra, kalwaz	guppītha
ceiling	arrastagh	sarbān, bān	shkūrī
cellar	marran, ngough	zāgha, sardāp	sardāpa
cement	shaghakh	géj	kelsha
cemetery	kerezmanadoun	guristāṅ, ziārat	bét qorāwāti
centre	getron	nāvraz, markaz	markaz bé-pelga
certainly	anshoushd	haré, di	ma'lum
chain	shghta	zinjīr	shishīlta
chair	athorr	kursī, chwārpé	kursī
change (exchange, *v.*)	pokhel	gohirrin, bzhārdin, badal kirin	mshaklip
change (*n.*)	manrouq sdag, pokh (of money)	khurda, wurdapāra (of money)	zūzī khwārā (of money)
channel	chouri neghouts, pos, chrantszq		shaqīta

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
charcoal	faḥm ḥaṭab	zughāl	kyumur
chart	kharīṭah	kharīṭeh, jadwal	kharīta
cheap	rakhīṣ	arzān	ujūz
cheek	khadd (*pl.* khudūd)	rukh	yanaq
cheerful	bashshūsh, masrūr	khush-ḥāl, masrūr	gülér yüzlü, khoshnud
cheese	jiben	panīr	pénir
chemist	ejzāchī	davā-sāz	éjzaji
chicken	dujājah (*pl.* dujāj)	jūjeh	pilij
chief (*n.*)	ra'īs, shaikh, mūkhtār	khān	re'īs, bash
children	awlād, aṭfāl	bachagān, aṭfāl	evlād, chojūqlar
chin	dhuqan	zanakhdān	chené
chisel	minqār	ishkaneh	qalém
choose	ikhtār, yakhtār	guzīdan, guzīn *or* intikhāb kardan, kun	séchmék
Christ	('Īsa) el-Masīḥ	Masīh	el Méssih
christian	mesīḥī; nasrānī (less polite)	īsavī, masīhī	khristian; giaur (not polite)
Christmas	'Īd el-mīlād	'Īd-i-mīlād	Mīlād-i-'Īsa yortusu
church	kanīsah	kilīsā	kilīsé
cigarette	jigārah	sīgār, sīgārcha	sigara
circle	dāyirah	dā'ireh	dā'iré
city	wilāyah, medīnah, beled	shahr	shéhir
civil (non-military)	ehelī	mudunī	ghairi askéri

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
charcoal	adzoukh	pell, zikhāl	kōmūr
chart	navaqardez, qardez		kharīṭah
cheap	azhan	arzān	arzānī
cheek	ayd	gūp, chūr	lāma, pāthā
cheerful	ourakh	shād	pṣīkha
cheese	banir	pénīr	gūpta
chemist	teghakordz, teghavadjar	azāchi, darmān-firōsh	dermānchī
chicken	varrieg	chūchik	farkha, kthaītha
chief (*n.*)	bed	sar, māqūl	résha
children	yerekhayq	zārū bechūk, mīnal	yālé zōré
chin	dznot	chin, zinj	daqintha
chisel	krich (qantagoghats), qandagich kortziq	askana	mabrad
choose	undrel	bzhārain, hal chinin	mgūbélé
Christ	Qristos	ʻĪsa	mshīkha
christian	qrisdonia	naṣrāni, fillah	nāsrāyā
Christmas	Dznount		Biyaldé
church	yegeghetsi, zham	dér	ʻéta
cigarette	klanig, sigaret	sigāra	chigārā
circle	shrchan, shrchanag	gér, hāwīr	dāirah, hūdhra
city	qaghaq	shahr, balad, bāzhar	mdītā
civil (non-military)	qaghaqagan, qaghaqayin	mulkī, ahli-qalam	lā qōshūnayā

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
claim (*n.*)	da'wā (*pl.* da'āwī)	da'vā, *or* īddi'ā	da'va
clan	qabīlah (*pl.* qabā'il) *or* 'ashīrah (*pl.* 'ashā'ir)	qabīleh	qabīlé, 'ashīrét
clean (*adj.*)	nadhīf	pāk	témiz
clean (*v.*)	nadhdhaf yunadhdhif	pāk kardan, kun *or* tanzīf kardan, kun	témizlémék
clear (pure, bright)	ṣāfi; wādhiḥ (evident); fārigh, beli mawāni (of road)	ṣāf	achiq
clerk	kātib	munchī, nuvīsanda	kyātib, yaziji
cliff	jurf (*pl.* jurfān)	partgāh	uchurum, qaya
clock	sā'ah	sā'at	sā'at
close (*v.*)	ghallaq, yughalliq (of door); sedd, yasidd (close up)	bastan, band	qapamaq
closet (water)	edebkhānah	khalā	memshā, abdest khāné
clothes	hudūm	libās	élbisé, ruba
cloud	ghēmah (*pl.* ghēm)	abr	bulut
coal	faḥm ḥajarī	zughāl-i-sangī	kümür
coast	sāḥil (*pl.* sawāḥil)	sāḥil	déniz kénāri, sāhil
coat	sitrah (Turkish)	nīmtana (jacket); kulaja (frock-coat)	sétri
coffee	gahwah	qahweh	qahvé
cold (in head)	zukām	zukām, sarmā	nézlé

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
claim (*n.*)	bahanch	da'wah, talab	maṭlab
clan	dohm, tṣegh	ōjākh, khīl	'ashīra
clean (*adj.*)	maqour	pāqij, pāk	naḍīfa
clean (*v.*)	maqrel	pāqij kir	mundiflé
clear	hstag, barz	zalāl, ruhnāk	ṣepya
clerk	krakir	kātib, niwisinda	kātāwā
cliff	kahavand, zhayrrap	kandāl	kandāla
clock	zhamatsuyts	sā'at	sā'ah
close (*v.*)	pagel	bestin	érélé, skéré
closet (water)	ardaqnots		ābīdast
clothes	hantertz, hakoustner, ezkestner	jull, libās	jūli
cloud	amb	aur	aiwa
coal	adzoukh	faḥm, kemūr	shekhōré
coast	dzovezr, dzovap	kénār	rakhkha d-māyā
coat	verargou	jubbah, sāko, qafṭān	güdda
coffee	sourj, kafe	qahwa	qahwā
cold (in head)	harpoukh	sarmā	shauba, zukām

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
cold (in chest)	su'āl	surfeh	nézlé-i-sadriyé
cold (temperature)	bard	sarmā	soghūq
cold (*adj.*)	bārid	sard	soghūq
collar	yākhah	fukul, yākheh	yaqaliq, yaqa
collect	jama', yijma'	jam' kardan, kun	toplamaq
collision	muṣādamah	taṣādum	musādémé, chārpishma
colonel	mīrālai	sartīp	qāim-maqām (lieut.-col.); mīrālai (full col.)
colour	lōn (*pl.* alwān)	rang	rénk
colours (flag)	bēraq	bairaq	bairaq, sanjaq, 'além
colt	muhr	kurreh	tāi
comb (*n.*)	mishṭ	shāna	taraq
come	jā, yajī	āmadan, āi	gélmék
come (*imper.*)	ta'āl	biyā	gél
comfortable	mustarīḥ (of person); murīḥ (of thing)	rāḥat	rāḥat
command (*n.*)	amr (*pl.* awāmir)	farmān	émr, buyūruldu
commander	qamandān	sardār	qōmandān
commerce	tijārah	tijārat	alish-vérish, tijārét
commission	mā'mūrīyet	ma'mūrīyat	me'mūriyét
commodore	ra'īs uṣṭūl	daryā-begī	filo suvārisi, qumidor
communication	muwāṣalah	muwāṣaleh	mukhābéré
companion	rafīj *or* rafīq (*pl.* rufaqā)	rafīq, hamrāh	arqadash

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
cold (in chest)	gourdzqi tsourd, mrsadz (gourdzqen)		
cold (temperature)	tsourd	sār	qarīrūtha
cold (*adj.*)	bagh, sarrn	sār, zukum	qarīra
collar	otziq	milwānka, yākha	yākhah
collect	havaqel	pin khestin, gilir kir	mjūmé'lé
collision	untharoum	muṣādama	mkhāya lekh-dhādhé
colonel	kndabed	mīralāi	mīralāi
colour	kuyn	rang	gauna
colours (flag)	trosh	sanjaq	bairaq
colt	mdrouk	juwānī, kurrah	mūhirtha
comb (*n.*)	sandr	shānik	mesreqta
come	kal	hāt	īthélé
come (*imper.*)	yegour (*sing.*), yegeq (*pl.*)	warā	tā, tēmun (*pl.*)
comfortable	hankist	rāḥat, hisā	rāḥitta
command (*n.*)	hraman	amr	pugdāna
commander	hramanadar	qōmandān	qomandān
commerce	arrevdour	tujāret, ālish-véresh	bāzerganūtha
commission	badver, hants-nararoutiun	sepārish	waẓifā
commodore	navi hrama-nadar		
communica-tion	haghortag-tsoutiun	mukhābara	mukhābarah
companion	ungeragits	hāval, dōst	khaura

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
company (assembly)	jamā'ah	gurūh	taqīm
company (military)	bulūk	dasteh	bülük
compass	qiblanāma	qibleh numā	pussla
N.	shamāl	shamāl	shémāl, yildiz
NE.	shamāl sharqī	shamāl-i-sharqī	shémāl-i-sharqi
E.	sharq	mashriq	sharq, gün doghusu
SE.	janūb sharqī	janūb-i-sharqī	jénūb-i-sharq, késhishlémé
S.	janūb	janūb	jénūb, qibla
SW.	janūb gharbī	janūb-i-gharbī	jénūb-i-gharb
W.	gharb	maghrib	gharb, gün batisi
NW.	shamāl gharbī	shamāl-i-gharbī	shémāl-i-gharb, qara yél
compensation	ta'wīdh	talāfī, ujrat	tazmīnāt
complain	ishteka, yashtekī	shikāyat kardan, kun *or* nālīdan, nāl	shikyāyét étmék
condemn	ḥakam, yaḥkam (of judge)	mujrim kardan	jesasina hukm étmék
condition (state)	ḥāl (*pl.* aḥwāl)	ḥālat	hāl
condition (stipulation)	sharṭ (*pl.* shurūṭ)	sharṭ	shart
confess	qarr, yaqurr *or* i'taraf, ya'tarif	i'tirāf kardan, kun	i'tirāf étmék, iqrār étmék
confidence	thiqqah	i'timād	émniyét
confirm	ḥaqqaq, yuḥaqqiq	iqrār, nuqarrar kardan	tasdiq étmék
confiscate	dhabaṭ, yadhbaṭ	zabt kardan	musādara étmék

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
company (assembly)	hasaragoutiun	jamā'at	jamā'ah
company (military)	koumardag (250 zinvor)	bulūk	dastā
compass	goghmatsuyts		qibbanāmā
N.	hiusis	shimāl	garbya
NE.	hiusis-arevelq		
E.	arevelq	tāvhalsān	saq yōma, madenkha
SE.	haraf-arevelq		
S.	haraf	ṭarafé qiblaté	taimna
SW.	haraf-arev-moudq		
W.	arevmoudq	rūjāvāī, gharb	mā'erwā
NW.	hiusis-arev-moudq		
compensation	pokharinou-tiun, vnasu hadoutsanel	jerm	āwāz
complain	kankadil	gili *or* shikāt kir, gāzin kir	mūshkélé
condemn	tadabardel	ḥukm kirin	āwēd gūnākār
condition (state)	vijag	ḥāl, aḥwāl	ḥāl, aḥwāl
condition (stipulation)	bayman	sharṭ	sharṭ
confess	khostovanil	iqrār kir	mūdélé
confidence	vsdahoutiun	īmān, dilhisāi, īmād	ītībār
confirm	hastadel, sdoukel	isbāt kirin	muqwī
confiscate	kravel, prni arrnel	ghaṣib kirin, zabiṭ kirin	shāqil

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
confusion	qalabāligh (turmoil); ikhtilāṭ; ʻademtībte	tashnīsh (of things); bī-nazmī (of persons)	qarishiqliq, qalabaluq
congratulations	tahnīyah (*sing.*)	tahniyat	tébrik
conquer	intaṣar, yantaṣir	ghālib shudan	maghlūb étmék
(a city)	fetaḥ, yiftaḥ	giriftan, fath kardan	féth étmék
consent (*n.*)	ridhā	qabūl kardan, rāzī shudan	rizā
consequence	natījah	natīja	nétijé
Constantinople	Istāmbūl	Istāmbūl	Istambol
consul	qunṣal (*pl.* qunāṣil)	qonsul	qonsolos
consulate	qunṣalkhānah	qonsul-khāna	qonsoloskhāné
consultation	mashāwarah	mashvarat	mushāvéré
content	rādhī	qāni‘	rāzi, khoshnud
contraband (*adj.*)	mamnū‘	qachaq, mamnū‘	qachaq
contract (*n.*)	muqāwalah	qabāla (commercial)	mukāvélé, bazarliq
convenient	muwāfiq	muwāfiq	münāsib
conversation	ḥaki, ḥachi	mukālama, suhbot	sohbét, laf
convoy (*n.*)	khafar	badraqah	qonboy, qoruma
cook (*n.*)	ʻāschī	āsh-paz	āshji
cook (*v.*)	ṭabakh, yaṭbakh	pukhtan, paz	pishirmék
cool	bārid	khunuk	serīn
copy (*n.*)	niskhah (*pl.* nisakh)	nuskheh	nuskha, sūrét

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
confusion	kharnagoutiun, shpotoutiun	parīshānī, bé-hishāriānī	shghüshyā
congratulations	shnorhavoroutiun, 'achqi loys'	tahānī	mbārakhīaté
conquer	haghtel	ghalabah kirin, ber kirin	ghālib
(a city)	direl qaghaqs, nvadjel	fatiḥ kirin, ṣṭandin	mzābit
consent (*n.*)	havanoutiun, hamatzaynoutiun	qabūl, rizā	razīūthā
consequence	hedevanq, hedevoutiun	natīja	plāṭā
Constantinople	Constantnupolis *or* Bolis	Isṭambūl	Istambūl
consul	hiubados	bāliōs, qonsilōs	qünsūl
consulate	hiubadosaran	qonsilkhāna, bālioskhāna	qünsūlkhānā
consultation	khorhrtagtsoutiun	mashwara	maslāhat
content	koh	rāzī, kādin	pṣīkha, rāzi
contraband	maqsakhuys	qachāgh	muḥerma, qachāgh
contract (*n.*)	hagabadger, hagarag	muqāwala, sanad	qābāl
convenient	harmar	munāsib	munāsib
conversation	khosagtsoutiun	akhāftin, khabardān	mhamzemtā
convoy (*n.*)	bahag, hedevort	himāyat, ghafārat	mḥamōyé
cook (*n.*)	khoharar	āshchī	mbashlāna
cook (*v.*)	yepel	kalāndī, āsh kir	mbūshellé
cool	zov	sār, jamid	qarīra
copy (*n.*)	orinag, padjen	naskha	naskha

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
copy (*v.*)	nesekh, yensakh	istinsākh kardan, kun	sūrét chékmék, istinsākh étmék (writing)
cord	khaiṭ, sūtlī	rīsmān	ip, iplik
cork (*n.*)	sidādah (stopper), fillīn (substance)	sar-shīsheh	tapa (in bottle), mantār (substance)
corkscrew	burghī	pīsh-e butrī	burghu
corn (cereals)	ḥubūb	gandum	boghdāi
corporal	ōnbāshi	wakīl	ōn-bāshi
cost (*n.*)	qīmah	qīmat	pahā, fi'at
cotton	guṭn	pambeh	pambūq
council	mejlis	majlis	méjliss
count (*v.*)	ḥasab, yaḥsub	shumurdan, shumār	sāimaq
country	bilād, memlekah	mamlakat	mémlékét, watan
courageous	shajjā'	dilīr	yiyit, mutéjassir
course (direction)	jihah, ṭarf	jihat	géminin yolu (ship's)
court-martial	dīwān ḥarb	dīvān-i-ḥarb	dīvān-i-harb
cover (*v.*)	ghaṭṭa, yughaṭṭī	pūshīdan, pūsh	örtmék
cover, take	ḥaṣṣan, yuḥaṣṣin	panhān shudan, shau	sipér ālmaq, gizlénmék
cow	baqarah, hāshah	gāu	inék
cowardly (*adj.*)	jabbān	tarsū	qorqāq
creek	khalīj	murdāb	qōi, boghaz
crescent	hilāl	hilāl	hilāl
crew	mallāḥah	ahl-i-jihāz	gémi tā'ifési
crooked	a'waj	kaj	éyri
crops	ḥāṣil, maḥṣūlāt	maḥṣūlāt	mahsūlāt
cross (*v.*)	'abar, ya'bar	ubūr namūdan	géchmék

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
copy (*v.*)	orinagel	shekil *or* nasekh kir	nsekhlé, kthūlé
cord	baran, lar	warīs, rīs, bāng	khaula
cork (*n.*)	khtsan, mantarr	sar-shūsha	pūkra
corkscrew	khtsahan	burghī, garr	
corn (cereals)	tsoren	ganim, dakhl	dakhla, khetṭé
corporal	dasnabed, yenthaspah	onbāshī	ōnbāshī
cost (*n.*)	kin, arzheq	qīmat, bahā	ṭīmā
cotton	pambag	pāmbuk, lūka	ktāna
council	zhoghov, adian	mijlis, anjumān	mejliss
count (*v.*)	hashvel	zhmārtin	mnélé
country	kavarr	walāt	athra
courageous	gdrij	dīldār	mar libba
course	untatsq	jihat	jihah
court-martial	baderazmagan adian		
cover (*v.*)	dzadzgel, pagel	pushānd, ghaṭā kir	mkūsélé
cover, take	badsbaril, bashdbanvil	washārtin, hashār kir	mṭūshélé
cow	gov, cov	chél, māngū	tawerta
cowardly (*adj.*)	yergchod, vad	tersūk	zadōā
creek	khorsh, poqr navahankisd		
crescent	mahig	māh-nū, hilāl	istrā
crew	navasti, navaz		
crooked	gor, dzourr	kiwān, kezh, lār	plīma
crops	hountzq	haṣād	khsāda
cross (*v.*)	irar hantibil, timatse antsnil	darbāz buin	ʻāwir

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
crowd (*n.*)	qalabālikh, jamā'ah	izdiḥām	qalabaluq, jem'iyét
cruel	qāsi, ṣārim	bī-raḥm, zālim	zālim, ghaddār
cruise (*n.*)	safar	daryā-gardī	dolashmaq
cruiser	ṭarrād, manwār		kruasör
cultivation	zirā'ah, falāḥah	ābādānī	zirā'at
cup	finjān, piyālah	piyāleh, jām	kyássé, finjān
cure (*n.*)	shifā	ilāj	shifa
current (*n.*)	jarayān	sail	aqinti
curtain	pardah	parda	pérdé
custom-house	gumruk	gumruk	gümrük
cut (*v.*)	gaṣṣ, yaguṣṣ; qaṭa', yaqṭa'	burīdan	késsmék
dagger	khanjar (*pl.* khanājir)	qama	khanjér
daily (*adj.*)	yōmī	har-rūzeh	hér günki
daily (*adv.*)	yōmīyan		hér gün
dam (*n.*)	sudd	sadd	sédd, bénd
damage	khisārah	zarar, ziyān	zarar
damp (*adj.*)	murṭib	namnāk	némli
dangerous	mukhṭir	khaṭarnāk	téhlikéli, qōr-qūlū
dark	mudhlim	tārīk	qaranliq
darkness	dhulmah	tārīkī	qaranliq
date (time)	tārīkh	tārīkh	tārīkh
date (fruit)	tamrah (*pl.* tamr)	khurmā	khurma
daughter	bint (*pl.* banāt)	dukhtar	qiz, kérimé
dawn	fijr	bāmdād	shafaq
day	yōm (*pl.* aiyām)	rūz	gün
day (opposite to night)	nahār	rūz	gündüz

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
crowd (*n.*)	ampokh, khouzhan	qalabālikh	qalabālikh jamā'āli
cruel	ankout	zālim	qeshya
cruise (*n.*)	navayin bduyd, hadzoumn navi i dzovou	safar	safar
cruiser	hadzavorag		
cultivation	mshagoutiun	chāndiné, jutyārīyé	zarra'ūtha
cup	pazhag	finjān, piyāla	finjān, qatkha
cure (*n.*)	tegh	ilāj, chāra	mbāsimtā
current	hosanq, hortsanq	rīā-āvé, sail	sail
curtain	varakoyr	parda	perdā
custom-house	maqsadoun	gumruk	gūmruk
cut (*v.*)	gdrel, pazhnel	birrin	qāṭé
dagger	tashoyn	khanjar, kérik	khanjār
daily (*adj.*)	oragan, amenoria	har-rōj	
daily (*adv.*)			kul yōm
dam	thoump	sadda, bend	sikra
damage	vnas, gorousd	zyīān, zerar	khisārah
damp	khonav	tarr, shil	talīla, raṭīwa
dangerous	vdankavor	khaṭardar, bdarak	mar darak, māri zelūtā
dark	mouth	tār, dārk	kheshka
darkness	khavar, mtoutiun	tārī	khūyā
date (time)	tvagan	zamān, wakht	tārikh
date (fruit)	armav	khurma	khūrmā
daughter	toustr,aghchig	kich	brāta
dawn	arshaloys	spédā, spédarōzh	zrāqtā d-yōmā
day	or	rōj	yōmā
day (opposite to night)	tsoreg	rōzh	yōmā

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
dead	mēyyit	murdeh	ülü, ülmish
deaf	aṭrash	karr	sāghir
dear (person)	'azīz, maḥbūb	'azīz	'azīz
dear (price)	ghālī	girān	pahali
death	maut	marg	ülüm
deceive	ghashsh, yaghishsh	firīftan, firīb *or* gūl zadan, zan	aldatmaq, hilé-étmék
December	Kānūn el-awwal	Dai, Kānūn-i-auwal	Kyānūn-i-évvél
deck	saṭḥ	ṣafḥa-yi-kashtī	göverté
declaration (of war)	i'lān el-ḥarb	i'lān-i-jang	i'lān-i-harb
decree (*n.*)	amr, irādah	farmān	irādé
deep	'amīq	'amīq	dérin
deer	ghazāl	āhū	géyik
defeat (*n.*)	inkisār, hazīmah	shikast khurdan	inhizām
defeat (*v.*)	kasar, yaksur; ghalab 'ala	shikast dādan, deh	inhizām étmék
defend	dāfa', yudāfi'	difā' kardan, kun *or* ḥimāyat kardan, kun	muhāfaza étmék, qorimaq
deficiency	'adam kifāyah, nuqṣān	kamī	noqsān
dense	thakhīn, mushtabik	ghalīz, mushtabik	siq
depreciation (of troops, guns, &c.)	khalal, nuqṣān	nuqṣān	khalal
describe	waṣaf, yoṣaf	bayān kardan, kun *or* waṣf kardan, kun	ta'rīf étmék, anlatmaq
desert (*n.*)	chōl, barr	biyābān	yabān
desert (*v.*)	terek, yitruk	guzāshtan, guzār	braqmaq, térk étmék
deserter	hārib min el-'askarīyah	gurīkhteh	qachaq

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
dead	merradz, merrial	mīrīā	mītha
deaf	khoul	karr	karra
dear (person)	sireli	ʻazīz	ʻazīza
dear (price)	sough, thank	girān	agran
death	mah	merin	mōta
deceive	khapel	gharrānd, khalaṭānd	muṭʻélé
December	Tegtemper	Kānūné auwal	Kānun qamāya
deck	tstigon-navi		
declaration (of war)	haidararel (baderazm)		
decree (*n.*)	vdjir, hramman	farmān, irāda	qānūnā
deep	khor	chāl, kūr	ʻamīqa
deer	aydziam, eghjerou	ghazāl, āsik	ghazāla
defeat (*n.*)	bardoutiun	shkastiné, bezāndiné	twāra
defeat (*v.*)	haghtel	shkast, bezāndin	twéré
defend	bashdbanel	khūdān kir	mḥūmélé
deficiency	theroutiun, bagasoutiun	kémāhī, nuqṣān	nuqsānūtha
dense	khit, thantzr	ghalīz, girān	yaqūra
depreciation (of troops, guns, &c.)	vadtharatsoumn (zorats, thntanothits)		
describe	nkarakrel	waṣf kir	mtūnélé
desert (*n.*)	anabad	barī, chōl	barīya
desert (*v.*)	tasalig linel, pakhchil	bar dān	shweqlé
deserter	tasaliq	qachāgh	qachāgh

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
desk	mektebah	mīz-e tahrīr	chékméjé
despatch (*n.*)	risālah	risāleh, murāsaleh	tahrīrat
destroy	kharrab, yukharrib *or* dammar, yudammir	talaf kardan, kun	mahv étmék, bozmaq
detain	ʿaṭṭal, yuʿaṭṭil	nigāh dāshtan, bāz dāshtan	aliqomaq
determination	jazm, qarār (decision); iṣrār, taṣmīm (firmness)	taṣmīm	qarār (decision); iqdam (firmness)
devil	shētān (*pl.* shēyāṭīn)	iblīs	sheitān
diarrhoea	is-hāl	is-hāl	is-hāl
die	māt, yamūt	murdan, mīr	ölmék, véfāt étmék
difference	farq	farq	farq
difficult	ṣaʿab, zaḥma	mushkil	zōr, güch
dig	ḥafar, yaḥfir	kandan, kan	qazmaq
dinner	ʿasha (in evening); ghada (at noon)	shām	akhsham yéméyi
direct (*adv.*)	gūbal	mustaqīman	doghru
dirty	wasikh	chirk	pīs, kirli
disappear	ghāb, yaghīb	gum shudan, shau *or* ghā'ib shudan, shau	ghā'ib olmaq
discharge (cargo, *v.*)	farragh, yufarrigh	bār andākhtan	boshaltmaq
discharge (dismiss, *v.*)	baṭṭal, yubaṭṭil	murakhkhas kardan	izin vérmék salivérmék

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
desk	kraseghan	méz, pésh-takhta	mīz d-ktōthā
despatch (*n.*)	(bashdonagan), namag	kitāb, kāghaz	kthāwa
destroy	qantel, averel	kharāb kir	mukhrūlé
detain	bahel, pandel (*lit.* 'to put in prison' or 'under arrest')	ta'ṭīl kirin, girtin	dawiq
determination	voroshoumn gamq, mdat-routium	nīyat zakhm	qaṣd matīn
devil	tev, sadana	shaitān	déwā
diarrhoea	tanchq, por-loudsanq	zik chōiné	īzāla d-kāsa
die	merrnil	mirīn, jān dā	mithlé
difference	darperoutiun, zanazanoutiun	farq	pūrshūnyā
difficult	tzhvar	zahmat	zahmat
dig	porel	kulān, kāndin	khpéré
dinner	jash, unthriq (evening meal)	nānishāo	ghadāya, khāramshā
direct (*adv.*)	shidag, oughigh, oughghagi (=direct to)	dirist	dūz
dirty	aghdod	pīs, chirkīn	mṭūmya
disappear	anhedanal	hindā *or* nā-diyār, bu	fetlé, ghiblé
discharge (cargo, *v.*)	barbel	bāré gamī dainānin	mpālit ṭānā
discharge (dismiss, *v.*)	artzagel, vrndel	'azil kirin, rha kirin	mpālit

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
discipline (*n.*)	nidhām	nazm, riyāzat	nizām-u-intizām
discover	keshef, yikshaf	daryāftan, daryāb	bulmaq, késhf étmék
disease	mardh	nā-khushī	khastaliq, 'illet
dishonest	khāyin, mū ṣādiq	nā-durust	khirsiz, insāfsiz
disobedient	'āṣī	sarkash, 'āṣi	itā'atsiz, dikbāsh
disperse (*trans.*)	ṭashshar, yuṭashshir	mutafarriq kardan	daghitmaq
displeased	mū rādhī	nā-rāzī	darghin
distant	ba'īd	ba'īd	uzaq
district	nāḥiyah (*pl.* nawāḥī)	nāḥiyeh	qazā, nāhiya
ditch	khandaq (*pl.* khanādiq)	khandaq	héndéq
diver	ghawwāṣ (*also* submarine)	ghauwāṣ	dalghich
divide	qassam, yuqassim	taqsīm kardan, kun	taqsīm étmék, ayirmaq
division	firqah (*pl.* firaq)	firqah	firqa
do	sawwa, yusawwī	kardan, kun	yapmaq, étmék
dock	ḥaudh el-marākīb, dok		gémi hauzi, térsāné hauzi
dockyard	mīnā li-ta'mīr es-sufun	kār-khāneh-i-kashtī-sāzī	térsāné
doctor	ḥakīm	ṭabīb, ḥakīm	hékīm
dog	kelb (*pl.* kilāb)	sag	köpék
donkey	ḥamār (*pl.* ḥamīr)	khar, ulāgh	éshék, mérkéb
door	bāb (*pl.* abwāb)	dar	qapu
doubt (*v.*)	shekk, yashikk	shakk kardan, kun	shübhé étmék

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
discipline (*n.*)	garkabahoutiun, hrahank	tarbiah, nazām	rīzā, tarbīah
discover	kdnel, yerevan hanel	dīt, kashf kir	mgūlélé
disease	hivantoutiun	nasākhī	nassakhūtha, marā
dishonest	anbargeshd	khāin, bésharm	khā'in
disobedient	anhnazand	āṣī	'āṣī
disperse (*trans.*)	daradzel, kravel	tafrīq kirin, ravāndin	mperpis
displeased	ankoh, dhadjadz	na rāzī, na qabūl	nārāzī
distant	herrou	dūr	yārīkhā
district	kavarr, shrchanag	qaza, walāt	qaza
ditch	pos	chāl, khandaq	khandāq
diver	loughag, houzag, chri dag souzogh	chō bin āvé	gheṣlé
divide	pazhanel	qismat kir, bahré da	mpūlélé
division	chogad		
do	unel, anel	kir	ewedhlé, āwed
dock	gayan navi, avazan navi		
dockyard	navaran		
doctor	pzhishg	ḥakīm	hakīm
dog	shoun	seh	kalba
donkey	esh		khmārā
door	dourr, tourr	darī, dergā	tar'a
doubt (*v.*)	gasgadzil, daragousil	shakk kir, bshubhat bū	shik

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
dragoman	tarjumān (*pl.* tarjumānīyah)	mutarjim	térjuman
draw (map, &c.)	resem, yersem	rasm kardan	résm étmék
draw (pull)	jarr, yajurr	keshīdan	chékmék
draw up (document)	resem, yersem *or* keteb, yiktab	rasm kashīdan, kash	tanzīm étmék
draw up (line of troops)	ṣaff, yaṣuff	ṣaff bastan, band	tanzīm étmék
dress (*intrans.*)	labis, yilbas	pūshīdan, pūsh	geyinmék
dress (*trans.*)	lebbes		geyindirmék
dress (a wound)	rabaṭ, yarbuṭ	marham guzāshtan, guzār	(yara) baghlamaq
drift (*v.*)	ṭafa, yaṭfū	bā sail raftan, rau	suyun aqintisilé qapilmaq
drink (*n.*)	sherbah	sharbat	ichqi
drink (*v.*)	sherib, yishrab	āshāmīdan *or* nūshīdan, nūsh	ichmék
drive (*trans.*)	sāq, yasūq	rāndan, rān	sürmék, qoshdurmaq
driver (of carriage)	ʻarabachī	sūrchī, kālaskachī	ʻarabaji
drown (*intrans.*)	gharaq, yaghraq	gharq shudan, shau	boghmaq
drown (*trans.*)	aghraq, yughriq	gharq kardan, kun	boghulmaq
drunk	sakrān (*pl.* sakārā)	mast	sérkhosh
dry (*v.*)	yebbes, yuyebbis *or* nashshaf, yunashshif	khushk kardan, kun	qurutmaq
dry (*adj.*)	yābis, nāshif	khushk	quru
duck	besh, baṭṭah	ūrdak	ördék
dust	ṭōz, ghubār	gard	tōz

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
dragoman	tarkman	tarjamān	terjmān
draw (map, &c.)	kdzel kdzakrel (gardez)	rasem kir	rshimlé
draw (pull)	kashel		
draw up (document)	horinel, krel, sharatasel (vaverakir)	niwīsin	kthūlé
draw up (line of troops)	jagadetsnel, garkel	réza kir	ewedhlé réza
dress (*intrans.*)	haknel	jilik bar kir	lweshlé
dress (*trans.*)	haktznel		
dress (a wound)	tarmanel, viragabel	darmān dā	mdurmenné
drift (*v.*)	hosanq	hāt bar āvé	mshūpélé
drink (*n.*)	khmeliq, umbeliq	sharbat	shtāya
drink (*v.*)	khmel	vakhwārin	shtélé
drive (*trans.*)	varel (a car), kshel (horse), vanel (enemy)	saḥt kir, bezāftin	sḥétlé, seqlé
driver (of carriage)	qshogh	ʻarabachī	ārābāchī
drown (*intrans.*)	heghtsnoul, kheghdvil	khanneqīn	ghreqlé
drown (*trans.*)	kheghtel	khanneqāndīn	
drunk	kinov, harpadz	sarkhwash	rāwāyā
dry (*v.*)	chortsnel	ḥishik kir	mūbeshlé, bāriz
dry (*adj.*)	chor	ḥishk	wīsha
duck	pat, bat	wūrdek, baṭek	baṭṭa
dust	poshi	toz, khōll	tōz, ʻepra

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
duty (tax)	resm (*pl.* rusūmāt)	gumruk, bāj	vérgi, résm
dynamite	dīnāmīt	dīnāmīt	dinamit
dysentery	is-hāl dem	is-hāl	is-hāl
each	kull	har	her bir
ear	udhn (*dual* udhnain)	gūsh	qulāq
early	min waqt (in good time); badrī	zūd	érkén
earth	ardh, trāb	zamīn	arz, topraq
earthen	turābi, ṭīni	khākī	topraqdan
earthwork	mitrās	khāk rīz	istihkyām
east	sharq	khāwar, sharq	sharq, gün doghusu
Easter	'Īd el-qiyāmah	'Īd-i-faṣḥ	Büyük pasqālya
eastern	sharqī	sharqī	sharqi
easy	sehl	āsān	qolaï
eat	akal, yā'kul	khurdan, khur	yémék
egg	bēdhah (*pl.* bēdh)	tukhm-i-murgh	yumurta
Egypt	Maṣr	Miṣr	Misr
Egyptian	Maṣrī	Miṣrī	Misrli
elbow	'aks	aranj	dirsék
embark (*intrans.*)	rekeb (yirkub) fi safīnah	bar kashtī suwār shudan, shau	gémiyé binmék
embarkation	rukūb	rukūb	gémiyé binméklik
empire	daulah, memlekah	mamlakat, pādshāhī	dévlét
employ (thing)	ista'mal, yasta'mil	isti'māl kardan, kun	qullanmaq

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
duty (tax)	max	bāj, gumruk	kherj
dynamite	dinamit, ouzhanag		
dysentery	thanchq	is-hāl	is-hāl
each	yiuraqanchour, ammen meg	har, har-kas (for persons)	kulkhā
ear	aganch	gūh	nātha
early	ganoukh	zū	qalūla
earth	yergir, kedin	ard, ākh (soil)	ar'ā
earthen	gavayin	zh-ākhi	min-'epra
earthwork	hoghathoump	chaparé ākhé	chapar d-'epra
east	arevelk	khawārasān, khuralāt	madenkha
Easter	Zadig		'Édha d-peṣḥa, 'Edha gūrā
eastern	arevelian	zh-ṭavhalsān	madenkhāya
easy	heshd, tiurin	hāsān, sānāhī	sanāhī
eat	oudel	khwārin	ikhellé
egg	havgith, tzou	hék, khā	bétah
Egypt	Ekiptos	Miṣr	Meṣer
Egyptian	Ekiptatsi	Miṣrī	Meṣrāya
elbow	armoug	anishk, bālamishk, bālamilka, kinārishk	qūrsültā
embark (*intrans.*)	nav mdnel	sar gamīya chō	rkūlé b-markwa
embarkation	nav mdneln		
empire	deroutiun, gaysroutiun, inqnagaloutiun	daulat, ōrkat	imprātūthā
employ (thing)	kordz adzel	istīmāl kir	mustu'millé

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
employ (men)	istakhdam, yastakhdim	tashghīl kardan, kun	ish vérmék
empty (*v.*)	farregh, yufarrigh	khālī kardan, kun	boshatmaq
empty (*adj.*)	fārigh	khālī	bosh
encamp	khayyam, yukhayyim	khaimeh zadan, zan	chādir qūrmaq
encampment (of nomads)	khiyām, mukhaiyam	chādir gāh	chādir yéri
end (*trans.*)	enha, yunhī *or* khallaṣ, yukhalliṣ	anjām dādan, deh *or* tamām kardan, kun	bitirmék
endure	taḥammal, yataḥammal	taḥammul namūdan, numā	dayanmaq
enemy	ʻadū (*pl.* ʻadwān *or* aʻdā)	dushman	düshmén
engine	makīnah	māshīn	makina
engineer	muhandis (civil or military); osta (mechanical)	muhandis	muhendis (civil); charkhji (mechanical); istihkyām alai (engineers, military)
England	Anglaterra	Inglistān	Ingilterra
Englishman	Anglēzī (*pl.* Anglēz)	Inglīsī	Ingliz
enlist (army)	keteb filʻaskarīyah	sarbāz kardan (*trans.*); sarbāz shudan (*intrans.*)	ʻaskérliyé yazilmaq
enough	kāfī, bes	bas, kāfī	yétishir, kyāfi
ensign	bēraq	bairaq	sanjaq, bairaq
entrench	tahaṣṣan, yataḥaṣṣan	sangur bastan	tabassun étmék
entrenchments	istiḥkāmāt	sangur	istihkamāt
envelope	dharf, ghalf	zarf, pākat	zarf

English.	*Armenián.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
employ (men)	vartzel	īsh dā	wellé shūla
empty (*v.*)	tadargel, barbel	khālī kir	msūpeqlé
empty (*adj.*)	tatarg, tardag	khālī, wālā	spīqa
encamp	panagel, panag tnel	vār kir	ītūlé
encampment (of nomads)	vran tneln, panagoum	zōm, vār	zōma
end (*trans.*)	avardel	khalāṣ kir	khliṣlé, timlé
endure	handourzhel, dogal	ṣabr kir, jān-hishik bu	ṣbéré
enemy	tshnami	dizhmin	dishmin
engine	meqena	mākīnah	mākīnah
engineer	meqenakordz	muhandis	muhandis
England	Anglia	Inglistān	Engilterra
Englishman	Angliatsi	Inglīzī	Inglézāya
enlist (army)	zinvorakrel, zinvorakrvil (to be enlisted)	bo 'askar girtin (*trans.*); la 'askar chōin (*intrans.*)	ktīwā sōldāt
enough	pavagan	bass	bassa, kmālé
ensign	nshan, trosh	sanjaq, bairaq	baidaq
entrench	badneshnerov amratsnel	bar khandaq chōin, bar chapar rūnishtin	dārī sangar
entrenchments	amratsoutiung	chapar, khandaq	sangārī
envelope	dzrar	zarf	zarf

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
equal (*adj.*)	musāwa	barābar	musāvi
equip	jahhaz, yujahhiz	tajhīz kardan, kun	téjhīz étmék, donatmaq (ship)
err	ghalaṭ, yaghlaṭ *or* akhṭa, yukhṭi	ghalaṭ namūdan, numā	yañish(+ *suffix*) vār, yañilmaq
escape (*v.*)	inhezem, yenhezim	rastan, rah *or* rahāi yāftan, yāb	qachmaq
escort (*n.*)	khafar, ḥāris	badraqah	qonboy
escort (*v.*)	rāfaq, ḥaras, yaḥrus	hamrāh raftan, rau	réfaqat étmé
evacuate	khalla, yukhallī *or* farregh, yufarrigh	takhliyeḥ kardan, kun	takhliyé étmék, boshatmaq
evening	mesa	shām	akhsham
every	kull	har	hér
everything	kull shē	hameh chīz	hér shei
everywhere	fi kull makān	har jā	hér yére, hér yérde
examine	faḥaṣ, yafḥaṣ (a question); imtaḥan, yamtaḥin (a candidate)	taftīsh kardan, kun	téftīsh étmék, yoqlamaq
except	illā	bi-juz az	-dan bashqa (*suffix*)
exchange (*v.*)	beddel, yubeddil	ivaz kardan	digish étmék (barter)
excuse (*v.*)	ʻadhar, yaʻdhir; ʻadhdhar (make excuses for)	maʻzūr dāshtan, dār	ʻafv étmék, ʻafv étdirmék
exercise (*n.*) (physical)	tamrīn, riyādhʻah	mashq	taʻlīm
expect	intadhar, yantadhir	muntazir būdan	meʻmul étmék

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
equal (*adj.*)	havasar, hamemad	berāmbār, wakūyak	bārābār
equip	sparrazinel, zinel		
err	moloril	khalaṭ kir	ghleṭlé
escape	pakhchil, khuys dal	khalāṣ bu, ravī	'réqlé, khliṣlé
escort (*n.*)	oughegits, hedevortq		
escort (*v.*)	oughegtsil	ḥimāyat kir	mḥūmélé
evacuate	tadargel, barbel	hélān	shwéqlé
evening	irigoun	évar, hingūr	'āserta
every	amen mi, amen meg	hammi, har	kull
everything	amen inch	hammi tesht	kull mindī
everywhere	amenoureq	har 'arda	kull dūka
examine	qnnel	faḥṣ kir, qanj dit	fḥeṣlé, mpūteshlé
except	patsi	illa, magar	illa, shwūq min
exchange (*v.*)	pokhel, pokhanagel	badal kirin	shaklip
excuse (*v.*)	nerel	hijjah, gāzin	makhlī
exercise (*n.*)	marzanq	garrāndin, tālim kir	jūrāba, isti'māl
expect	agngalel, sbasel	dipāin (*pers.*), kham kirin	sāpir

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
expense	maṣraf (*pl.* maṣārif)	kharj	kharj, masraf
explain	fesser, yufessir	ḥālī kardan, kun	anlatmaq, ta'rīf étmék
explode (*trans.*)	fajjar, yufajjir	infijār kardan, kun	patlatmaq
explode (*intrans.*)	infajar, yanfajir	tarakīdan, tarak	patlamaq
explosion	infijār	infijār	patlama
export (*v.*)	ba'ath, yib'ath	haml bi-khārij kardan	dishari göndérmék
exposed	mu'arradh	ma'rūz	ma'rūz, achiq
ewe	na'jah	mādeh mīsh	dishi-qoyūn
eye	'ain (*dual* 'ainain, *pl.* 'uyūn)	chashm	göz
extinguish	ṭaffa, yuṭaffī	khāmūsh kardan	sündürmék
face	wajh (*pl.* wujūh)	rūi, ṣūrat	yuz
faithful	amīn, ṣādiq	wafādār	sādiq, doghrū
fall (*v.*)	waga', yoga'; saqaṭ, yasquṭ (of city)	uftādan, uft	düshmék
family	'āyilah	ahl-i-khāneh	familya, év, choluqchojuqlar
famous	mashhūr	mashhūr, nāmdār	méshhūr
fanatical	muta'aṣṣib	muta'aṣṣib	muta'assib
far	ba'īd	dūr	uzaq
farm	mazra'ah	mazra'	chiftlik
farmer	fellāḥ (peasant)	ra'īyat, zirā' atkār	chiftji
farrier	na''āl	na'l-band	na'al-band, baitār (vet.)
fat (*adj.*)	samīn (*pl.* samān)	farbeh	sémiz, shishman

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
expense	dzakhq	kharj, maṣārīf	maṣrap
explain	patsatrel	tafsīr kir, hāl gōtin	mpūsheqlé
explode (*trans.*)	baytetsnel	āgir dā	mushqillé nūra
explode (*intrans.*)	baytil	āgir girt, taqāndin	shqillé nūra
explosion	baytiun		
export (*v.*)	ardadzel	la īdī dawlat henārtin	
exposed	nshavag, yenthaga(vdanki, yevaln)	pésh	qam (*prep.*), nīshan tā
ewe	maqi,vochkhar	meh	ʻerba, wāna
eye	achq	chāv	ʻaina
extinguish	marel	mirāndin, kuzhdin, tifāndin	mchānié
face	yeres	rū, damuchāv	pātha
faithful	havadarim	rāst	amīn
fall	ihnal	ketin	npillé
family	undaniq	khān	baitha
famous	hrrchagavor, anvani	mashhūr, khudān nāv	mushhūr
fanatical	molerrant	mutaʻaṣṣib	mutaʻaṣṣib
far	herrou	dūr	raḥūqa
farm	akarag	mazraʻah	zrōta
farmer	akaraga-kordz	jōtyār, rénjbar, zāriʻ	āqārādār
farrier	baydarr	naʻalband	naʻalband
fat (*adj.*)	ker, kiroug	qalāo, wīz	qshīṭa, shamīna

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
fat (*n.*)	dihn, semen		
father	ab	pidar	bābā, pédér
favour (*n.*)	fadhlah	iltifāt	kérém
fear (*v.*)	khāf, yakhāf	tarsīdan, tars	qorqmaq
feast	ʻazīmah	īd	ziyafét
February	Shubāṭ	Shubāṭ	Shubāt
feeble	dhaʻīf	zaʻīf	quvétsiz
ferry (*n.*)	maʻēber	maʻbar, guzar-gāh	géchid yéri
fertile	mukhṣib	hāsil-khīz	bérékétli
fetch	jā bi-, yajī bi-	āwurdan, ār	gétir
fever	sakhūnah	tab	sitma
few	qalīl	kam	az
field	mazraʻah	chaman	tarla
fig	tīnah (*pl.* tīn)	anjīr	injir
fight (*v.*)	taʻārak, yataʻārak; taḥārab, yataḥārab	jang kardan, kun	muhārébé étmék
fight (*n.*)	ʻarkah	jang	ghavgha, muhārébé
file (of soldiers)	ṣaff (*pl.* sufūf)	radīf, qitār	sira
fill	teres, yitras	pur kardan, kun	doldurmaq
filled	matrūs	purshuda (*or* mamlū)	dolu
filly	muhrah	mādeh kurreh	qisraq tāi
find	wajad, yojad	yāftan, yāb	bulmaq
finger	uṣbuʻ (*pl.* aṣābiʻ)	angusht	parmaq
finish (*v.*)	khallaṣ, yukhalliṣ; kemmel	tamām kardan	bitirmék

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
fat (*n.*)	djarb		
father	hayr	bāb	bābā, kakka
favour (*n.*)	shnorh, barkev	iḥsān, minnat, luṭf	shāpāqāt
fear (*v.*)	vakhnal	tersīn	zdélé
feast	don, zvardjanal, oudel khmel (i. e. 'eat and drink')	'īd, bairām (days); dāwat, ziāfat (merry)	'īdā (eccles.)
February	Pedrvar	Sibāṭ	Eshwaṭ
feeble	dgar, nihar	béwazh, kūh, zabūn	zabūn
ferry (*n.*)	navag, last	gāmī, kalak	gamiya, qāyegh
fertile	pareper, arkavant	mukhṣib, khosh-'ard	tāyānā
fetch	perel, danel	īnānd	mūthélé
fever	dent, jerm	tā	shātha
few	qich, sagav	hindik, pechak (things only)	khachā
field	tashd, dasht,	dasht, chamm	chamma, ḥaqla
fig	touz	hézhīr, hinjīr	tīnā, téné
fight (*v.*)	grrvel, baderazmel	sharr kir	éwedhlé sharré, pālish
fight (*n.*)	grriv	sharr, jang	sharré
file (of soldiers)	gark, sharq	ṣaff	zōgā d-sōldatī
fill	ltsnel	tezhi kir, purr kir	mlélé
filled	letsvadz, letsoun	tazhī	melyā
filly	mdroug (tzi)	jūānī	mūhertha
find	kdnel	dīt, paidā kir	māchiq
finger	mad	tili, amust	ṣūbéta
finish (*v.*)	gadarel, lmntsnel	khalās kirin, tamām kirin	pāriq

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
fire (*n.*)	nār	ātish	atesh
fire-place	bukhārī	bukhārī	ojaq
fire-wood	ḥaṭab	hīzam	odun
firing line	eṣ-ṣaff el-awwal	ṣaff-i-auwal	atésh safi, atésh yéri
firm	thābit, qawī	ustuwār, pāyadār, muḥkam	siqi
fish (*n.*)	semek, semech (*sing.* semcheh)	māhī	baliq
flag	bēraq (*pl.* bayāriq)	bairaq	bairaq
flat	ʻādil, musaṭṭaḥ	hamwār, musaṭṭaḥ	düz, yasi
flea	burghūth (*pl.* barāghīth)	kak	pīré
flee	harab, yahrub *or* inhezem, yenhezim	gurīkhtan, gurīz	qachmaq
fleet	uṣṭūl	jihāzāt-i-jangī	donanma
flesh	laḥm	gūsht	ét
flock (*n.*)	qaṭīʻ	galleh	sürü
flood (*n.*: *see also* tide)	zōd (overflow)	sailāb	sél, feyézān
floor	ardhīyah	zamīn	dushémé, dabān
flour	ṭaḥīn	ārd	ūn
flower	warad (*pl.* wurūd)	gul	chichék
fly (*n.*)	dhabānah (*pl.* dhabbān)	magas	sinék
fly (*v.*)	ṭār, yaṭīr	parīdan, par	ūchmaq
fog	dhabāb	meh	duman, sis, pus
follow	tibiʻ, yitbaʻ	ʻaqab raftan, rau	arqasina gelmék, ardina gélmék

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
fire (*n.*)	grag	āgir	nūrā
fire-place	varraran	bikherī	bikhérīyé
fire-wood	varrelapayd	hizh, chilka, dār	qaisé, ḥaṭab
firing line	gragi sahman	ardé sharr	dūktha d-sharré
firm	amour, bind	zakhm rraq, qawī	khailāna
fish (*n.*)	tzoug	māṣī	nūnta
flag	troshag	bairaq	baidaq
flat	dapag, harth	dasht, sāwī	shṭīḥa
flea	lou	kaich	perṭāna
flee (*v.*)	pakhil	ravī	ʻréqlé
fleet	navadorm, dormigh		
flesh	mis	gōsht	beṣra
flock (*n.*)	hod	tarsh, gārān	tarsha
flood (*n.*: *see also* tide)	heghegh, chrheghegh	tufān, sar haddé avé	sél
floor	hadag	ʻard	arʻa
flour	aliur	ār, ārd	ṭkhūna
flower	dzaghig	gul	warda, chuchāg
fly (*n.*)	janj	maish, mūz	didwa
fly (*v.*)	trrchel, trril	ferrīn	ṭéré
fog	mshoush, marrakhough	mīzh, tam	khépūtha
follow	hedevel	legal *or* lepa hātin	izellé bathré

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
food	ekl, ṭa'ām	khūrāk	yéyéjék, yémék
foot	rijl (*pl.* rijūl); qadam (measure)	qadam, pā	ayaq; yayan (on foot)
footpath	sikkah, darb	rāh-i-kūchak	méslék, chobān yolu
for—	li-khāṭir	barāyi	-ichin (*following word*)
for me	lī	barāyi-man	benim-ichin
for thee	lek	barāyi-tū	senin-ichin
for him	luh	barāyi-ū	ānin-ichin
for her	leha	barāyi-ū	ānin-ichin
for us	lena	barāyi-mā	bizim-ichin
for you	lekum	barāyi-shumā	sizin-ichin
for them	lehum	barāyi-īshān	ānlar-ichin
forbid	mena', yimna' *or* naha, yanha	qadaghan, qadagh *or* man' kardan, kun	yasāq étmék, étmé deyi ténbih étmék
ford (*n.*)	makhādhah, mu'ēber	guzār-gāh	géchid
forecastle			gémi bashi qamarasi
foreigner	ejnabī	ajnabī	éjnébi
forest	ghābah, zōr	jangal, bīsheh	ormān
forget	nesi, yinsa	farāmūsh kardan, kun	onūtmaq
forgive	'afa 'an, ya'fu 'an	bakhshīdan, bakhsh	baghishlamaq, 'afv étmék
fork	chingāl, shōkah	changāl	chatāl
formerly	gabl, sābiqan	sābiqā	sābiqā, évvéljé
fort	qal'ah	qal'a	qal'é
fortifications	istiḥkāmāt	ḥiṣār-hā	istihkyāmāt
fortify	istaḥkam, yastaḥkim	istiḥkām dādan, deh	istihkyām étmék
fortunate	ḥadhīdh	nīk-bakht	bakhtyār

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
food	snount, geragour	khwārin, tesht	īkhāla
foot	vodq	pé	aqla
footpath	shavigh		
for—	hamar	bō, li	tā, qā, li
for me	intz hamar	bōmin	ṭālī, qāti
for thee	qez hamar	bōta	ṭālokh, qātokh
for him	anor hamar	bōwī	ṭālé, qāté
for her	anor hamar	bōwī	ṭālah, qātah
for us	mez hamar	bōma	ṭālan
for you	tzez hamar	bōwā	ṭālaukhūn
for them	anontz hamar	bōwān	ṭālaihi
forbid	arkilel	ḥarām kir	muḥrimlé
ford (*n.*)	hegheghad, houn kedi	borr, derbāz	borré
forecastle	verin masn khelats navi		
foreigner	odaragan	Gharīb, yabānchī	nükhrāyā
forest	andarr	ghābah, tarrāsh	ghābah
forget	morrnal	zhbīr chōn	nshélé
forgive	nerel	zhé bhurtin, ʻafū kirdin	shweqlé
fork	padarrakagh, chatal	changāl	chengāla
formerly	gankhav	paishīn, barīn	b-qamaitha
fort	amrots	qala, chapar	sangār
fortifications	amroutiunq, pert	chapar	chaparé
fortify	amratsnel	istiḥkām kir	muzkhimlé
fortunate	pakhtavor	khudān-bakht	mar gāda

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
fowl	dajājah	murgh	tawuq
fox	tha'lab (*pl.* tha'ālib)	rūbāh	tilki
France	Fransa	Firānseh	Fransa
free (*adj.*)	ḥurr	āzād	sér-bést
free (gratis)	bi-lāsh	majjānī (*adj.*)	badi-hava
freight (cargo)	ḥiml	bār-e kashtī	yük
freight (charges)	nōl	kirāya	nevl
Frenchman	Fransāwī	Frānsāwī	Fransiz
fresh	jadīd, tāzi'	tāzeh	tāzé
Friday	Yōm el-jum'ah	Jum'ah	Jum'a günü
friendly	muḥibb	dūstāneh	dost
frighten	khawwaf, yu-khawwif	tarsānīdan, tarsān	qorqutmaq
from—	min	az	-dan (*following the noun*)
from me	minnī	az man	bén-dén
from thee	minnek	az tū	sén-dén
from him	minnuh	az ū	ān-dan
from her	minha	az ū	ān-dan
from us	minna	az mā	biz-dén
from you	minkum	az shumā	siz-dén
from them	minhum	az īshān	ānlar-dan
frontier	ḥadd (*pl.* ḥudūd)	sar-hadd	hudud
frost	jalīd	yakh	qiraghi, don
fruit	thamar, fākiḥah (*pl.* fawākiḥ)	mīweh	meivé, yémish
fuel	faḥm; ḥaṭab (wood)	sūkhtanī, hīmeh	odun, atesh odunu
full	matrūs	pur	dolu
funeral	jināzah	janāza (*or* tadfīn)	jenazé
funnel (of ship)	madkhanah	dūdkash	baja

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
fowl	hav	mirrishk	kthaitha
fox	aghves	rūvī	téla
France	Fransa	Fransa	Faransa
free (*adj.*)	azad	āza, sarbast	āza
free (gratis)	tzri, jokh	balāsh, khurrāi	herwā
freight (cargo)	navou per	bār	ṭānā d-gāmī
freight (charges)	navou vartzq ['navloun' (Turkish)]	maṣārīf, ḥaqq	hāqā d-ṭānā
Frenchman	Fransatsi	Faransāwī	Faransāya
fresh	tharm	tāza, nū, tarr	khātha, tarra
Friday	Ourpath	Ainé, Jūmah	Érūta
friendly	paregamagan	bdōstāhī	b-khūrūtha
frighten	vakhtsnel	tersāndin	muzdélé
from—	(*not in use separately*)	zh	min
from me	intzme	zhmin	minni
from thee	kezme	zhtā	minnokh
from him	anke, anorme	zhwī	minnéh
from her	anke, anorme	zhwī	minnah
from us	mezme	zhmā	minnan
from you	tzene	zhwā	minnaukhu
from them	anontsme	zhwān	minnaihi
frontier	sahman	senūr, sarḥadd	sinūr
frost	yeghiam, sarrnamaniq	jamid	jalīd, qarazīva
fruit	bdough	méwah	péré, t'untā, yekdānā
fuel	varreliq		
full	li, letsoun	tizhī, tér	milya
funeral	taghman hantes	jannāza, qabr, shīn	tishmishta
funnel (of ship)	dzkhneluyz, tzakarr		

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
further	ab'ad	dūrtar	daha uzaq
fuse (*n.*)	fatīlah (*pl.* fatāyil)	fatīleh	fetīl
gale	zōba'ah, fortūnah	ṭūfān, bād-i-shadīd	firtina
gallop (*v.*)	rakadh, yarkudh *or* ṭārad, yuṭārid	chār na'l raftan	dört na'al gitmék
garden	bustān (*pl.* basātīn)	bāgh	baghché
garrison	muḥāfadhah	sākhlū	mustahfizin 'askéri
gate	bāb (*pl.* abwāb)	darwāzeh	qapu
gazelle	ghazāl (*pl.* ghazlān)	ghazāl	jeyrān
gazette	jarīdah	rūz-nāma	ghazéta
gear	churgh essinūn	rakht, asbāb	ālétlér, taqim
gelding	ḥiṣān mukhṣī	bār-gīr, ākhteh	idish āt, beigir
general	mushīr, qā'id	sardār	férīq, qomandan
generous	karīm	sakhī	jumerd
gentle	laṭīf	narm, mulāyim	mulāyim
German	Almāni	Almānī	Alemān
Germany	Almānyā	Almān	Alemānya
get	ḥaṣṣal, yuḥaṣṣil	yāftan, yāb	almaq, nāil étmék, yétishmék,
get up (rise)	gām, yagūm	bar khāstan, khīz	qalqmaq
ghee	dihn	ranghan	dihn, yagh

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
further	aveli, aveli herrou	dūrtir (distance), galaktir, purtir (in addition)	zōdā
fuse (*n.*)	baythoutsich		
gale	potorig	ṭūfān	karapéch, ṭōpāna
gallop (*v.*)	qarrasmpakel	bezāndin	muṭrélé
garden	bardez	baghcha, bistān	bāgchā
garrison	bahaban zorq	ʻaskaré qalā	qārāwūl
gate	tarbas	dergā, darī	tarʻa
gazelle	vit	āsik, ghazāl	ghazālā
gazette	lrakir (newspaper); bashdonagan tsoutsag (official list)	gāzéta, rōzhnāma	gâzétā
gear	sbasq, gazmadzq	ālat, khirrūmirr	ālitiātha
gelding	vortzad (nerqinialsial tzi)	bārgīl	bargīla
general	zoravar	sarʻaskar	sarʻaskar
generous	vehantzn, ara datzerrn	mard, dilmazin, juāmér	libbā ptūkhā
gentle	azniv	narm, khwash	nīkha
German	Kermanatsi	Almānī	Almnāya
Germany	Kermania	Almānya	Almānya
get	tserrq perel	paidā kirin	mḥūṣellé mēyī
get up (rise)	yelnel	rābī	qimlé
ghee	yegh	rūn, karā qalāndī	mishkha

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
girl	bint (*pl.* banāt)	dukhtar	qiz
girth	baṭān	tang	qolan
give	a'ṭa, yu'ṭī; anṭa, yanṭī	dādan, deh	vérmék
give in (surrender)	istaslam, yastaslim	taslīm shudan, shau	téslīm-olmaq
glad	farḥān, masrūr	khush-ḥāl	mémnūn
glass (of window)	jām	shīsha	jam
glass (for drinking)	glās, shūshah	piyāleh	qadéh
gloves	kufūf (*sing.* keff)	dastkash-hā	éldivén
go—	rāḥ, yarūḥ; sāfar, yusāfir (on a journey)	raftan, rau	gitmék
go away (*infin.*)	rāḥ	rawāneh shudan, shau	gitmék
go away (*imper.*)	rūḥ, emshi	bi-rō, gum-shau	git, qach
go in	dakhal, yidkhal	dākhil shudan, shau	ichéri-gitmék, girmék
go out	kharaj, yakhruj	bīrūn raftan, rau	chiqmaq
go (of machine)	mesha, yimshī	kār kardan	ishlémék
goat	tēs (he-goat); 'anzah (she-goat); ma'az (*collect.*)	buz	kéchi
God	Allāh	Khudā	Allah
gold	dheheb	zar, talā	altun
good	ṭayyib, zēn	khūb	eyi, güzél
good-bye (to friend departing)	fī amān Allāh *or* ma'a 's-selāmeh	Khudā hāfiz	allaha 'smarladiq

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
girl	aghchig	kich, kanishk	brāta
girth	pog, gab	bartāng	ṭānga
give	dal	dān	iwellé, yawel
give in	antznadour linel	taslīm kir	msūlemlé
glad	ourakh	dilkhwash, shād	pṣīkha, khadīa
glass (of window)	abagi (badouhani)	shūsha, jām	shushā
glass (for drinking)	pazhag	tarār, shūshah	kāsa
gloves	tzerrnots	lapik, shelik	bra'īdhātha, lapikkātha
go—	yertal	chōn	izellé
go away (*infin.*)	herranal	zhdarva chōn	npiqlé
go away (*imper.*)	kna! heratsir!	birau, harra, darkava	plūt
go in	ners yertal	hātindaré	iwéré
go out	tours yertal	chōnzhdar	npiqlé barāyé
go (of machine)	knal, sharzhil, yertal, megnil	chūn	pālikh
goat	aydz	bizin	'ezza
God	Asdvadz	Khudā, Khudé	Alāhā
gold	vosgi	zér	dāhwa
good	pari	chāka, bāsha, qanj	ṭāwā, randa
good-bye (to friend departing)	mnas parov (*sing.*), mnak parov (*pl.*),	bakhāterāta	pūsh b-shayna

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
(reply)	Allāh yessellimek *or* Allāh yiḥfadhak		oghurlar olsun
goose	wazzah, baṭṭah	qāz	qāz
govern	ḥakam ʻala, yaḥkam	hukūmat kardan	idāré étmék
government	ḥakūmah	daulat	hukumét
governor's office	idārat el-ḥukūmah	maḥall-i-ḥukūmat	qonaq
grain (corn)	ḥabubāt, ṭaʻām	ghalla	boghdai
grapes	ʻanab	angūr	uzum
grass	ḥashīsh	giyāh	ōt
grateful	shākir, mimnūn	ḥaqq-shinās, shakūr	mütéshékkir
grease (*n.*)	dihn	charbī	yagh
great	ʻadhīm	buzurg	büyük
greatcoat	palto, ʻabā (of Arab)	bālā pūshī	qapot, palto
greedy	ṭammāʻ	harīs, āzmand	ach-gözlü
green	akhdhar	sabz	yéshil
greet	sellem ʻala, yusellim ʻala	taḥīyeh kardan, kun *or* salām kardan, kun	sélam-vérmék
grey	eshheb, ramādī	khākistarī	kir, boz, gūmūshū
greyhound	salūgi	tāzī	tazi
grocer	baqqāl	baqqāl	baqqāl
groom	sais (*pl.* sayyās)	mehtar	seʻis
ground (*n.*)	ardh, gāʻ	zamīn	yér
(run aground)	sheleḥ, yishlaḥ	bi-rīgrandan (*trans.*), bi-rīg khurdan (*intrans.*)	oturmaq

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
(reply)	yertas parov (*sing.*), yertaq parov (*pl.*)		
goose	sak	qāz, sonā	qāza
govern	ishkhel, garavarel	ḥukm kirin	mhākim
government	garavaroutiun	ḥukūmat	hukmā
governor's office	garravarchadoun	sarāi	ṣarāi
grain (corn)	tsoren (i. e. wheat); serm (i.e. seed); meg had (i. e. one grain)	dān, dindik	dakhlā
grapes	khaghogh	tirī	ʻinwī
grass	khot	gīā	gilla
grateful	yerakhtaked	shekerdār	shakāra
grease (*n.*)	jarb	chāor, qalāo	mishkhā
great	medz	mazin, gaurā	rrāba
greatcoat	hasd verargou	sākō, abā	ʻabāyah, sākō
greedy	shadager, dzagachq	ṭamakār	kīsānā
green	ganach	shīn, kask	yarūqa
greet	parevel, voghchounel	salām dā	drélé shlāma
grey	korsh, mokhrakoyn (grey-coloured)	bōz, spī	gōrā, khwāra
greyhound	vorsi shoun	tāzhi	tāzī
grocer	nbaravadjar	baqāl	buqāl
groom	tziaban	mihtar, saiyis	métār
ground (*n.*)	kedin, yergir	ard	arʻā
(run aground)	khradz, godradz	gamī la-ākh katin	

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
grow (raise)	zara', yisra'	rūyānīdan	chiqarmaq, ékmék (sow)
guard (*n.*)	ḥāris, nāṭūr	qarāvul	qavas, békji
guide (*n.*)	dalīl	rāhbar	qulawuz (*pron.* qla-uz), yol göstériji
guide (*v.*)	hada, yahdī *or* dell, yadill	rāhnumā'ī, kardan, kun	yol göstérmék, délālét étmék
guilty	mudhnib	muqaṣṣir	qabāhatli
gulf	khalīj	khalīj	körféz
gun (cannon)	madfa' (*pl.* madāfi') *or* ṭōp (*pl.* aṭwāp)	ṭūp	top
gun (machine)	rashshāsh	tūp-e musalsal	mitralyūz
gunboat	ghānbōt		ghānbōt
gunner	ṭōpchī (*pl.* ṭōpchīyah)	tūpchī	topji
gunpowder	bārūd	bārūt	bārūt
gypsum	juṣṣ	āhak	jips
had (I)	kān 'andī	dāshtam	bénim (béndé) varidi
hail (*n.*)	ḥālūb	tagarg, tagar	dolu
hair	sha'r	mūi	sāch
hairdresser	muzēyyin	salmānī	muzeyin
half	nuṣṣ	nisf	yarim, yari, buchuq
halt (*v.*)	wagaf, yogif	wā istādan, īst	dūrmaq
halt (*imper.*)	ogaf	bi-īst	dur
halter (*n.*)	reshmah	afsār	yular
hammer (*n.*)	maṭraqah	chakush	chékij
hammer (*v.*)	daqq, yaduqq	kūbīdan, kūb	chaqmaq

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
grow (raise)	hastsnel, medz-tsnel	hishīnānin, ruānin (*trans.*), hishīn bōin (*intrans.*)	mamṭī
guard (*n.*)	bahnort, bahaban	pāswān, qarānil	naṭrānā
guide (*n.*)	arrachnort, oughetsuyts	dalīl, shārazāi	dalīl
guide (*v.*)	arrachnortel	rrīā nishān dā	mūkhzélé ūrkha
guilty	hantsavor	gūnahkār	gunahkār
gulf	dzots, khorsh		
gun (cannon)	thntanot	ṭōp	ṭōp
gun (machine)	meqenagan hratsan	ṭōp khudān charkh	tōpang māshīnāyā
gunboat	thntanotanav		
gunner	thntatzik	ṭōpchī	ṭopchī
gunpowder	varrot	darmān, bōrūd	tīzā, dārmān
gypsum	pourr, kadj; alchi (Turkish)	gaij, jas	gech
had (I)	ounetsadz	hain (*v.*), min ha-bū (I had)	ithwālī
hail	gargoud	tairk, zīpek	bardha
hair	maz	mū, par	mezzé
hairdresser	saprich	muzayyin	muqritānā d-miztā
half	ges	nīv	pelgā
halt (*v.*)	gank arrnel	rāwasṭan, dainān	mutūlé, klélé
halt (*imper.*)	getsir	rāwustā, besakkinā	kli, (*pl.*) klīmūn
halter (*n.*)	tzion gab	hafsār	nükhta
hammer (*n.*)	mourj	chākūch	chākuch
hammer (*v.*)	tarpnel	daq kir	mdūqiqlé

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
hand	yed *or* īd (*pl.* ēdī)	dast	él
hand grenade	qumbalat el-yed (*pl.* qanābil el-yed)	khumpare-yi-dast	él-qumbarasi
handkerchief	kefīyah, mendīl	dastmāl	mendīl
hang up	'allaq, yu'alliq	āwīkhtan, āwīz	āsmaq
happy	farḥān	kāmrān	mesrur
harbour	mīnā (*pl.* mawāni), bandar	bandar	liman
hard	qawī	sakht, sift	sért, qati
harlot	gaḥbah	junda	rospi, fahishé
harvest (*n.*)	ḥaṣād (season); hāṣil (produce)	dirau; hāsil (crop)	mahsul (crop); bichim vaqiti (season)
hastily	bil-'ajel	shitābāna	ajélé ilé
hat	shefqah	kulāh	shapqa
hate (*v.*)	kereh, yikrah	karāhiyat kardan, kun	'adāvét étmék, ikrāh étmék, sévmémék
have—	(*pronominal suffix added to preposition* 'and, *meaning* 'with')	dāshtan, dār	(*pronominal suffix added to the thing possessed, followed by* vār)
I have	'andi	dāram	-im vār
thou hast	'andek	dārī	-in vār
he has	'anduh	dārad	-i (*or* si), vār
she has	'andeha	dārad	-i (*or* si), vār
we have	'andena	dārīm	-imiz vār
you have	'andekum	dārīd	-iniz vār
they have	'andehum	dārand	-léri (*or* lari) vār
have not	mā 'andi, &c.	na-dāshtan, na-dār	yōq (*used like* vār)

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
hand	tzerq	dast	īdha
hand grenade	tzerrqi rroump, rrmpag		
handkerchief	tashkinag	dasmāl, kafīya	yālikhtā
hang up	gakhel	halāwistin, āwīz kir	tlélé
happy	ourakh, zvart, yerchanig	khwōsh, dil-sevik	khadīyā
harbour	navahankisd		mīna
hard	gardzr	sakht, rraq	qeshya, sart
harlot	hanragin, tsop ('poz', vulgar)	qaḥba	zānītā
harvest (*n.*)	hountzq, arti-unq	ḥasād, khar-man, dirūn	khizdā
hastily	shoudov, adja-baranoq	blazzī	jeldī
hat	klkharg	barnaiṭa, klāo franjī	kūsītā
hate (*v.*)	adel	wakī dizhmin girt	snélé
have—	ounenal	(*use prep.* īth)	
I have	ounim	min haya	ittī, īth lī
thou hast	ounis	ta haya	ittokh
he has	ouni	āu haya	itté
she has	ouni	āu haya	ittāh
we have	ouninq	ma haya	ittan
you have	ouniq	wa haya	ittaukhū
they have	ounin	wān haya	ittāi, ithlhun
have not	ch'ounenal	min nīna, &c.	latti

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
have you ?	ʻandek ?	āyā mī-dārīd ?	-iniz vār-mi ?
hay	qishsh, tibn	giyāh-i-khushkburma	quru ot
he	hūa	ū	o
head	rā's (*pl.* ru'ūs)	sar	bash
headache	waja' rā's	dard-i-sar	bash āghrisi
headland	rā's (*pl.* ru'ūs)	rās	būrūn
head-quarters	markaz	markaz-i-sipah-sālār	ordu mérkézi
healthy	muta'āfī, ṣāḥī	tandurust, chāgh	saghlam
heap (*n.*)	kōmah	tūdeh	yighin
heap up	kawwam, yukawwim	tūdeh kardan, kun	yighmaq
hear	semi', yisma'	shunīdan, shunau	ishitmék
heart	qalb (*pl.* qulūb)	dil	yürék, günül
heat (*v.*)	aḥma, yuḥmī	garm kardan, kun	isitmaq
heat (*n.*)	ḥarr, ḥarārah	garmā	harārét, sijaq
heavy	thaqīl	sangīn	aghir
hell	jahennam	dūzakh	jihennem
helm	ṣakkān	sukkān	dumén
help (*v.*)	sā'ad, yusā'id	madad dādan, deh	yardim-étmék
help (*n.*)	musā'adah	yāwarī	yardim
her	-eha, -ha, -a (*suffix*)		ona
herd (*n.*)	qatī'	galleh	sürü
here	hina	īnjā	būraya, būrada
hide (*trans.*)	akhfa, yukhfī	panhān kardan, kun	saqlamaq, gizlémék
hide (*intrans.*)	ikhtafa, yakhtafī	panhān shudan, shau	saqlanmaq, gizlénmék
high	'ālī	buland	yüksék

English.	*Armenian*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
have you ?	ouniq ? ouniq touq ?	ta haya ?	gallō ittokh ? ith lōkun ?
hay	khod	gīā, kā	tūna, gila
he	an, aniga	ō	āwa, ō
head	kloukh	sar	résha
headache	klkhatsav	dardé sar	mara d-résha
headland	sar, saravant	shākh, halāt	rōmta
head-quarters	sbayaguydi vayr, zorad-deghi		
healthy	arroghj	sākh, sāghlam	sāghlam, sākh
heap (*n.*)	tez, guyd	shkerr	kūmah, shkerra
heap up	tizel, goudagel	sar dā, takwīm kir	mkūwimlé
hear	lsel	behīstin	shmélé
heart	sird	dil	libba
heat (*v.*)	dagtsnel	garm kir	mūshkhenné
heat (*n.*)	dagutiun	garm	khemma
heavy	dzanr	girān	yaqūra
hell	tzhokhq	jehannam, dūzhā	gīhenā
helm	gheg		
help (*v.*)	oknel	hāri dā	ʿinné, mhéyir
help (*n.*)	oknoutiun	hārī, yārī	ʿaun
her	anor		-āh (*suffix*)
herd (*n.*)	nakhir	gārān, rān	būqra
here	hos, asd	harah, éra	ākha, lakha
hide (*trans.*)	thaqtsunel, dzadzgel	washārtin	mṭūshélé
hide (*intrans.*)	thaqchil, dzadzgvil		ṭshélé
high	partzr	bilind	rrāma

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
highroad	darb sulṭānī, ṭarīq	rāh, shāh-rāh	jāddé (yol)
highwater	medd el-moi	madd-i-daryā,	méddi kyāmil, déniz qabarmasi
hill	tell (*pl.* tulūl)	kūh, tappeh	tépé
hillock	tell ṣaghīr	kūh-i-kūchak	tépéjik, hüyük
hilly	dhāt tulūl	past u buland	inishli-yoqushlu
him	-uh, -hu (*suffix*)	ū-rā, -ash (*suffix*)	ona (*dat.*), onu (*acc.*)
himself	nefsuh	khudash	kendi
hinder	mena', yimna'	man' kardan, kun	braqmamaq, mani' olmaq
hire (*n.*)	karwah	kirāya	qira
his	-uh, -hu (*suffix*), māluh	-i-ū, -ash (*suffix*)	onun
hit (*v.*)	dharab, yadhrab (strike); ṣāb, yaṣīb (of mark)	zadan, zan	vurmaq (strike); deimék (of mark)
hither	ila hina	bi-īnjā	būraya
hobbles (*n.*)	'iqāl	pā-band	
hold (*v.*)	mesek, yimsak	giriftan, gīr	tūtmaq, yiqalamaq
hold (contain)	wasa', yasa'	gunjāyish dāshtan, dār	almaq; sighmaq (to be contained)
hold (a position)	ḥāma, yuḥāmī	nigāh dāshtan, dār	tūtmaq
hold out	dām, yadūm	mudāwamat kardan, kun	dayanmaq
hold (of ship) (*n.*)	'ambār	ambār-ekashtī, khan-e kashtī	anbar

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish*	*Syriac.*
highroad	arahed, arqouni jampa	rrīā, shahrī	ūrkha
highwater	maguntatsoutiun (partzr chourn)		
hill	plour	girik, hardā, chīā	tella, rumta
hillock	plrag		
hilly	plrayin	khūdān chīā	qarāj
him	zaniga (*acc.*), anor (*dat.*)	au	āwa, -h (*suffix*)
himself	noyninqn, inqnin	bekhwa	gāneh
hinder	khapanel, arkelq linel	man' kir	mni'lé
hire (*n.*)	vartzel, gashar rel	kirā, kiré [1]	kerī
his	anor	wī	diyé, -h (*suffix*)
hit (*v.*)	zarnel	lédā, lékhest	qiḥlé
hither	ays degh	lharā, lérā	lākha
hobbles (*n.*)	vodnagab (tziou)	kūbā	kitwé
hold (*v.*)	prrnel	girtin	erélé, dāwiq
hold (contain)	barounagel		
hold (a position)	kravel		mḥūmélé
hold out	timanal, dogal	thabāt kir, dast girt	mṣūbéré, dimlé
hold (of ship) (*n.*)	bahateghi	ambār gamī	

[1] These two words should be well pronounced in order to avoid the use of a bad word; the way to do it is to skip over *i* and to stress *a* or *é*,

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
hole	nugrah (*pl.* nugar)	sūrākh	délik
honest	ṣādiq, amīn	durust-kār, amīn	doghru
honour (*n.*)	nāmūs, sharf; ikrām (respect)	ābrū	shān, shéréf, namūs
hook	chingāl (*pl.* chanāgīl); shuṣṣ (fish hook)	qullāb	chéngél
hope (*n.*)	rijā, eml	umīd	ümīd
hope (*v.*)	raja, yarjū	umīd dāshtan, dār	ümid étmék
horse	ḥuṣān (*pl.* ḥuṣn)	asp	āt
horseman	khayyāl	suvār	atli
horseshoe	na'al	na'l	na'al, at démiri
hospital	musteshfa, khastakhānah	bīmār-khāneh	khasta-khāné
hostile	mudhādd, dhudd	dushman	düshmén
hot	ḥārr (of things or weather); mushawwiḥ (of persons)	garm	sijaq
hour	sā'ah	sā'at	sā'at
house	bēt (*pl.* buyūt), hōsh	khāneh	év, khāné
how	shlōn, shqad	che taur	nasl
how much	shqadr; bēsh (of price)	cheh qadar	né qadar; qach (of price)
how many	kam	chand	qach tāné
hull (of ship)	jised	tana	tékné
hungry	jō'ān	gurasneh	ach
hurry (*n.*)	'ajalah	'ajaleh	'ajélé
hurry (*v.*)	ista 'jal, yasta 'jil	dast-pācheh shudan, shau	'ajélé étmék
husband	zōj	shauhar	qoja, érkék

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
hole	dzag	kunā	nūqba
honest	bargeshd	rāst, dilpāk	kéna, dūs
honour (*n.*)	badiv, medzaranq	nāmūs, āwrū (chastity); qadr, iqbāl (dignity)	qudrā
hook	jang, gerr	changāl, qullāf	qullāba
hope (*n.*)	huys	émūd, hīvī	émūd, hīwī
hope (*v.*)	housal	emūd *or* rajā kir	itté émūd ('he has hope')
horse	tzi	hasp	sūsa
horseman	tziavor	suwār, khayyāl	rakāwā
horseshoe	bayd, bayd tziou	na'l	na'la
hospital	hivantanots	khastakhāna, māristān	hakūnkhāna
hostile	tshnamagan	dizhmen, nayār	dizhmen
hot	daq (water); doth (air)	garm	khamīma
hour	zham	sā'at	sā'at, shétha
house	doun	māl, khānī	baitha
how	inchbes, inchou	chāwa, kusā, chlūn	dākhī
how much	vorchap	chand, chiṭof	k-ma
how many	vorqan, qani	chand, chiṭof	k-ma
hull (of ship)	navou marmin	tanāé gamī	
hungry	anothi	bersī	kpīna
hurry (*n.*)	shdab, shoud	lazī, 'ajalah	'ajalah
hurry (*v.*)	pouthal, shdabel	lazī *or* 'ajalah kir	mqulqillé
husband	amousin	mér, shū	gaura

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
hut	ṣarīfah (of mats)	kappar, kappar-e hasīr-pūsh	qulubé
I	ana	man	bén
ice	thelj	yakh	buz
if	idha, in	agar	éyér
ignorant	jāhil	jāhil, nā-dān	jāhil, ma'lūmātsiz
ill	marīdh, waj'ān	nā-khush	khasta, keifsiz
illness	maradh, waj'	nā-khushī, bīmārī	khastaliq
immediately	hessā, bissā'ah	faurī	der'aqab
impossible	muḥāll, mustaḥīl	ghair mumkin *or* mustaḥīl	ōlmaz, mumkin déyil
imprison	ḥabas, yaḥbis	ḥabs kardan, kun	habs étmék, habsa atmaq
impudent	waqīḥ	shūkh, bīsharm	édébsiz, küstākh
in	fī, bi	dar	-da (*suffix*)
inconvenient	mū muwāfiq	nā-munāsib	münāsibétsiz, sikindili
increase (*trans.*)	zād, yazīd	afzūdan, afzā	artirmaq, choghaltmaq
increase (*intrans.*)	izdād, yazdād	afzūdan, afzā	artmaq, choghalmaq
India	Bilād el-Hind	Hindustān	Hindustān
Indian	Hindī	Hindī	Hindli
indigestion	tukhmah, jālī	sū-i-hazm	sū'i hazm
infantry	piyādah	sarbāz-i-piyādeh	piyādé 'askér
infectious	sārī, mu'dī	sārī	bulashiq (person); sāri (disease)
infidel (i.e. non-Moslem)	kāfir (*pl.* kuffār)	kāfir	giaur
inform	akhbar, yukhbir	khabar dādan, bildirmék deh	

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
hut	dnag	kepir, qaprāna	qüprānā
I	yes	az, min	āna
ice	sarouts, sarr	bafr, sāhul	gdīlā
if	yethe	agar, haka	in
ignorant	dked, anous	nazān	nazānī, jāhil
ill	hivant	nasākh	krīha, marī'ā
illness	hivandoutiun	nasākhī, ésh	kurhāna, mar'ā
immediately	anmichabes, isguyn	zū, blaz (quickly); warīna, herista	ālbā'āl
impossible	angareli	nābī, nāwū, ghair mumkin	lā barāya, nā-mumkin
imprison	pandargel	hapis kir, dūsākh kir	ḥbeslé
impudent	lirp, anzkam	béḥaya	d-la nekhpa
in	i, mech	nīv, nāo	b-go, b-gav, b- (*prefix*)
inconvenient	anharmar	nā munāsib	la munāsib
increase (*trans.*)	shadtsnel	zīāda kir	mūzedlé
increase (*intrans.*)	shadnal	zāīd *or* galak *or* mazin bū	zidlé
India	Hndgastan	Hindustān	Hind
Indian	Hndig	Hindī	Hindwāya
indigestion	anmarsoghoutiun		
infantry	hedevag, hedevagazor	payāda	paiyāda
infectious	varagich	sārī	maṭepiāna, sārī
infidel	anoren, anhavad	kāfir, gāwir, bé-dīn	kāpūrā
inform	imatsnel	khabar dā	mukhbéré

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
information	khabr	ittilā'	khabér
in front	quddām,	pīsh	iléri
in front of	quddām,	pīsh-i-	ön (+ *suffix*) dé
in future	fil-mustaqbil	dar āyandeh	bundan soñra, atida
ink	ḥibr	murakkab	mürékkéb
inlet	khalīj ṣaghīr	khalīj-i-kūchak	aghiz, boghaz, qōi
inn	khān (*pl.* khānāt)	kārvān-sarāy	khan
innocent	berī	bī-gunāh	qabāhatsiz, ma'sūm
insane	majnūn	dīvāna	déli
inside	dākhil, jōwa	andarūn, dar	ichindé
inspect	fettesh, yufettish	mulāhaza kardan; nazārat kardan (*in sense of* 'superintend')	yoqlamaq
inspector	mufettish	nāzir	muféttish, yoqlamaji
instruction	ta'līm	tarbiyat	ta'lim
insult (*v.*)	ahān, yuhīn	ihāneh kardan, kun	haqāret étmék
insult (*n.*)	ihānah	ihāneh	haqāret
Intelligence Department	Dāyirat el-mukhābarāt	idāra-ye akhbār	Dayirat el-mukhābarāt
intelligent	'āqil	hūshdār, 'āqil	'aqlli
intend	qaṣad, yaqṣad *or* nawa, yanwī	niyyat kardan, kun	niyyét(+ *suffix*) vār
interpret	terjam, yuterjim	tarjumeh kardan, kun	térjumé étmék
interpreter	tarjumān	mutarjim	térjumān

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
information	deghegoutiun, dzanotoutiun	khabor	khabrā
in front	arrchev	péshīn	qamāya
in front of	arrchev	pésh	qam
in future	abakayin	pāshé	b-zauna d-āthé
ink	melan	hobér, mūraken	bidyūtā
inlet	moudq, khorsh		
inn	bantog, ichevan	khān	khan
innocent	anmegh	bégunā, bé-quṣūr	kéna, d-la gnahā
insane	khent, khelakar	dīn, bé-'aql	shīdānā
inside	i nersn, nersn	nīv, nāo	gawāyé
inspect	qnnel, znnel	mulāḥadha *or* mushāhada kirin	msakhsī
inspector	desouch, veragatsou	nāzir, mufattish	msakhsānā
instruction	telatroutiun, hramandvoutiun	ifāda, ta'līm, tanbīh	malpānūthā
insult (*v.*)	anarkel, nakhadel	khabarr gōt	mṣū'éré
insult (*n.*)	nakhading	dizhmināī, khabarr	ṣa'ōré
Intelligence Department	Dzanotoutiunneri Bashdona ran	khabar khāna	mansāb d-dūrāshā
intelligent	oushim, khelatsi	'āqil, tezhfām	'āqil, haunāna
intend	mdatrvil, gamenal	khwāst, marām kir	b'élé
interpret	tarkmanel	terzumānī kir	mpūshiqlé
interpreter	tarkman	tarjumān	tarjamān

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
interview (*n.*)	muwājahah	mulāqāt	görüshmé
into	fī, ila	dar dākhil	ichiné
intrigue (*n.*)	dasīsah	dasīsa	féssad
inundation	feyadhān (overflow)	sailāb	su basmasi
invasion	dukhūl	hujūm, tākht-u tāz	téjavuz
invent	ikhtara', yakh-tari'	ikhtirā' namūdan, numā	ijād étmék
investigation	teftīsh	tahqīq	teftish
invite	da'a, yad'ū *or* 'azzam, yu'azzim	da'wat kardan, kun *or* mih-mān kardan, kun	da'vét étmék
iron (*n.*)	ḥadīd	āhan	démir
iron (*adj.*)	min ḥadīd	āhanīn	démirdén
irrigate	saqa, yasqī	āb dādan, deh	sūlamaq
island	jazīrah (*pl.* jazā'ir)	jazīreh	āda
is there ?	ākū ?	hast ?	bulunur-mu ? vār-mi ?
it (*nom.*)	hūa, hūwa, hīya	ān	o, ol
it (*acc.*)	-uh, -ha (-ā) (*suffix*)		onu
its	-uh, -ha (-ā) (*suffix*)	-i-ān (*suffix*)	onun
jackal	wāwī (*pl.* wāwī-yah)	shughāl	chaqāl
jacket	sitrah (Turkish)	nīmtana	sétri, mintan
jam	marabba	murabba	réchél, tatli
January	Kānūn eth-thānī	Kānūn-as-sānī	Kyānūn-i-sāni
jetty	eskelah	iskaleh	iskélé
Jew	Yahūdī (*pl.* Yahūd)	Yahūdī	Yahūdi

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
interview (*n.*)	desagtsoutiun	mulāqāt	tpāqtā
into	i, i nerks	nīv, la	b-, l- (*prefix*)
intrigue (*n.*)	meqenayoutiun, tav	fasādī, kaid	qōlā
inundation	voghoghel, heghegel	tūfān, sailé āvé	sēl
invasion	arshavanq	hujūm, khārat, āzhūtin	wīrta
invent	hnarel	dīt	khzélé, 'ewedhlé ikhtirā'
investigation	khouzargoutiun, qnnoutiun	taḥqīq, pé hilāndiné	msākhsaytā
invite	hravirel	dāwat kir, gāzī kir	mkuremlé, qrélé
iron (*n.*)	yergat	āsin	prezla
iron (*adj.*)	yergatia		d-prezla
irrigate	vorrokel	āv dā	mūshqélé
island	gghzi	jazīrah	jazīrah, ādā
is there?	ga artiog ?	haya ?	gallō īth ?
it (*nom.*)	ayn	āu	āwa, āya
it (*acc.*)	ad		
its	iur	-wī (*suffix*)	-éh, -āh (*suffix*)
jackal	shnakayl	chaqāl	wāwī, tōrītha
jacket	badmoudjan	satra, élakk, qutikk, shapikk	guddā
jam	jam, mourabā	murabba	murabba
January	Hounvar	Kānūné sānī	Kānun kharāya
jetty	navamaduyts	askalah	askalah
Jew	Hria	Juhī	Hudhāya

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
jewel	jōhar (*pl.* jawāhir)	gauhar	mujévhérāt
job	shughl (*pl.* ashghāl)	shughl	ish güj
joiner	najjār	najjār	doghramaji
journey	sefer	safar	séfér, yoljuluq
joyful	masrūr	farahnāk	mésrur
judge (*v.*)	ḥakam, yaḥkam	dāvarī kardan	muhakémé étmék
(civil, *n.*)	ra'īs maḥkamah	qāzī	hakim
(religious, *n.*)	qādhī	mujtahid	mufti
jug	ibrīq	āftābeh, kūzeh	désti
July	Tammūz	Tammūz	Témmūz
jump (*v.*)	qafaz, yaqfiz *or* naṭṭ, yanuṭṭ	jastan, jeh	atlamaq
June	Ḥazīrān	Ḥazīrān	Hazīrān
jungle	ghābah	jangal, bīsheh	ormanliq
justice	'adl, inṣāf (equity)	'adl, inṣāf	doghruluq, huqūq
jute	jinfāṣ	kattān-e hindī (*or* qunnab-e hindī)	jinfas
keel	ka'ab el-markab		omurgha
keep	khalla 'and, yukhallī 'and *or* ḥafadh, yaḥfadh	nigāh dāshtan, dār	saqlamaq
kettle	ketli, jidr	āb-garm-kun, kitrī	qazan, ibrīq
key	miftāḥ	kilīd	anakhtar
kick (*v.*)	refes, yirfus	lakad zadan, zan	tépmék, tékmé atmaq
kid	jedī	buzghāleh	oghlaq
kill	qatal, yaqtul; dhebeḥ, yidhbaḥ	kushtan, kush	öldürmék, késmék

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
jewel	kohar, badvagan qar	jauhar, zīnat	kīpā d-shāpāqtā
job	kordz, zpaghoum	shōl, kār	shūlā
joiner	adaghtzakordz	najjār	nujār
journey	janportoutiun	safar	safar
joyful	tsndzalits, ourakh	shād, dil-shād	mārī khādūthā
judge (*v.*)	tadel	ḥukm kirin	ʻāwīd diwān
(civil, *n.*)	tadavor	ḥākim, qāzī	
(religious, *n.*)	gronagan tadavor	qāzī	qādī
jug	gouzh	ibrīq, āvtān	talma, danta
July	Houlis	Tammūz	Tāmuz
jump (*v.*)	tsadgel, vosdnoul	bānz dā, jenqīn	shwéré
June	Hounis	Khezīrān	Ḥzīran
jungle	andarr	ghābah, jangal	ghābah, tarrāshé
justice	artaroutiun	ʻadālat	kénūtha, inṣāf
jute	ganep (hemp)	qinnab, gīāé sultān	
keel	kok, hadag navi		
keep	bahel	girtin	nṭéré
kettle	san, bdoug	qāzān, tenjūr	destītha, maqlé
key	panali	kilīla	qdhīla
kick (*v.*)	qatsi dal, aqatsel	pé lé dān	mkhélé rapsé
kid	oul	kār	gidhya
kill	spanel	kūshtin	qṭillé

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
kiln	kūrah	kūra-ye ājur	ojaq
kind (*adj.*)	laṭīf	mihrabān	eyi, insāniyétli
kind (*n.*)	jins (*pl.* ajnās)	nau'	névʼ, turlu, jins
king	melik (*pl.* mulūk)	shāh	qral
kingdom	memlekah (*pl.* mamālik)	mamlakat	mémlékét
kiss (*v.*)	bās, yabūs	māch kardan	öpmék
kit (soldiers')	aghrādh (*pl.*)	asbāb	éshya
kitchen	maṭbakh	āshpaz-khāneh	matbakh, āsh khāné
knapsack	ṭorbah	asbāb-dan (*or* chānta)	chanta
knee	rukbah (*pl.* rukūb)	zānū	diz
knife	sikkīn (*pl.* sakākīn)	chāqū, kārd	bichaq
knife (pen-knife)	chākūch, qalam trash		qalém trash
knock (at door, *v.*)	daqq, yaduqq	kūbīdan, dar zadan	chalmaq
knot (distance)	mīl (*pl.* amyāl)	mīl	mīl, déniz mīli
know	'araf, ya'rif, dere, yidrī	dānistan, dān	bilmék
Kurdistan	Kurdistān	Kurdistān	Kurdistān
lack (*v.*)	āz, ya'ūz	kam shudan, shau	éksik olmaq (to be deficient); lāzim olmaq (to be necessary)
ladder	derej	nardubān	mérdivén
lady	khātūn, sitt	khānum	hanem, khatun
lake	buḥērah, hōr	daryācheh	göl
lamb	ṭalī (*pl.* ṭulyān)	barreh	quzu

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
kiln	pourr	kūr, tannūr	kūrā
kind (*adj.*)	pari	dilsōz, ḥebbī	mraḥmāna
kind (*n.*)	desag	jins	ginsa
king	takavor	sulṭān, khumkār	malka
kingdom	takavoroutiun	daulat, mamlakat	dawelta, malkūtha
kiss (*v.*)	hampourel, baknel	māch kirin, bōsa kirin	nāshiq
kit (soldiers')	barg (zinvorits)	asbāb, teshté ʿaskar	chākī
kitchen	khohanots	maṭbakh, āshkhānah	maṭbakh
knapsack	makhagh	cheltik	jantā
knee	dzoung	zhnū, kōdk, zrānī	birka
knife	tanag, zmeli	kérek	skīna
knock (at door, *v.*)	zarnel (toure)	daqq al-bāb kirin, ladargā daqq kirin	mtaptip
knot (distance)	mghon		
know	kidnal	zānin	īdhélé, yādhé
Kurdistan	Kurdistan	Kurdistān	Kurdistān
lack (*v.*)	bagasil, nvazil	bḥauja bū	sniqlé
ladder	santoukh	stair, paizha, pilakān	sīmaltā
lady	digin	khātūn, khānim	khānīm
lake	lij, ljag	baḥr	yāma
lamb	karrn	barkh	barkha

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
lame	a'raj	lang	topāl (man); aqsiyor (horse)
lamp	fanūs, lampah	chirāgh	lampa, qandil
lance	rumḥ (*pl.* armāḥ)	naizeh	mizrāq
land (*n.*)	ardh, gā'	zamīn	qara (opp. to sea); mémlékét (country); arāzī (lands)
land (*v.*)	nezzel, yunezzil (*trans.*), nezel, yinzal (*intrans.*)	bi-khushkī bīrūn āvardan (*trans.*), bi-kanār āmadar (*intrans.*)	qaraya chiqarmaq (*trans.*), qaraya chiqmaq (*intrans.*)
landing party	ṭāli'īn 'al-barr		qaraya chiqan taqim
landlord (land)	mallāk	mālik-e amlāk	mülk sahibi
(of house)	ṣāḥib	mālik-e khāna	év sahibi
language	lisān, lughah	lughat, zabān	dil, lisān
lantern	fānūs (*pl.* fawānīs)	fānūs	fénér
large	kabīr	buzurg	büyük
last	ākhir; mādhī (of time)	ākhir, wā-pasīn	sōn (in a series); géchén
late	muta'akhkhir, mubṭī	dīr	géch
laugh (*v.*)	dhaḥak, yadhḥak	khandīdan, khand	gülmék
laundry	maghsal (place); hudūm el-ghasīl (linen)	rakht-shū khāna	chamashir-khāné
law	qānūn (*pl.* qawānīn)	qānūn	qānūn
martial law	ḥukm 'askarī	qānūn-e jangī	idāreyi urfiyé
law suit	da'wā	murāfa'a	da'va
lay (place, put)	ḥaṭṭ, yaḥuṭṭ	guzāshtan, guzār	qomaq, yatirmaq

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
lame	gagh	leng, kullak	shilla
lamp	lapter, lampa	chirā, lampā	lampa
lance	nizag	rūmm, ram	rūmḥa
land (*n.*)	tsamaq, yergir	ʻard	arʻa, yaushāna
land (*v.*)	tsamaq yellel	la-ʻard hātin *or* darbāz bōin	shārīʻul
landing party	tsamaq elnogh khoump		
landlord (land)	galvadzader	āgha, ṣāḥib mulk	āghā
(of house)	dander	khudāné māl	mārā baytā
language	lezou	zimān, azmān	lishāna
lantern	labder	fānūs, fanar	panhār
large	khoshor, medz	mazin, gaurā	rāba
last	verchin	pāshé, ākhir	kharrāya
late	oush		drang
laugh (*v.*)	khndal	kanī	gkheklé
laundry	lvatsaran	shushta-khāna, julshō-khāna	māséta d-jūlī
law	orenq	qānūn	qānōna
martial law	zinvoragan orenq	ḥukmé ʻaskarī, qānūné ḥarb	sharʻat qōshū-nāyā
law suit	tad	daʻwa	sher
lay (place, put)	tnel, barrgets-nel	dainānd, hélā	mutūlé

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
lazy	keslān, tembil	sust, tambal	témbél
lead (metal, *adj.*)	min raṣāṣa	surbī	qurshūn
lead (metal, *n.*)	raṣāṣ	surb	qurshūn
lead (*v.*)	qād, yaqūd	rāh-numā'ī kardan, kun	gétirmék, iléri düshmék
leaf	warqah (*pl.* awrāq)	barg	yapraq (tree); varaq (book)
leak (*n.*)	naqb, rasheh	sūrākh	délik
lean (*adj.*)	dha'īf, naḥīf	lāghar	za'īf, jiliz
learn	ta'allam, yata'allam	āmūkhtan, āmūz	örénmék
lease (*n.*)	muddat el-ījār; warqat el-ījār	yārah	ijar
leather	jild	charm, pūst	méshin
leave (*intrans.*)	rāḥ, yarūḥ		. . . -den chiqmaq
leave (*trans.*)	tarak, yitruk	guzāshtan, guzār	braqmaq, térk étmék
leech	'alaqah (*pl.* 'alaq), dūda (*pl.* dūd)	zālū	sülük
left (*adj.*)	shimāl, yisār	chap	sol
leg	rijl	pā, sāq	ayaq, bajaq
Legation (*or* Residency)	Sifārah	safārat, safārat-khāna	séfarét (khané)
leisurely	'ala kēf	bi-farāghat	yavash yavash
lend	dēyyan, yudēyyin *or* agradh, yugridh	qarz dādan, deh *or* 'āriyeh dādan, deh	ödünj vérmék

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
lazy	dzuyl	tembal	kislān
lead (metal, *adj.*)	gabaria	qlā, ziriji, surb	min riṣāṣ
lead (metal, *n.*)	gabar (metal); hramanada-routiun, arrachnor-toutium (of army)		riṣāṣ
lead (*v.*)	varel, arrach-nortel	pésh girtin, rīā nīshān dā	mūkhwélé ūrkha
leaf	derev; tought (folio)	chlū, pak, barak (tree); waraq, kāk-haz (paper)	terpā
leak (*n.*)	jeghqvatsq, dzag	kunā, kunn	nuqba
lean (*adj.*)	nihar	larr, razhī	daqīqa, za'īf
learn	sorvil	dasgirtīn	īleplé, yālep
lease (*n.*)	vartzoum	kirī, kiré, tā'jīr	hūjat
leather	gashi	charm	gilda
leave (*intrans.*)	mnal	hélān	shweqlé, treklé
leave (*trans.*)	thoghoul		
leech	dzroug	zūrī, dizrūk	'alaq, zurūwa
left	tzakh	chap	chappé
leg	srounq, vot	pé, sāq	shāqa, aqla
Legation (*or* Residency)	Tesbanadiun	Safāratkhāna, Īlchīkhāna	élchī khānā
leisurely	gamatsoren, hankistoren	btanāī	nīkhā
lend	pokh dal, shnorhel	bdain dā, bqarz dā	mdūyenné (money); iwellé (general)

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
length	ṭūl	dirāzī	boi, uzunluq
less	aqall, nāqiṣ	kamtar	daha āz, -dan āz
letter	maktūb (*pl.* makātīb), risālah (*pl.* rasā'il)	maktūb, nāmeh	méktūb
lettuce	khess	kāhū	marul
level (*adj.*)	'ādil (ground); mutasāwī	musaṭṭaḥ, hamwār	düz (of ground); doghru (even)
liberty	ḥurrīyah	āzādī	huriyét, azadliq
lie (down)	istalga, waga'; nām, yanām (rest on bed)	dirāz kashīdan, kash	yatmaq
lie (to tell a)	kedheb, yikdhab	durūgh guftan, gū	yalān söilémék
lie (*n.*)	kidhb	durūgh	yalān
lieutenant	mulāzim	mulāzim	mülāzim
life	'umr, ḥayāt	zindagī, ḥayāt	hayāt
life-belt	ḥizām en-najāt	kamarband-i-najāt	yüzméyé makhsūs kémér, jān qurturān kémér
lift	shāl, yashīl, rafa', yarfa'	bar dāshtan, dār	qaldirmaq
light (kindle, *v.*)	sha'al, yish'al	ranshan kardan	yaqmaq
(of sun, *n.*)	nūr	ranshanāyī	nūr, ishiq
light (of weight)	khafīf	subuk	khafīf
lighter (*n.*)	dūbah, chāyah		maghūna
lightning	barq	barq	shimshék
lights	adhwā (e. g. of ship); anwār	chirāgh	fénérlér, siliyon (of ship)
like (*v.*)	ḥabb, yaḥibb	dūst dāshtan	sevmék

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
length	yergaynoutiun	drézhī	yerkhūtha
less	nvaz	kémter	besh qiṣṣa
letter	namag	kāghad, mektūb	kthāwa
lettuce	hazar, marol	khass, kāhū	kāhī
level (*adj.*)	hart, havasar	rāst	shṭīḥa, rāst
liberty	azadoutiun	ḥurrīyat, āzāī	āzādūthā
lie (down)	barrgil	rra keutin, newestin	shṭeḥlé
lie (to tell a)	sdel, soud khosel	drāu kir	mdugillé
lie (*n.*)	soud	drāu, drū	dūgla
lieutenant	deghagal		mūlāzim
life	gianq	zhi, 'umr	khāyé
life-belt	gensakodi		
lift	partsratsnel, grel	helānin, bar girtin	muremlé
light (kindle *v.*)	varrel, lousavorel	āgir kirin, āgir dān, dāgirstandin	mtāpé
(of sun, *n.*)	arev	rōzhnāī, ruhnāī	bāhrā
light (of weight)	thethev	sūk, sevekk	qalūla
lighter	lasd, navag perrnagir		
lightning	gaydzag	birūsk, shimārta	berqā
lights	jrak	rūhnāī, rozhnāī	béhra
like (*v.*)	ouzel, havnil, tsangal	khwāstin	kebā'yī

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
like (similar to)	mithl	misl-e	beñzér
like this	hīchī	īn-taur	bu gibi
lime (material)	juṣṣ	āhak	kirej
limit	ḥadd (*pl.* ḥudūd)	ḥadd	hadd, kénār
limp (*v.*)	ʻaraj, yaʻraj	langīdan, lang	topallamaq
line	khaṭṭ (*pl.* khuṭūṭ); ṣaff (*pl.* sufūf) (row); ḥabl (rope)	satr	khatt, chizgi; saf (row); khalāt (rope)
lip	shifah (*dual.* shifatēn)	lab	dudāq
liquorice	sūs	sūs	sus
list	qāyimah	fehrist	déftér
(of ship)	mēl	mail namūdan-e kashtī bi-tarafī	égilmé
listen	istemaʻ, yestemiʻ	gūsh dādan, deh	dinlémék
little (of quantity)	qalīl (*adj.*); shewēya (*n.*)	kam	az (*adv.*); bir az (*n.*); küchük, ufaq (*adj.*)
live (exist)	ʻāsh, yaʻīsh	zindagānī kardan, kun	yashamaq
live (dwell)	seken, yiskun *or* qaʻad, yaqʻa	manzil dāshtan, dār	oturmaq, muqīm olmaq
lively	nashīṭ	khush ṭabʻ	janli
liver	kebid	jigar	qara-jiger
load (*v.*)	ḥammal, yuḥammil	bār kardan, kun	yüklémék
load (*n.*)	ḥiml	bār	yük, hamulé
load (a gun)	teres, yitras	pur kardan, kun	doldurmaq
local	maḥallī	mahallī	yerli

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
like (similar to)	hamanman, nman, bes	wakū, wakī, wak, mināna	mdamīyā
like this	asor bes, asor nman	wak vī, wak av	akh-d-āhā
lime (material)	gir	āhik, gach	kilshā
limit	sahman	ḥadd, senūr	ḥadd, tkhūma
limp (*v.*)	gaghal	kulak bu, shil bu	mkūleklé
line	kidz	réz	réza
lip	shourtn (*pl.* shrtounq)	lév, līw	siptha
liquorice	madoudag, maroukh	sūs, māhik	
list	tsoutsag	daftar, jadwal, siāhī	ṣidrā
(of ship)	dzril	mail gamī, tamāyul gamī	
listen	lsel	gūhdārin,	mūṣithlé
little (of quantity)	sagav, sagavathiv	hendek, pechak	zōra, qiṣṣa
live	abril	zhīn	khélé
live (dwell)	pnagil	manzil kir, sākin bū	skenné
lively	gaydarr, arruyk	chaspān	kashshīra
liver	liart	jerk	kauda
load (*v.*)	perrtsnel	bār kir	muṭenné
load (*n.*)	perr	bār	ṭéna
load (a gun)	ltsnel	girtin, darmān da	mdūrmenné
local	deghagan	waṭanī, mahallī	qūrbābī

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
lock (*n.*)	qufl	qufl	kilīd
lock (*v.*)	qaffal, yuqaffil	qufl zadan, zan	kilīdlémék
locomotive	jarrārah	chark-e bukhār-e rāh-e	loqomotif
locust	jarād	malakh	chékirgé
log (of wood)	jidh‘	chūb	odun
log (of ship)	qaid el-markab	rūz-nāme-yi-kashtī	jurnal
long (*adj.*)	ṭawīl	dirāz	uzun
look (*v.*)	shāf, yashūf *or* bāwa‘, yubāwi‘	āhan (*or* nigāh kardan)	baqmaq
look after	dār bāl ‘ala, yadīr bāl ‘ala	mutavajjih būdan	gözétmék
look at	bāwa‘ bi, yubāwi‘ bi	nigāh kardan, kun	baqmaq
look-out (*n.*)	nēbachī, ḥāris	nigāh bān	vārda nöbétjisi
loop-hole	nōcha	sūrākh	mazghal déliyi
loose (*adj.*)	mafkūk (unbound); rakhū (not tight)	sust, gushāda	rabtsiz
loot (*n.*)	nahb, ghanīmah	ghārat, yaghmā	yaghmā, ghanimét
lose	dhēyya‘, yudhēyyi‘	gum kardan, kun	ghāib étmék
loss	khasārah (*pl.* khasā’ir); faqd	ziyān	zarar, zayāt
losses (in battle)	telefīyāt	talafāt	téléfiyet
louse	qamlah	shipish	bit
love (*v.*)	ḥabb, yaḥibb	dūst dāshtan, āshiq būdan	sévmék

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
lock (*n.*)	paganq	qifl	qipla
lock (*v.*)	pagel, goghpel	qifl kir	qfellé, ghleqlé
locomotive	vayrasharzh	charkhé ālāté bukhār	māshīnā
locust	morekh	kula, chakerjik	qamṣa
log	dzarri gojgh, gojgh	qōrma, dār	qorma
log (of ship)	navabedi orakir		
long	yergar	derézh	yarīkha
look (*v.*)	desnel, nayil	fakkirin, tamāsha kirin, rwāndin, méza kirin, nairin	gāshiq
look after	knamq danil (to take care of); pndrel (to seek for)	muḥāfadha kirin, ḥimāyat kirin	mtagbir
look at	nael, tidel	fakeriān, barékhwa dā	nṭéré, khéré ill
look-out (*n.*)	shrchated, ted navi	pāswān, hāris	nāṭōra
loop-hole	hradzerb, pakhsdi djampa	sūrākh, kunā	biz'a
loose (*adj.*)	tuyl, luydz	shil, laqlōk	mrapīya
loot (*n.*)	avar, goghoboud	tālān	néhba
lose	gortsnel, gorousanel	berzā hindā kir	msūkéré, khṣéré
loss	gorousd	zarar	zarar, kheṣārah
losses (in battle)	gorousd, vnas	khusrān, khisārat	tlīqī
louse	vochil	spéh	qalma
love (*v.*)	sirel, siraharil	khwāzīn, ḥibīn, wāīn, 'ashq kirin	mākhib

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
low	nāṣī, wāṭī	past	alchaq
low water	jezr el-moi	jazr-i-daryā	déniz jézri, déniz chékilmesi
loyal	amīn (*pl.* amīnīn)	farmānbar-dar, shāh-parast	sadiq
luck	naṣīb	bakht	bakht
luggage	aghrādh (*pl.*)	asbāb, ashyā	éshya
lunch	ghada	nahār	oilé yéméyi
lung	ma'lāq, riyah (riyatēn)	shush, riya	aq jigér
machine	makīnah	māshīn, charkh	charkh, maqina
machine-gun	rashshāsh	tūp-e chand lūlage khud pur kun, tūp-e musalsal	mitralyūz
mad	majnūn	dīvāna	déli
magazine (powder)	makhzan el-bārūd	makhzan-i-bārūd	bārūt makhzeni, jéb-khāné
maize	idhrat esh-shām	zurrat	misr boghdayi, dāri
major	bimbāshi	sarhang	bimbāshi
make	sawwa, yusawwī	sākhtan, sāz	yapmaq
man (male)	rejul (*pl.* rijāl) *or* rijāl (*pl.* rijajīl)	mard	érkék
man (person)	ādamī, nefer		adam
manager	mudīr	nāzir	idāré édén, müdir
many	kathīr, hewāyi	khailī	choq
map	kharīṭah *or* kharṭah	kharīṭeh, naqsheh	kharīta
March	Adhār, Mārs	Farwardīn, Azār	Mart
march (*n.*)	masīr (of troops)	harakat, mashī (*properly* mashy). *Also* kūch	harékét

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
low	tsadzr	khwār, kūrt	khétya, kirya
low water	chri tsadznaln, deghadvoutiun		
loyal	havadarim	amīn, khudān sōz, mukhlis	tābit
luck	pakht	bakht, Daulat	iqbal
luggage	gah gaarasi	kelomel, asbāb, tisht-misht	māne
lunch	michnadjash	ṭāsht, chāst	shārūthā
lung	toq	sull, shush	rātā
machine	meqena	mākīna, ālat	māshīnā
machine-gun	meqenagan hratsan	tōp khudān charkh	topang māshīnāyā
mad	khent	dīn, bé'āqil	shīdānā
magazine (powder)	mtheranots varrotaran	makhzané bārūdé	makhzan d-bārud
maize	ekiptatsoren	zūrat	dhūra
major	hazarabed, major	bimbāshī	bimbāshī
make	unel, shinel	chai kir	'ewedhlé
man (male)	mart	merōv, piāō	nāsha
man (person)	anntz		
manager	kordzagadar	sarkirdiā, nāzir, péshkār	mtagberānā
many	shad, pazmativ	galak, zāf, zūr, pirr	rābā
map	qardez		
March	Mard	Āzār	Ādhar
march (*n.*)	qalel, yertal	kūch, marḥalat, sair	zāltā

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
march (*v.*)	mesha, yimshī	kūchīdan, kūch	yürümék
mare	faras	mādiyān	qisraq
marine	baḥrī	bahrī	silahendaz néféri (*n.*); bahriyé (*adj.*)
mark	nīshān (target); ether (e.g. on paper)	nishān, ʻalāmat	nishān; tamgha (on paper, &c.)
market	sūq	bāzār	charshi, pāzār
marksman	nēshenchī	tīr-andāz, tufasy-andāz	nishānji
marriage	zawāj (state); ʻurs (wedding)	arūsī (wedding)	nikiah
marsh	hōr (*pl.* ahwār)	khalāb, waḥal	balchiq, bataqliq
mast	dugal	sutūn-i-jahāz	dirék
master	sāḥib, ra'īs	āqā	éféndi, sahib
mat	bāria, basāṭ	hasīr	hasir
match (lucifer)	kibrīt, shakhāṭah	kibrīt	kibrīt
matter, it does not	mā yukhālif	aibī na-dārad	sarar yoq
mattress	dōshek	dūshak	shilté
May	Aiyār, Māyū	Aiyār	Māyis
me	-nī (*suffix*)	marā	béni, bana (to me)
mealies	idhrah		misr boghdayi
mean (signify)	ʻana, yaʻni	maʻnī dāshtan, dār	né démék (= 'what does . . . mean ?')
meaning	maʻnā		maʻna
measure (*v.*)	qās, yaqīs *or* qaddar, yuqaddir (of size), kāl, yakīl (of capacity)	paimūdan, paimā	ülchmék
measure (*n.*)	qiyās, qadr, kēl	miqyās	ülchi
meat	laḥm	gūsht	ét

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
march (*v.*)	chwel, unthanal, qalel	chōn	rkhishlé
mare	zampig	mahīn, māīn	sūsta
marine	dzovayin	baḥrī, deryāī	yāmānā
mark (*n.*)	nshan	nīshān	nīshan
market	shouga	sūq	shūqa
marksman	varbed nshanarrou	nīshānchī	
marriage	amousnoutiun	zawāj, mārihī	khlūlā
marsh	jahij, mor	hez, bésha	waḥla
mast	gaym		
master	varbed	khudān, āgha	stādha, raīs
mat	khsir	ḥesīr	haṣīrā
match (lucifer)	loutski	kibrīt, shakhāṭah	shakhāṭé, kibrit
matter, it does not	vnas chouni	teshtak téda nīna	zārār līt
mattress	basdar	dōshak	shwītā
May	Mayis	Īyār	Īyar
me	zis (*acc.*), intz (*dat.*)	mi, min	-ī (*suffix*)
mealies	simit, tarm egyptatsoren	zūrat	dhūra
mean (signify)	gamil, midq sunenal	khwast, marām kir	qṣidlé
meaning	nshanagoutiun		mā'nāya
measure (*v.*)	chapel	pīvīn, qiyās kir	kellé, qeslé
measure (*n.*)	chap	pīwān, qiyās	kaila, qyāsa
meat	mis	gōsht	beṣra

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
medal	nīshān	nishān-e sikka	nishān
medicine	dawa	dawā	ʻilāj
meet	lāqa, yulāqī	mulāqāt kardan, kun	rāst gélmék, bulushmaq
melon	reggī (water melon), batīkh	kharbūza	qarpūz
melted butter	dihn	raughan	eridilmish saï-yaghi
mend	ṣallaḥ, yuṣalliḥ	marammat kardan, kun *or* durust kardan, kun	taʻmīr étmék
merchandise	amwāl tujārīyah	māl-e tijārat	mal, émval
merchant	tājir (*pl.* tujjār)	tājir	tājir
mercy	raḥmah	rahmat	mérhamét
message	risālah	paighām	khabér, peïam
metal	maʻdin (*pl.* maʻādin)	maʻdan	maʻdén
metalled road	darb muḥaddad	shōṣeh	shōsé
middle	wasṭ; nuṣṣ (of time)	miyān, wasaṭ	ōrta, mérkéz yari
mile	mīl (*pl.* amyāl)	mīl	mīl, yirmi taqqa
military	ʻaskarī	nizāmī, ʻaskarī	ʻaskéri, nizāmi
milk	ḥalīb	shīr	süt
mill	ṭāḥūnah, maṭḥanah	āsyā	déyirmén
millet	dakhn	arzan	dāri
mind (*n.*)	ʻaql	khātir	ʻaql, zihn
mine (*pron.*)	mālī	māl-i-man	bénimki
mine (explosive, *n.*)	lughm (*pl.* alghām)	lagham	laghim
mineral	maʻdin (*pl.* maʻādin)	jamādāt (*pl.*) (*better* maʻdan)	maʻdén

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
medal	shqanshan	nishān, medāl	nīshanqa
medicine	tegh	darmān, ʻalāj	darmāna
meet	hantibel	rāst hātin, lbar yak bū	khzélé, tāpiq
melon	sekh, tsmerong (water melon)	gindōr, qārpūs	shiptīyā, bashīlé
melted butter	iugh, yegh	rūn	meshkha, duhāna
mend	norokel, gargadel	pīnā *or* ruqʻat kir, dūrānin	mrūqélé
merchandise	abranq, vadjarrq	māl (wares); tijārat (trade)	tājīrūthā
merchant	vajarragan	bāzirgān, tujār	tajāra, bāzargāna
mercy	voghormoutiun	dād, marhamat, bakht	rakhmé
message	badkam	khabar, kākhaz	khubra
metal	medagh	mādan	maʻdan
metalled road	khjoughi		
middle	michin, mech degh	nīv, naurās	palga
mile	mghon	mīl	mīla
military	zinvoragan	ʻaskarī	ʻaskarī
milk	gath	shīr	khelya
mill	aghoriq	āsh	ūrkhé, arkhel
millet	goreg	gāris	gāris, dikhna
mind (*n.*)	midq	ʻaql, fikr, khaṭir, bīr	khīyāl
mine (*pron.*)	ims, imins	yāmin, émin	di-ī
mine (explosive, *n.*)	agan		
mineral	hanqayin	mādan, filiz (*n.*); maʻdanī (*adj.*)	d-māʻdānī

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
Ministry (civil)	Nadhārah	vazārat	nazarét
minute	daqīqah (*pl.* daqāyiq)	daqīqeh	daqīqa, taqqa
mirage	sarāb	sarāb	sérab
mirror	mirāgā	āyīna	ainé
missing	mafqūd	gum shudeh, nāqiṣ	éksik, ghāib
mist	dhabāb	sharīr	sis, duman
mix	khalaṭ, yakhliṭ *or* mezej, yimzaj	āmīkhtan, āmīz	qarishdirmaq
Mohammedan	Muslim	musulmān	muslim
moisture	raṭūbah	rutūbat	rutubét
monastery	dēr	khānqāh	tékké
Monday	Yōm el-ithnēn	Dūshambeh	Bāzār-ertési
money	flūs	pūl	para
money-changer	sarrāf	sarrāf	sarraf
monitor	monitor	monitor	monitor séfinési
monsoon	baraṣāt (*pl.*)	bād-e mausim	mevsim ruskiari
month	shahr (*pl.* ishhur)	māh	āi
moon	gamar	māh	āi, mahitāb (moonlight)
new moon	hilāl	māh-e nau	āi bashi, hilal
full moon	bedr	badr	bédr
moor (tie up)	rabaṭ, yarbaṭ	bi-rīsmān	baghlamaq
more	akther (*compar.*), ba'ad, zāyid	ziyādtar	ziyādé, dahā, fazla (excess)

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
Ministry (civil)	nakhararoutiun (qaghaqagan)	wizārat	wāzīrī
minute	robe, vargian	daqīqah	daqīqah
mirage	(modaqoyn)	sarāv, kurāb	shārāw
mirror	hayeli	āwīna, nīnk	nōrā, mirré
missing	gorsvadz	hindā bū	msūkra
mist	mek, marakhough	dūman, khūz, mīzh	hōgā
mix	kharrnel	taik dā, khalaṭ kir	khleṭlé
Mohammedan	Dadjig	musulmān	mashlmānā
moisture	khonavoutiun	rutūbat, shilī, tarrī	terīūthā, talilūtha
monastery	vanq, menastan	dér	daira
Monday	Yergoushapti	Dūshambah	Trūshāba
money	tram, sdag	pāra, dirāf	zūzī
money-changer	loumayapokh	ṣarrāf	surāp, ṣarrāfa
monitor	rasmanav		
monsoon	(darevor hoghm)	mausūm, faṣlé bā	
month	amis	haīv, māh	yerkha
moon	lousin	māh, haīv, mōng	séhra
new moon	nor lousin	hīvā nū, hīv hilātī, hilāl	sāhrā khātā
full moon	gadar lousin	hīvā tām, badr	badrī
moor (tie up)	baranov gabel	gamī shedāndin, langar āvitin *or* āvizhin	
more	aveli	galakter, peterr	besh kabīra, zodā

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
morning	ṣabāḥ	ṣubḥ	sabāh
mortar	juṣṣ	bastan (for chemicals); hāvan (military) *or* tūp-e qumbara-andāzī	kharj
mosque	jāmi', mesjid	masjid	jami', mésjid
mosquito	baqq (bug)	pashsheh	sivri sinék
mosquito-net	kullah	pashsha-band	sineklik, jibinlik
mother	umm	mādar	ana, vālidé
motor-boat	markab gāz	kashtiya khudravān	
mound	tell (*pl.* tulūl)	tappa, khakrīz (military)	tépéjik, hüyük
mountain	jebel (*pl.* jibāl)	kūh	dāgh
mountain-range	silsilat jibāl	kūhistān	dāgh silsilési, sira dāghlar
mouse	fār (*pl.* fīrān)	mush	sichan, faré
mouth	ḥalq (*pl.* ḥulūq)	dahan	aghz
mouth (of river)	ṣadr (esh-shaṭṭ)	dahaneh	(irmaq) aghzi
move (*trans.*)	ḥarrak, yuḥarrik	taḥrīk kardan, kun	naql étmék, qimildatmaq
move (*intrans.*)	taḥarrak, yataḥarrak	ḥarakat kardan, kun	qimildanmaq
much (*adj.*)	kathīr	bisyār	choq
much (*adv.*)	kathīr	khailī	choq
mud	ṭīn, waḥl	gil	chamur
muddy	muwaḥḥil	gil-ālūd	chamurli
mud-flats	waḥl		balchiq
mule	böghl (*pl.* baghāl)	astar, qātir	qatir
muleteer	baghghāl, mukārī	charvadār	qatirji

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
morning	arravod	ṣubaḥī, subā	qadamta, be-ṣpāré
mortar	shaghakh	hāwan	gejkhāq
mosque	mzgit	masjid, jém, misgaft	māchid, jéma
mosquito	mzhegh	khépō	bāqa
mosquito-net	mzhghougi ourrgan	shabakaé-péshā	shabākā d-tan-zil
mother	mayr	dā, dyā	yemma
motor-boat	sharzhich maguyg	ḥarakatli-gamī	qāyīq māshī-nāyā
mound	badvar	tepūla, tall	ṭel
mountain	lerr	chīā	ṭūra
mountain-range	lerrnashghta		
mouse	moug	mishk	āqübrā
mouth	peran	dav	kemma, pomā
mouth (of river)	kedaperan	sarakānī	sarakānī
move (*trans.*)	sharzhel	takāndin, tāḥ-rik kir	mḥūriklé
move (*intrans.*)	sharzhil		
much (*adj.*)	shad	galak, zōf, zūr	kabīra
much (*adv.*)	shad, huyzh		rrāba
mud	tsekh, dighm	gerrek, herī, qum	ṭīna, waḥla, taqna
muddy	tshekhod		
mud-flats	dghmayin kedaperan		
mule	chori	ester	kōdhenta, kawedhna
muleteer	choreban	estervān, qāterchī	qāterchī

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
municipal	beledī	baladī	béladiyé
munitions	mu'addāt el-harb	muhimmāt-e jangī (*or* lavāzim-e qushūn)	muhimmāt
must	lāzim	bāyad (*impersonal*)	-meli, -mali (*suffix to verbal root*); lāzim (necessary)
mutiny (*n.*)	'aṣyān, thōrah	'aṣyān	'isyān, tughyān
mutton	laḥm ghanam	gūsht-i-gūsfand	qoyun éti
my	-ī (*suffix*), mālī (*after noun*)	-i-man, -am (*suffix*)	bénim, -im (*suffix*)
myself	nefsī	khudam	kendim
nail (iron)	bismār (*pl.* basāmīr)	mīkh	chivi, mikh
nail (finger)	dhafr (*pl.* adhāfir)	nākhun	tirnāq
name	ism (*pl.* asāmī *and* ismā)	nām	ism, ad
what is the name of ?	shism ?	ism-ash chīst ?	-é né dérlér ?
narrow	dhaiyiq	tang	dār
napkin	peshqīr	dastmāl-e sufra	peshkir
nationality	jinsīyah	millīyat; vatan (native country)	milliyet
native (*n.*)	ibn el-bilād	būmī	yerli
naval	baḥrī	daryā'ī, baḥrī	bahr
navigable	yanmeshī bi-safīnah	qābil-e ubūr-e kashtī	seiri sefayiné musa'id
navigate	qād el-markab, yaqūd el-markab	kashtī rāndan, rān	qapudanliq étmék

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
municipal	taghabedagan, qaghaqayin	madanī, baladī	d-mdītā
munitions	rrazmamterq	chakké sharr, maṣālihé sharr, jabakhāna	asbābī qōshōnāyī, jabokhāna
must	bedq e	lāzim, garak	lāzim
mutiny (*n.*)	absdampoutiun	ʻeṣiān	ʻāṣīyūtha, mārōdhūtha
mutton	vochkhari mis	gōshté pazz	biṣra d-érba
my	im	-min (*suffix*)	-ī (*suffix*), di-ī
myself	inqs, yesinqs, inqzinqs	az bikhwa, min bkhō	gānī
nail (iron)	kam, peverr	bizmār	bismāra
nail (finger)	yeghoung	nīnuk	ṭipra
name	anoun	nāv	shimmā
what is the name of ?	inché anoune —i ?	nāvé...chīā ?	mā shimmā d- ?
narrow	negh	tang, task, jemik	ʻīqa
napkin	antzerrots	pishkīr, pāshik, kaffīya	dasmāl
nationality	azkaynoutiun, azkoutiun	millat	milat
native (*n.*)	deghatsi, pnig	ahl balad	yerlūyā
naval	navayin		
navigable	navargeli	qābil ʻubūr, na-kūr	spayi qā gāmīye
navigate	navargel		

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
navigation	milāḥah, qiyādat el-markab	rāh barī-yi-jahāz	qapudanliq
navy	uṣṭūl, baḥrīyah	jahāzāt	donanma
near	jarīb *or* qarīb	nazd, nazdīk	yaqin
necessary (it is)	lāzim	lāzim ast	lāzim, gérék
neck	ruqbah	gardan	boyun
need (*v.*)	iḥtāj ila, yaḥtāj ila	muḥtāj shudan, shau	muhtāj olmaq, istémék
needle	ibrah (*pl.* ibar)	sūzan	iyné
neighbour	jār (*pl.* jīrān)	hamsāya	qonshu
neighbourhood	maḥallah (quarter of town); qurb	nazdīkī (*or* hamsāyagī)	qonshuluq
neither . . . nor	lā . . . wa-lā	nah . . . nah	né . . . né
net	shebekah	dām	āgh
(against mosquitoes)	kullah		sineklik
never	abadan (*with negative*)	abadan (*followed by* nā, 'not')	hīch (+*negative*)
new	jadīd	nau	yéni
news	khabr (*sing.*)	akhbār	khabér
newspaper	jarīdah (*pl.* jarāyid)	rūznāmeh	ghazéta
next	thānī (of time); agrab	dīgar	yandaki (beside); soñra (after)
nice	ṭayyib	laṭīf, khush	eyi, güzél, tatli
night	lēlah	shab	géjé

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
navigation	navargoutiun		
navy	dormigh		
near	mod, merdz-avor	nézīk	qorba
necessary (it is)	anhrazhesht e	lāzim, garak	lāzim, ki-mwā-jib
neck	viz	ustū, hafk, mil	qdhāla
need (*v.*)	bedq ounenal, garodil	bḥaujah	sniqlé
needle	asegh	sūzhen, derzī	khmāṭa, mkhāṭa
neighbour	tratsi	jīrān, han-samāl	shwawa
neighbourhood	shrchagayq, tratsioutiun	lādī, qurb, nézīkī	qūrbābī
neither . . . nor	voch . . . yev voch	nā . . . nā	lā . . . w-lā
net	ourrgan, tsants	shabāk, dam	shabākah
never	voch yerpeq, pnav	hīch, abadan	abadan, hīch
new	nor	nū, nishk	khātha
news	lour, deghegou-tiun	khabar	khūbrā khāthā
newspaper	therth, lrakir	gāzétā	gāzéta
next	arrachiga (proximo); gits (adja-cent); hedo (thereafter); yergrort (secondly)	pāshé, mut-taṣil	khenā, lkes
nice	azniv, qnqoush	bāsh, chāk	randa
night	kisher	shav	lailé

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
nippers	minqāsh	ambur	qisaj
no	lā, lākhair	nā-khair	khair, yoq
noise	qalabāliqh, ḥiss	shulūq	ses, shamata
nomad	bedwī (*pl.* bedu)	ilyātī	yürük
noon	dhuhr	zuhr	öilén
no one	mā ḥad	hīch kas	hīch bir kimsé
north	shimāl	shamāl	yildiz, shémāl
northern	shamālī	shamālī	shémāli
nose	khashm	dimāgh, bīnī	būrūn
nosebag	mikhlāt	tūbreh	yém torba-si
not	mā (*with verbs*); mū, mūsh (*with adj.*)	nā	déyil, mé (*in verbs*)
not at all	lā lā	hargiz (*followed by negative*)	hīch, assla (*both followed by negative*)
note (letter)	teskerah, maktūb	ruq'a	mektub
(promissory)	kampiyālah	tamassuk-e naqdī, *or* hujjat	qambial
note-book	defter	daftarcha	defter
nothing	lā shē, hīch	hīch (*with negative*)	hīch bir shei
nothing, for (gratis)	bi-lāsh	muft *or* majjānan	badi-hava
not yet	lis-sā mā (*followed by verb*), mū ba'ad	tā-bi-ḥāl	daha déyil, henōz déyil
November	Tishrīn eth-thānī	Tishrīn-i-sānī	Téshrīn-i-sāni
now	hessā; gā'id (*before verb*)	aknūn, alān	shimdi
nowhere	mā (*with verb*) fi ai makān	hīch jā	hīch bir yérde

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
nippers	aqdzan gasd; qelbetin (Turkish)	miqāsh, gāz, māshik, kalbittīn	malktā, kalbittin
no	voch	nō, na	lā
noise	tzayn	dāng, faryād	qālmāqāl
nomad	vranapnag	kōcharī, rewendān	kōchārī
noon	ges or	nīvrō, nīmarō	palgé d-yōma
no one	voch voq	chū kas	chū khā
north	hiusis	shimāl	garbya
northern	hiusisayin		
nose	qith	difin, qupu	nakhīra
nosebag	dobrag (tziou snounti)	juhōr, tūra	'alīqah, juhorré
not	voch, ch'	nā	lā
not at all	amenevin	qaṭ'an, abadan	qaṭ'an, abadan, hīch
note (letter)	domsag, kroutiun	kākhaz, maktūb	ktāwā
(promissory)	khosdmnakir	'ahd-nāma	hüjat
note-book	houshadedr	kitāb, kākhaz	dāptār
nothing	vochinch	chū tesht, hīch	chū mindī
nothing, for (gratis)	vochinch, tzri	balāsh	herwā, balāsh
not yet	terr voch, dogavin voch	hésh nā, hīzhī nā	hésh lā
November	Noémper	Teshrīni sānī, pāīz	Tchérī kharāya
now	hima, ayzhm	nuhā, istāka	daha, ādīyā
nowhere	voch oureq, voch mi degh	bchū jā, bchū ardā	b-chū dūktha

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
number (*n.*)	'adad	'adad	'aded, miqdār
nut	jōzah (*pl.* jōz)	jauz	findiq
oasis	wāḥah	sabza-zār dar biyābān	chölin arasinda chairliq
oar	mijdhāf	pārū	kürék
oats	hurṭumān, shūfān	dausar	yulaf
obedient	ṭāyi', muṭī'	muṭī'	itā'atli
obstacle	māni (*pl.* mawāni)	māni'	mani'
obstinate	'anīd	sar-kash, khud-sar	'inādji
occupation (military)	iḥtilāl	zabt-e mulk	istiyla
ocean	baḥr	uqyānūs	bahr-i-muhit
o'clock	es-sā'ah	sā'at-e	sa'at
October	Tishrīn awwal	Tishrīn-i-auwal	Téshrīn-i-évvél
office	idārah, hāfīs	daftar-khōna (place)	qalém
officer (military)	dhābiṭ	ṣāḥib-manṣab	zābit
officer (civil)	mā'mūr	sāhib mansib *or* ahl-e qalam	me'mur
often	kathīr marrāt	bārhā, mukarraran	choq kérré, choq défa'
oil	zēt, dihn	roghan	yagh
oil (petroleum)	gāz, nafadh	naft, *or* raghan-e sang	ghaz
oke (2¾ lb.)	ḥuggah	vaqīya	oqa
old (ancient)	'atīq, qadīm	kohneh	ески, qadīm
old (worn)	bālī	kohneh, farsūdeh	ески
old man	shāyib,	pīr	ikhtiyār

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
number (*n.*)	thiv	ʿadad, azhmār	minyāna
nut	gaghin, enguyz	finūq, gūz, gwīz	gōzā
oasis	ovasis	marj	ōāsā, marga
oar	thi, thiag		
oats	varsag		
obedient	hnazant	ṭāīʿ, ātī	muṭīʿ, mshuʿ-bdha
obstacle	khoch, arkelq	mānīʿ	maklétá, mānil
obstinate	hamarr	kalahishk, ʿanīd	ʿānīd, ʿāṣī
occupation (military)	dirapetoutiun	zabṭ, taḥt zabt	dwaqta bī-yitqoshon
ocean	ovgianos	oqiānōs, baḥr	ūqyānūs
o'clock	zham	sāʿat	sāʿat
October	Hogtemper	Teshrīni auwal	Chérī qamāya
office	bashdon (post); krasenyag (premises)	wazīfa, khidmat	manṣāb
officer (military)	sba, zinvoragan	zābiṭ	zābiṭ
officer (civil)	bashdonya	mustakhdamé hukūmat, ṣāhibé wazīfa	māmūr
often	hajakh	purrjārān, galak jārā	kabīré gahātha, rābāgāhi
oil	tzet, iugh	rūné zait	zaitha
oil (petroleum)	qaraiugh	nift, gāz	nyūtā, zift
oke ($2\frac{3}{4}$ lb.)	okha	waqīya	waqīyā
old (ancient)	hiṇ	kōhn, ʿatīq	ʿatīqa
old (worn)	mashadz	pīra, parpetī	jīqa
old man	dzer	īkhtiār, pīr	sāwa

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
old woman	'ajūz	pīreh zan	qoja qāri
older	akbar		daha eski
oldest	el-akbar		eñ eski
omelet	'ajjah, khāgīnah	khāgīneh	qaighana
on	'ala	bālā'ī	ustundé, uzérindé
once, twice, thrice	ferd marrah, marratēn, thalāth marrāt	yak, dū martabeh, seh martabeh	bir kérré, iki kérré, üch kérré
at once	bis-sā'ah, hālan		chabuq
onion	baṣlah (*pl.* baṣal)	piyāz	soghan
only (*adj.*)	wāḥid (one)	vahīd *or* yagāna	yaliniz
only (*adv.*)	faqaṭ	ū bas (*at end*)	anjaq, yaliniz
open (*adj.*)	maftūḥ, mafkūk	kushād, maftūḥ, wāz shudeh	achiq
open (*v.*)	fekk, yafukk feteḥ, yiftaḥ	kushādan, kushād	achmaq
operation (military)	ḥarakah	amalīyāt-e jangī	harékét
opposite	qubāl	muqābil	qarshi
oppressive (heat)	thaqīl	shadīd, sakht	aghir
or	au *or* yō	yā . . . yā	yā . . . yākhod
orange	portugālah	portuqāl raranj	portaqal
order (*v.*)	amar, yā'mur	farmūdan, farmā	émr étmék, buyūrmaq
order (*n.*)	amr (*pl.* awāmir)	farmān, amr	émr, firmān

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
old woman	barrav	pīrazhin	sauta
older	avelidzer (of person); avelihin (of thing)		
oldest	,,		
omelet	tzvatsegh		
on	i vera, vra	lsar, labān	elled, l-'él
once, twice, thrice	mi ankam, yergou ankam, yereq ankam	jārak, dū jāra, sé jāra	khdha gaha, tetté gahātha, ṭellath gahātha
at once	anmichabes		ālbā'āl
onion	sokh	pīvāz	bislā
only (*adj.*)	miayn	fard, yakkāna	īkhīdāyā
only (*adv.*)	miayn, sagayn	bas	bass, faqaṭ
open (*adj.*)	pats	va, wa	pthīkha
open (*v.*)	panal	vakirdin	pthékhlé
operation (military)	kordzoghoutiun	ḥarakāt *or* mu'āmalāt 'askarīya	tagbīr qoshonaya
opposite	timats, hagarag	pish-meqābil, lebar	derqūl
oppressive (heat)	heghtzoutsich (chermoutiun)	sart, dizhwār	khamīmā
or	gam	yā, yān	au, yan
orange	narinch; portouqal (Turkish)	purtaqāl	nārinj
order (*v.*)	hramael, badvirel	amr kir, naid da	pqidhlé, mūṣélé
order (*n.*)	hraman, badver	farmān, amr	pugdāna, amr

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
order (system, *n.*)	nidhām, tertīb	qā'ida, usūl	nizām
other	ākhar (*pl.* akharīn)		o bir, digér
our	-na (*suffix*)	-i-mā (*suffix*)	bizim
ours	mālna, lena	māl-i-mā	bizimki
out of	min	bīrūn, az andarūn	-dan, -dan dishāri
outpost	ṭalī'ah	qarāwul	iléri qol
outside	barra, khārij	bīrūn	disharda
oven	tannūr	tannūr	furun
overboard	ila 'l-baḥr, ila 'l-moi	dar āb uftādeh	dénizé düsh müsh
overflow (*v.*)	fādh, yafīdh	labrīz shudan *or* azkanār	tashmaq
owing to, because of	min sebeb	az barāyi	-ichin, -dolayi, sébébilé
owl	būmah	bum, tajāvuz kardan	baiqush
ox	thōr	nar gāu	öküz
pack-saddle (camel)	khurj el-jemel	khurjīn-i-shutur	dévé khamūti
pack-saddle (mule)	khurj el-böghl	khurjīn-i-qātir	sémér
paddle (*n.*)	gharrāfah	pārū	kürék
paddle-wheel	parwānah	charkh-e kashtiye bukhār	pérvané
padlock	qufl	qufl	asma kilīd
pail	baldi, saṭl	dalv	qogha
pain	waja'	dard	āghri
paint (*n.*)	bōya, ṣabagh	rang	boya
Palestine	Filistīn, Esh-Shām	Filistīn	Filistīn
palm (tree)	nakhlah (*pl.* nakhl)	nakhl	khurma aghachi

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
order (system, *n.*)	gark, troutiun, garkatroutiun, sistem	tartīb, uslūb	rīzā, tartīb
other	ayl		khéna
our	mer	-ma (*suffix*)	-an (*suffix*)
ours	mern, merinn	yāma, māléma	dīyan
out of	ardaqo, tours	zh- (*prefix*)	min
outpost	arrachabah (zorq)	péshé ʻaskaré	qamayūtha d-ʻaskar
outside	toursn	derī	barāyé
oven	pourr	fūrī, tannūr	tanūra
overboard	naven tours, dzov angial	labaḥré	b-go yāma
overflow (*v.*)	hortil	pirr-āv būin, ṭāfih būin	shāpikh
owing to, because of	badjarrav	lbar, bō	min sabab
owl	pou	būm, baiqūsh	
ox	yez	gāh	taura
pack-saddle (camel)	palan, hamed		
pack-saddle (mule)	palan, hamed	kurtān, palān	rashwāna, kurtāna
paddle (*n.*)	tiag	miqdāf, pārū	
paddle-wheel	tiagi-aniv	takhtaé dūlābé, charkhé gamī	
padlock	goghbanq	qifl	qüplā
pail	touyl (*or* touil)	satlōk, lagan, childōsh	dōlchā
pain	tsav	aish, zhān, dard	marʻa
paint (*n.*)	nerg	rang, naqish	rang
Palestine	Baghesdin	Filistīn	Filiṣṭin
palm (tree)	armaveni	dārékhurmā	khūrmā

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
pannier	sellah (*pl.* eslal)	lauda *or* zambīl (very large and made of wood)	küfé
paper	khāghid (material); waraqah (a paper)	kāghaz	kyāt
parasol	shemsīyah	chatr	shemsiyé
parley (*n.*)	mudhākarah		mukyalémé
parole (*n.*)	kalām sharf	va'da-ye bāz gasht	söz, parola
party (dinner)	'azīmah	ziyāfat	ziyafét
pass (defile)	madhīq	tang, gardaneh	boghaz, géchid
passage (an act)	murūr	guzār-gāh	géchmé
passage (way)	majāz	ma'bar	géchéjék yér, géchid
passage-money	nōl	ujrat-e ubūr *or* ujrat-e safar-e daryā	navlun, yol parasi
passport	pasaport, teskerah		passaporta, téskéré
password	ism el-lēlah	ism-i-shab	parola
pasturage	mar'ā	alafzār	otlaq, chaïr, yaila
path	sikkah (*pl.* siket), darb (*pl.* durūb)	rāh-i-kūchak	iz, méslék
patrol (*n.*)	dawwarīyah	pāsbān	qol
patrol (*v.*)	dawwar, ḥaras	pāsbānī kardan, kun	dolashmaq
pay (*n.*)	ma'āsh, shahrīyah	ujreh, mawājib	ma'āsh; āiliq (monthly); gündelik (daily)

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
pannier	goghov; seped (Turkish)	zanbīl, salik	kājāwā
paper	thoukht	kāghaz	warāqa
parasol	hovanots	séwān, shamsīya	shumsīyā
parley (*n.*)	panagtsoutiun	ākhivtin	mhamzamta, mahkaitha
parole (*n.*)	khosdoum	kalām sharaf	qōlā
party (dinner)	djashgeruyt	da'wat, ziāfat	qōnākhligh
pass (defile)	girj (of mountains)	galī, bōghāz	bōghāz, rāōla galīya
passage (an act)	antsq	ré, rīā, rābōrī	sāpar
passage (way)	jampa, janabarh	rré, rrīā	ālültā, kolānā, ūrkhā
passage-money	navou dzakhs; navargoutian tram	kré, ḥaq	kherj d-sāpār
passport	antsakir		teskeré
password	antsaparr, parola		
pasturage	jarag, arod	cherīa, lwar, mar'a	mar'īyā, zōzān
path	shavigh, hedq	rré, rrīā	ūrkha
patrol (*n.*)	bahaban, kishertabah	pāsbān, naubachī	nāṭōré
patrol (*v.*)	patrol unel hertabahel	naubah kir	nṭéré
pay (*n.*)	vjar, vartsq	ḥaq, pārā	ḥaq

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
pay (*v.*)	dafa', yidfa'	adā kardan, kun	parasini vérmék, ma'āsh vérmék
peace	ṣulḥ, salām	ṣulḥ	sulh
pear	armōṭ	gulābī	armud
peasant	fellāḥ	dehātī *or* zirā' at-kār	köili
pen	qalam (*pl.* aqlām)	qalam	qalém
pencil	qalm raṣāṣ	midād	qurshun qalém
pennant	bēraq		filandéré
perfume	'aṭr	itr	hosh qoqu, rayiha
perhaps	yimkin, bilkī	shāyad	belki
periscope	periskop		périskop, dūrbīn
permission	rukhṣah	ijāza	izin
Persia	Bilād el-'Ajam	Īrān	'Ajemistān
Persian	'Ajamī, Īrānī	Īrānī	'Ajemi
people	nās	mardum	khalq, éhāli
pepper	filfil	filfil	bibér
petition (*n.*)	istid'ā	arīza	arzuhal, istid'a
pheasant	durrāj (*pl.* darārīj)	qarqavul	suilun qusha
photograph (*n.*)	resm, ṣūrah	'aks	fotograf
pick-axe	mi'wal	bīl, tīsheh	qazma
picket (*n.*)	ṭalī'ah	ṭalāyi'	qaraqol
picture	sūrah, resm	parda-ye naqqāshī	résim, tasvir
piece (*n.*)	waṣlah (*pl.* waṣl)	tikka	parcha
pier	eskelah	iskaleh	iskélé

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
pay (*v.*)	vjarel	ḥaq dā	murẓélé, īwellé ḥaq
peace	khaghaghoutiun	ṣulḥ	ṣulḥ, shlāma
pear	dantz	kārchīn, ārmū	kāmitrā
peasant	kiughatsi	rainjbar, fallāh, jōtyār	bné mātā, fellāh
pen	krich	qalam, khāma	qalāma
pencil	madid	qalam riṣāṣ, khonwiss	pensīlā, qalām d-riṣiṣ
pennant	droshag (arrgakh troshag navi vra)		
perfume	poyr, anoushahod	behn, ʻiṭr	rīkhā
perhaps	teryevs, koutsé	balgī, balānī	belkī
periscope	periscop tidag		
permission	hraman, touil-devoutiun	rukhsat, dastūr, izn	rükhsat
Persia	Barsgastan	ʻAjam, Irān	ʻAjam
Persian	Barsig	ʻAjamī	ʻAjamāya
people	zhoghovourt	khalq, mīrōvā	nāshé
pepper	bghbegh	filfil	filfil
petition (*n.*)	aghersakir, aghachanq	arzahāl	baʻūthā, arzahāl
pheasant	pasian	tūrāng, taihūch	
photograph (*n.*)	lousangar		
pick-axe	brrich	kulāng, māwal	maʻwal, nara
picket (*n.*)	arrachakound, picket		
picture	badger	ṣūrat	shiklā, ṣūrta
piece (*n.*)	gdor, mas	pārcha, pār	sāmā
pier	navamaduyts	askalah	askalah

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
pig	khanzīr (*pl.* khanāzīr)	khūk, khinzīr	domūz
pilgrim	ḥajjī ; zāyir (to Kerbela)	zavvār ; zāyir (*pl.* zīwār)	haji
pilgrimage	ḥajj ; ziyyārah (to Kerbela)	ziyārat	haj
pillow	makhaddah	mukhaddeh, bālish	yasdiq
pilot (*n.*)	rabbān	rāh numā (-yi-jahāz)	qulawuz
pilotage	qiyādah	ujrat-i-kashtī-bānī	qulawuz üjréti
pin	dembūs	sanjāq	toplu (iyne)
pincers	kelābatēn	ambur	késsaj
pipe (tube)	ambūbah (*pl.* anābīb)	lūla	borya
pipe (smoking)	sabīl ; narghīleh (hubble-bubble)	chibūq	chibuq, nargilé
pistol	warwar (revolver)	pīshtāv	tabānja
pitch (substance)	gīr	qīr *or* zift	zift
pitcher	meskhenah (Arab)	kūza, ibrīq	testi
place (*n.*)	makān (*pl.* amākin)	makān, jā	yér
plain (*n.*)	barrīyeh, chol, sahl	dasht, ṣaḥrā	ova
plan (scheme, *v.*)	fikr, tadbīr	tadbīr kardan	düshünmék
plant (*n.*)	nabāt (*pl.* nabātāt)	nabāt	fidān
plate	ṣaḥn (*pl.* ṣuḥūn)	būshqāb, zarf	tabaq
play (*v.*)	la'ab, yil'ab	bāzī kardan, kun	oinamaq

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
pig	khoz	khinzīr, barāz	khezūra, barāza
pilgrim	bantoukht, oukhtavor	ḥajjī, haj	müqdūsī, maqdasī
pilgrimage	bantekhtoutiun, oukhtaknatsoutiun	ḥajj	hāj
pillow	partz	bālgī, bālif, seringniā	spadītha
pilot (*n.*)	navoughigh, navavar		qapṭān
pilotage	navavaroutiun		
pin	kntasegh	danbūs, sanjāq	sinjākh, danbūs
pincers	aktsan	māshik, gāzek kalbtīn	kalbtain
pipe (tube)	khoghovag	lūla, kizān, pukhrānk	tūtā
pipe (smoking)	dzkhapogh	sabīl (short); qalyūn (long)	chibūk, qallūna, qalyūn
pistol	adrjanag, pistol	dabanja	dabanja
pitch (substance)	tziut; zift (Turkish)	qīr, zift	qir
pitcher	goudz	kūza, kūp, khum	talmā
place (*n.*)	degh, vayr	jā, ʻard	dūktha
plain (*n.*)	tashd, tashdavayr	dasht, chōl	chōl, maidan, dashta
plan (scheme, *v.*)	dzrakrel, horinel	rasm kirin, tadbīr kirin	tagbīr
plant (*n.*)	doung	dār, nabāt	īlāna, gilla
plate	bnag	ṣaḥn, tapsī, ʻamān	ṣaḥna, tabaq
play (*v.*)	khaghal	bāzīn	mṭūellé

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
pleasant	laṭīf	khush, laṭīf	hosh, lézīz
please	tafadhdhal (in courtesy); min fadhlek (asking favour)		
pleased, to be	imbasaṭ, yambasiṭ; sār mimnūn, yaṣīr mimnūn	masrūr shudan, shau	sévinmék, mémnūn olmaq
pleasure	kēf, wunsah	khushī	keif
plough (*n.*)	faddān	shukhm	saban
plough (*v.*)	karab, yikrab	khīsh zadan	sürmék
plumb-line	shāhūl, shaqūl	shāhūl	shaqul
plunder (*v.*)	neheb, yenheb	chāpīdan, chāb *or* tārāj kardan, kun	yaghma étmék
pocket	jēb (*pl.* juyūb)	jaib	jeb
poison	semm	zahr	zéhir
pole (*n.*)	murdī (of boat)	mardī	dirék
pole (*v.*)	defa', yidfa'	mardī zadan	
polish (*n.*)	ṣabgh	saiqal	perdah, jila
polite	adīb	mu'addab	térbiyéli
political officer	mā'mūr siyāsī	ma'mūr az jānib-e daulat	me'mur siyasi
pontoon	jisr naqqāl, dūbah	jisr	tombaz
pony (baggage)	kidīsh; böghl el-ḥaml	yābū	yük beigiri
pool	birkah, ḥaudh	ḥauz	hauz
poop	akhīr el-markab	arsha	qich

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
pleasant	hajeli	khwash,	randa, hosh
please	k'aghachem	bkaifa	in bāsmālūk
pleased, to be	koh linel	khwash bū, kaifāwī hāt	pṣikhlé
pleasure	hadjuyq	khwashī, kaif, rāhat	rāzīūthā
plough (*n.*)	aror	jōt	pdhāna
plough (*v.*)	agosel, herel	jōt kirin	ṭāre pdānā
plumb-line	oughgha-kidz, shidag	dirist, rāst	kīpā d-raṣis
plunder (*v.*)	goghobdel	tālān kir, nahb kir	nhiblé
pocket	krban	jaib	jībā
poison	toyn (*or* touin)	zhahr	sāmā
pole (*n.*)	tzogh, siun	mardī, midrā	jalā
pole (*v.*)	tzoghel, tiavarel, magoyge tzoghov qshel	gamī kishāndin, gamī dar ināndin	
polish (*n.*)	abigi; perdakh (Turkish)	rūnik, pardāq, bōyākh (of shoes)	mabriqtā
polite	paregirt, qaghaqavar	adīb, 'āqil, shirīné akhlāq	mārīpat, adīb
political officer	qaghaqagan bashdonia	zābité mulkī	māmūr, élchī
pontoon	pontoun, navagamourch	prt, jisr, kuprī	gishra, jesr
pony (baggage)	krast	bargīl	bargil, gidīsh
pool	ljag	bōrr, birkah, ḥauz	birké
poop	khelk navou	pishté gamī	

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
poor	faqīr, meskīn	darvīsh, miskīn	fuqara
pork	laḥm khanzīr	gūsht-i-khūk	domuz éti
population	ʻadad en-nufūs	adād-i-sukkān mamlakat	éhali
port	bander, mīnā (*pl.* mawāni)	bandar	liman
port (of ship)	yisār		géminin iskélé tarafi
hard a-port	tammām lil-yisār		alabanda iskélé
porter (door)	bawwāb	darbān	qapuju
porter (carrier)	ḥammāl (*pl.* ḥamāmīl)	hammāl	hammāl
porthole	shubbāk		lumbar déliyi
portmanteau	jantah	jāma-dān	chanta
possibly	yimkin	mumkin	bélki
post office	posṭakhāneh	pōst-khāneh	posta-khāné
pot (for cooking)	jidr	dīg *or* pātīla	ténjéré, qazan
pot (for water)	ḥibb (large)	ibrīq	testi, chümlek
pottery	fakhārah	zurūf-e chīnī *or* kūza mūza	chanaqlar, chümekler
potatoes	paṭēṭah	sīb-i-zamīn	patātés
pour out	ṣabb, yaṣubb	rīkhtan, rīz	dökmék
powder (gun-)	bārūd	bārūd	bārūt
praise (*v.*)	medeḥ, yimdaḥ	sitūdan, sitā	médh étmék
pray (worship, *v.*)	ṣalla, yuṣalli	namāz kardan	duʻa étmék
prayer	ṣalā (*pl.* ṣalawāt)	namāz	duʻa
prefer	fadhdhal, yufadhdhil	tarjīḥ dādan, deh	térjīh étmék

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
poor	aghqad	miskīn, faqīr	miskéna
pork	khozi mis	gōshté barāz	biṣra d-khuzūra
population	pnagichq, zhoghovourt	khalk, sukkān	ʻāmrānūthā
port	navahankisd	mīnā	mīna, bandar
port (of ship)	navi tzakhagoghmn		
hard a-port	ghegn teb tzakh		
porter (door)	trnaban	dargvān	qāpūchī, dargvān
porter (carrier)	perrnagir	hammāl	hammāl
porthole	badouhan thntanotits navi		
portmanteau	gashi bayousag	chānta, khurjik	chāmādān
possibly	gareli, havanagan	yumkin, mumkin	mümkin
post office	namagadoun	posṭakhāna	posṭakhāna
pot (for cooking)	yepelou aman; tindjireh (Turkish)	tanjūra, qāzān, dīz	qāzanchā, distītha
pot (for water)	goozh	kūz, āmān	talmā
pottery	gavakordzaran	farfūr, chīnī	pikhārā
potatoes	patates	patāta, sévʻardé	patāté
pour out	letsnel, tatargel	lvakhwārené dā-raizhīn	msūreqlé
powder (gun-)	varrot	bārūd, téz	bārud
praise (*v.*)	kovel	madiḥ kir	mdiḥlé
pray (worship, *v.*)	aghotel, aghachel, maghtel	nemaizh kirin	mṣāli slūthā
prayer	aghotk	nemaizh, newaizh	slūthā
prefer	keratasel	tafzīl kir	mfūẓillé

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
prepare (*trans.*)	ḥadhdhar, yuḥadhdhir	āmūdan, āmā *or* ḥāzir kardan, kun	hāzirlamaq
prepare (*intrans.*)	ista'add, yasta'idd		
prepared	ḥādhir	muhaiyā shuda	hazirlanmish, hazir
present (here)	mawjūd	hāzir	burada, mévjud
present (gift)	hadīyah, bakhshīsh	ta'āruf	hédiyé
pretty	ḥulu, jamīl	khushnumā, qashang	güzél, dilbér
price	qīmah	qīmat	fiat
prison	ḥabs	zindān	habs-khāné
prisoner of war	asīr (*pl.* usarā)	asīr	esir
private (soldier)	nefer	nafar	néfér
private (room, &c.)	khuṣūṣi, shakhṣī	khuṣūṣī	khusūsi
proceeding (legal, *n.*)	muḥākamah	muhākama	muhakamé
proclamation	i'lān	manshūr; (written) i'lān-nāma, i'lān	i'lān
productive	mukhṣib	hāsil-khīz	mahsuldar
profit	maḥṣūl	naf'	kiar, fa'idé
prohibited	memnū'	mamnū'	yassaq
projectile	gullah (*pl.* gulel)	khumpareh	mérmī
promise (*n.*)	wa'd	va'da	va'd, söz
promise (*v.*)	wā'ad, yuwā'id	wa'deh dādan, deh	söz vérmék, va'd étmék
propeller	parwāneh	charkh	vaporun pervanési, isqrū
property	māl, mulk (estate)	māl	māl, variyet

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
prepare (*trans.*)	badrasdel	paikīnā, ḥāzir kir	ewedhlé pék, mūḥdhéré
prepare (*intrans.*)	badrasdvel		
prepared	badrast	paik	mtōrsā
present (here)	nerga	ḥāzir	lākhā
present (gift)	endza, barkev	dīyārī, bakhshīsh	peshkesh
pretty	siroun	chāk, dalāl	jūndāya, shapīra
price	kin, arzheq	bahā, qīmat	ḥaqq, ṭīmé
prison	pant	ḥaps, girtīkhāna	ḥaps
prisoner of war	keri	girti	dwīqā b-plāshā
private (soldier)	zinvor	nafar	nafar
private (room, &c.)	arrantzin	khuṣūṣī	khuṣūṣī
proceeding (legal, *n.*)	tad varel	muḥakama, tadbire ḥukmī	dāwé
proclamation	hrrchag, haydararoutiun	farmān	rāqām
productive	arkasavor	khwash 'ard, musmir	tāyūnā
profit	shah, okoud	maḥṣūl, qazānj	zōdūnyā
prohibited	arkilvadz	mamnū', ḥarām	mūklīyā
projectile	razmagndak	gullā	gunbilta
promise (*n.*)	khosdoum	qaul, bāwar	qōlā
promise (*v.*)	khosdanal	wa'dah kir, qaul dā	mwū'idlé
propeller	vanich, navi bdoudag		
property	galvadzq, sepaganoutiun	khudānī, khāwandī, mulk	māl

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
proprietor	ṣāḥib	mālik	sahib
protection (of weak States)	ḥimayah	himāyat	himayé
province	wilāyah	vilāyat	vilāyét
provisional	waqtī (temporary); mashrūṭ (conditional)	muvaqqatī	shimdilik ichin
public (*n.*)	en-nās, el-'ammah	khalq	khalq
pulse (wrist)	nabdh	nabz	nabz
pump (*n.*)	ṭrambah	ṭulumbeh	tulumba
punish	qāṣaṣ, yuqāṣiṣ	sazā dādan, deh *or* mujāzāt dādan, deh	mujāzāt étmék
punitive	ta'qībī	tambīhī	mujāzāt ichin
pupil (scholar)	telmīdh	shāgird	shagird
pure	ṣāfī (of water)	khālis pāk, sāf	témiz, safi
purse	kīs, jōzdān	kīsa	késé
pursue	teba' yitba' *or* ta'aqqab, yata'aqqab	ta'aqqub kardan, kun	qoghalamaq, ta'qīb étmék
put	ḥaṭṭ, yaḥuṭṭ *or* wadha', yodha'	guzāshtan, guzār	qomaq
put out (light)	ṭaffa, yuṭaffī	khāmūsh kardan	sündürmék
puttee	lifāfat er-rijl	bastan-i-pā	dolaq
quality	jins (kind); ṣifah (attribute)	khāsīyat	khassiyet, jins
quantity	miqdār	miqdār	miqdar
quarantine	qarantīnah	qaranṭīn	qarantīna
quarrel (*n.*)	nizā', 'arkah	nizā'	ghavgha

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
proprietor	sepaganader	khudān, khudān mulk	mārā
protection (of weak States)	bashdbanoutiun (thuyl garavaroutiants)	ḥimāyat	bast
province	nahank	wilāyat	wilāyah
provisional	arrzhamanagia	bō wakhté, muaqqat	qādānā
public (*n.*)	zhoghovourt, hanrayin	khalk, 'āmmatun-nās	j'ām
pulse (wrist)	zarg, dropoum	nabz, damār	lumza
pump (*n.*)	chrhan	trumbā	ṭrūmbah
punish	badzhel	tarbya dā, pé gahīn	mqūṣiṣlé
punitive	badzhagan	qaṣāsī, jazāī	qā mtā'lamtā
pupil (scholar)	ashagerd	shāgird	talmīdā
pure	maqour, anarad	tāza, pāk, khāru	sapīyā
purse	qsag	kīsa, jazdān, tūrik	kīsā
pursue	hedabndel, haladzel (enemy)	pésh chō, ravāndī	'réqlé bathré
put	dnel	dā nīān	mutūlé
put out (light)	marel	tifāndin, sonder kirin	muchmé
puttee	zankabanag, dzngagab		pasta, shībāqa
quality	vorag, vorbisoutiun	ṣifat, tab', jins	tūkhma
quantity	qanagoutiun	miqdār, kammīyat	qudra
quarantine	qarantin	karantīna	karantīna
quarrel (*n.*)	grriv	sharr, gelj, dūz	drāshā

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
quarry (*n.*)	maḥjar	kān	tash-ojaghi
quarter (part, *n.*)	ruba'	rub'	cheirék
(of town, *n.*)	maḥallah	mahalla	mahale
quarter (*v.*)	nezzel, yunezzil	manzil dādan, deh	oturtmaq
quarter-master	mā'mūr arzāq	mubāshir-e manāzil-e qushūn	alai emini
quay	eskelah	iskaleh	rikhtem, iskélé
question (*n.*)	suwāl (*pl.* suwālāt)	su'āl	sival
quick	sarī'	zūd	chabuk, téz
quickly	bil-'ājel	zūd, bi-zūdī	chabuk
quiet	hādī	sākit, ārām	rāhat, ūslū
keep quiet! (*imper.*)	iskut	ārām bāsh	sus
quilt	laḥāf	liḥāf	yorghān
quinine	kinakīnah	kina-kina	qinaqina, solfato
rabbit	arnab (*pl.* arānib)	kharqūsh	ada tavshani
race (horse, *n.*)	sharṭ, musābaqah	asp-davānī	
race-course	mēdān	maidān-e asp-dāvānī	meidān
radish	fijl	turub *or* turb	turp
raft	kelek	kalak	kélék, sal
raid (*n.*)	ghazu	yūrish	aqin
rails	khuṭūṭ ḥadīdīyah	'amūd-hā-yi-rāh-i-āhan	raī
railway	sikkat el-ḥadīd	rāh-i-āhan	démir yol, shamandefér, trén
railway station	maḥaṭṭah	maḥaṭṭah	iskélé, istasion

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
quarry (*n.*)	qarahanq	ma'dan, maqṭa'	mā'dān d-kīpī
quarter (part, *n.*)	chorrort (mas)	chārik, chwārik	chārāg
(of town, *n.*)	tagh	maḥallat	māhal
quarter (*v.*)	deghavorel, pnagetsnel	manzil dā	mu'méré, muskenné
quarter-master	zorabed	nāziré ma'-askar, mudīr umuré 'as-karīya	
quay	qarap	askalah	askalah
question (*n.*)	hartsoum	pirsyār, su'āl	mbāqārtā
quick	arak, shdab	zū, sevek, gurj	qalūla
quickly	shdabav, shoudov	zū	qalūla
quiet	handard	hādī, sākit	nīkha, hidya
keep quiet! (*imper.*)	lrré, hantard getsir	besakkina, ḥarak na-ka (movement)	shlī, shtüq
quilt	vermag	laḥéf, urghān	laḥéfa
quinine	qnaqina	kanakīna, kinīna	kīnākīnā
rabbit	djakar, nabas-dag	kerwishk, kargū	kerwish
race (horse, *n.*)	tziarshav	aṣl (lineage); bāz	rikhtā
race-course	asbarez	musābaqa	maidān
radish	poghg	turp, fijl, pōl	pil'ā
raft	lasd	kalak	kalak
raid (*n.*)	asbadagoutiun	khāra, ghazū	ghazu
rails	tsang, vanta-gabad		
railway	yergatoughi	rīā pāpōré	ūrkha d-prizla
railway station	gayaran		

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
rain (*n.*)	maṭar	bārān	yaghmūr
raisins	zabīb	kishmish	quru uzum
ram (*v.*)	ṣudam, yaṣdim	kūbīdan, kūb	basmaq
range (firing distance)	masāfah	āmāj, masāfat	atim, menzil
rank (position, *n.*)	ritbah	daraja, rutba, jāh	rutbé
rarely	nādir, qalīl,	nādiran	nādiran, az
rat	jurēdī (*pl.* jurēdīyah)	mūsh-e buzurg	iri sichan
read	qara, yaqra	khāndan, khān	oqumaq
ready	ḥāḏhir	āmādeh, ḥāzir	hāzir
rear	wara, akhīr	'aqab	géri, arqa
rearguard	mu'akhkhar el-'askar	'aqab-i-lashkar	dumdār
reason (cause, *n.*)	sebeb (*pl.* asbāb)	jehat, mūjib, sabab	sébéb
rebel	'āṣī (*pl.* 'āṣiyīn)	yāghī	asi, zorba
rebellion	thōrah	tughyān	'isyan, tughyān
receipt	wuṣūl	qabz-e rasīd	maqbuz sénédi
receive (*v.*)	akhaḏh, yā' khuḏh	giriftan	almaq
reckless	ṭāyish, jasūr	bī-parwā, bī-i'tinā	jesūr, yigit
recoil (of gun, *n.*)	rafsah	lagad zadan	géri-tépish
recommendation	tawṣīyah (letter)	sifārish	tavsiyé
reconnoitre	keshshef; jesses (of espionage)	istikshāf kardan	keshf étmék
recruit	'asker jadīd	sarbāz-i-tāzeh	yéni qur'a, 'ajami (néfér)
red	aḥmar	qirmiz, surkh	qirmizi
reed	qaṣbah, bardī	nai	qamish

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
rain (*n.*)	antzrev	bārān	miṭra
raisins	chamich	maiwīzh, keshmish	kishmishtā, yabbīshé
ram (*v.*)	khoy		
range (firing distance)	asparez, michots	hangau, masāfah	masāfa, qyās
rank (position, *n.*)	gark, badiv, astidjan	martabah, qadr	derghā
rarely	toun-oureq, sagav-oureq	bkémāhī, nādiran	nādiran, bkém-āūtha
rat	*medz moug*	*mishk mazin*	
read	gartal	khwāndin, khwīnin	qrélé
ready	badrasd	ḥāzir	ḥādhir
rear	hedguys, yedevn	dūmāhī, lapāshé	l-bathra
rearguard	verchabah (zorq)	pāshé 'askaré	kharayūtha d-askar
reason (cause, *n.*)	badjar, nbadag	sabab	sābāb
rebel	absdamp, empost	'āsi	yāghī
rebellion	absdampoutiun	aṣāwat, zorbadārī	khiyānātūthā
receipt	engalakir	gahisht, wuṣūl	qubz
receive (*v.*)	entounil, sdanal	qabūl kirin	mqābil
reckless	anhok	jasūr, béparwa	jasūr
recoil (of gun, *n.*)	engrgil, yed tarrnal	bar-pāsh hātini	rapsā d-topang
recommendation	hantznararoutiun	tauṣiyah, sipārtini	
reconnoitre	shrchil, khouzargel	kashf kirin, jāsūs kirin	
recruit	norahavaq zorq	'askar nū	nazāma khātha
red	garmir	sōr, āl	smōqa
reed	yeghek, srink	qamīsh, chīq	zīlā, piṣā

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
refugee	shārid	firārī	muhajir
refuse (*v.*)	rafadh, yarfadh	inkār kardan, kun	istémémék
regiment	ālai	fauj	ālāi
regret (*v.*)	te'essef, yete'essef	afsūs khurdan, khur	té'éssuf étmék
regular (soldier)	nidhāmī	sarbāz-e nizām	nizāmi
regulation	qānūn (*pl.* qawānīn)	qānūn, qā'ideh	nizām, usūl
reinforcements	imdād	madad, qushūn-i-tāzeh	imdād, istinādāt
reins	suyūr, 'inān	'inān	gém qāyishi, dizgin
relations (kindred)	qarāyib (*sing.* qarīb)	qaum-u khīsh	khisimlar, aqriba
release (*v.*)	aṭlaq, yuṭliq *or* fekk, yafukk	rahānīdan, rahān	salivérmék
reliefs	tebdīlāt	madad	tébdīlāt
religion	dīn	mazhab	din
remain	baqa, yibqa dhall, yadhall	māndan, mān	qalmaq, durmaq
remember	tedhekker, yetedhekker	yād dashtan, dār	khātirlamaq, onutmamaq
remittance (money)	ḥawālah	vajh-e firistāda	hawālih, tahwil, politsha
rent (*n.*)	ījār, karwah	kirāya	qira
repeat	kerrer, yukerrir	takrār kardan, kun	tékrār söilémék
reply (*n.*)	jawāb	javāb	jevab
report (*v.*) (official)	qerrer, yuqarrir	iṭṭilā' dādan, deh	taqrīr étmék, ishāré étmék, khaber vérmék
report (*n.*)	taqrīr	iṭṭilā'	taqrīrāt
representative	wakīl (agent)	namāyanda, vakīl	vékil

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish*	*Syriac.*
refugee	pakhesdagan	muhājir, dakhīl	
refuse (*v.*)	merzhel	qabūl nākir	la qbillé, rfiẓlé
regiment	zorakount		ālai
regret (*v.*)	tsavil, apsosal	asaff kir, tengī	m'usūflé
regular (soldier)	ganonavor (zork)	'askar nazāmī *or* khālis	'askārāyā
regulation	gark, ganon	qānūn	qānōna
reinforcements	nor uyzher	imdād, hārī	madad
reins	yerasan, santz	lighāu	léghéma
relations (kindred)	azkaganner	khizm, ahl	khizmé
release (*v.*)	artzagel	āz kir, berdān	'ewedhlé āza
reliefs	zoravik, bahagapokhoutiun .zorats	īsāī, hār, hāwār	hāwar, 'aun
religion	gronq	dīn	tōdīthā
remain	mnal	māīn, rāwastin	pishlé
remember	hishel	labīr hātin	īthélé l-bālé, tkhéré
remittance (money	trami pokhanatsoum	amānat, taslīm ḥaq	
rent (*n.*)	vartzq	kirā, kiré	kirī
repeat	grgnel	takrār kir	tnélé
reply (*n.*)	badaskhan	jawāb	jūwāb
report (*v.*)	lour dal, deghegakrel	iqrār kir	ewedhlé iqrār shidhlé
report (*n.*)	deghegakir	taqrīr	iqrār, sāhdūtha
representative	nergayatsoutsich, pokhanort	wakīl, nā'ib	wakīl

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
republic	jamhūrīyah	jumhūr	jumhuriyét
repulse (*n.*)	difā'	difā'	maghlubiyét (defeat)
request (*n.*)	ṭalbah, istid'ā	khāhish	rija
reserve (military, *n.*)	radīf	radīf	rédīf, ihtiyāt
reservoir	ḥōdh	āb-ambār	khazna, sarnij
resignation	isti'fā	isti'fā	isti'fa
resistance	muqāwamah, difā'	muqāwameh	muqāvémé
resolute	muṣirr, thābit, 'āzim	bā 'azm	sābit qadém, jesūr
respect (*n.*)	i'tibār	ihtirām	hurmét
rest (*v.*)	istarāḥ, yastarīḥ	ārāmīdan, ārām	istirāhat étmék
restaurant	sufrakhanah, loqandah	āshpaz-khāneh	loqanda yémékkhāné
result	natījah	natījeh	nétījé
retreat (*n.*)	insiḥāb	'aqab nishastan	géri chikilish, rij'at
retreat (*v.*)	insaḥab, yansaḥib	'aqab raftan, rau	géri chikilmék, rij'at étmék
return (*v.*)	reja', yirja'	bāz āmadan, āi	dönmék, géri gélmék, avdét étmék
reveillé (*n.*)	yāt burasī (Turkish)	būq-e bīdārī	yat burasi
revenue	wāridah	māliyāt, irtifā'	irad varidat
Revenue Department	Idārah mālīyah	Idāra-ye māliyāt	Idāré-i-maliyé
reverse (*n.*)	'aks (opposite)	shikast	'aqs
review (troops, *n.*)	munādharah	sān-bīnī	résmi géchid

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
republic	hanrabedoutiun	jamhūrīyah	jamhūrīyā
repulse (*n.*)	yemghel	daf', ṭard, ravāndini	mūbṣertā
request (*n.*)	khntirk	darkhāz, murād, ṭalab	maṭlab, bā'ūtā
reserve (military, *n.*)	bahesd, bahesdazor		rédif
reservoir	chrampar, avazan	hauz, sārinj	hāwūz
resignation	hrazharoum	isti'fā, 'azl	rāpétā d-īdā
resistance	timatroutiun		zakhmūtha, klāya
resolute	anveher, hastadamid	sābit, ba'azm	thābit
respect (*n.*)	medzaranq	ḥurmat, ābrū, sharm	īqārā
rest (*v.*)	hank-stanal	isāī *or* tanā *or* askān, bū	nikhlé
restaurant	jasharan	lokanda	lokanda,
result	hedevanq, yelq		natīja
retreat (*n.*)	nahanch	lapisht chōiné	īzāla l-bathra
retreat (*v.*)	nahanchel	lapisht chōn	īzellé l-bathra
return (*v.*)	veradarrnal	wagariān, dāhātin	d'éré
reveillé (*n.*)	artentsir ! yelir	būrī, tanbīh	mōıīshā
revenue	yegamoud, has	taḥṣīlāt, wāridāt	kherj d-malkūthā
Revenue Department	Yegamoudi Bashdonaran	Taḥṣīlāt māmūrī	Wazirūthā d-kherj
reverse (*n.*)	tzakhoghanq	hazīmat, shikastī, ravāndī	baṣārūthā
review (troops, *n.*)	veraqnnel, qnnatadel	sardī 'askar	yūkhlāmā

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
revolution (revolt)	thōrah	thaureh, hayajān	tehavvul
revolver	warwar	shīsh-lūleh	alti-patlar, révolvér
rheumatism	rīḥ	dard-i-mafāṣil	yél
rib	dhal' (*pl.* dhulū')	ustukhān-i-pahlū	qaburgha
rice	timmen, shileb	birinj	pirinj
rich	ghanī, zengīn	tawāngar, mutamauwal	zéngin
ride	rekeb, yirkab	suwār shudan, shau	binmék, āt ilé gitmék
rider	khayyāl	suvār	atli
riding-horse	ḥiṣān er-rukūb	asp-i-suwārī	binék āt, āt
rifle	tufkah, mātlī	tufang	tufénk
rifleman	tuffāk	tufangchī	silah-endaz
right	yimna, yamīn (right hand); tammām (correct)	rāst	sāgh (right hand); doghru (straight)
right away	yallāh	birau ! bismi'llāh !	doghrudan-doghruya
ring (finger, *n.*)	maḥbas, khātim (seal)	angushtar	yüzük
ripe	mustawī	rasīdeh, pukhteh	ōlmush
river	shāṭ, shaṭṭ, nahr (small)	rūd-khāneh	néhir, sū, chai irmāq
road	darb, ṭarīq	rāh	yol
road (camel)	ṭarīq el-jimāl	rāh-i-shutur	dévé yolu
road (mule)	ṭarīq el-baghāl	rāh-i-qātir	qātir yolu
road (metalled)	tarīq min ma'dan	shōṣeh	shōsé
road (unmetalled)	ṭarīq wa'ir	rāh-i-wa'ir	'ādi yol, 'araba yolu

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
revolution (revolt)	heghapokhoutiun, absdampoutiun	'aṣāwat qarpīnat	'iṣyān
revolver	vetsharvadzian	warwar	warwar
rheumatism	rhomatism, vosgratsav		
rib	goghq	parsū, parasū	parasūwa
rice	printz	prinj	rizza
rich	harousd	daulamand, zengīn	'attīra, daulamand
ride	tsiavarel hedznel	suwār bū	rkūlé
rider	tzi hedzogh	suwār, khayyāl	rakāwā
riding-horse	hedzelatzi	aspé suwārī	sūsa d-rakawūtha
rifle	hratsan	tufak, tfeng	tfakta
rifleman	hratsanagir	tfenkjī	yamīna (right hand); tūpangchi drest
right	ach (right hand); oughigh (straight)	rāst	
right away	on arrach! yalla!	harra! birau!	sī qlō'!
ring (finger, *n.*)	madani	hangustir, gōstirik, amuswān	'īziqthā
ripe	hasoun	gehīa, gahishtū, chébīa	bshīla
river	ked	āv, rūbār	néhra, shaṭṭa
road	janabar, oughi jampa	rré, rīā, rraiga	ūrkha
road (camel)	oughdi jampa		
road (mule)	chorii jampa		
road (metalled)	khjoughi, shose		
road (unmetalled)	hasarag jampa		

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
robber	ḥarāmī (*pl.* ḥarāmīyeh)	duzd	khirsiz
robbery	sirqah, teslīb	duzdī	khirsizlik
rock (*n.*)	ṣakhr (*pl.* ṣukhūr)	sang	qaya
rocky	muṣakhkhar	sang-lākh	qayali
roof	saṭḥ, sagf (ceiling)	bām	dām
room	gubbeh, ōdhah	ūtāq	oda
root	ʿirq	bīkh	kük
rope	ḥabl (*pl.* ḥibāl)	rīsmān	ip, hālat (cable)
rotten	fāsid (smelling), kharbān	pūsīdeh	chürük
rough	khashin	durusht, zibr	puruzlu, sért dalghali (sea)
round (*adj.*)	mudawwar	mudauwar, gird	yuvārlaq, déyirmi
row (*v*).	jedhef, yijdhaf	pārū zadan, zan	kürék chékmék
rubbish	zabālah	khas-u khāshāk *or* khākrūba	supuruntu
rudder	sukkān	sukkān	dumén
ruddy	aḥmar	qirmizī, surkh	qizil
rug (*n.*)	zūlīyah	farsh, qālīcha	kilim, kéché
(for prayer)	sajādah	jā-namāz	sejjadé
ruins	kharābāt	wairānhā	vīrāné, ören
run	jara, yijrī	dawīdan, dau	qoshmaq
rushes	qaṣab	nai	qamish
Russia	Rūsīyah	Rūs, Urūs	Rūsya
Russian	Muskōfī	Rūsi	Moskov, Rūsyāli

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
robber	kogh, avazag	diz, jarda, mughlāchī	gīnāwā
robbery	koghoutiun, avazagoutiun	dizī	gīnāwūthā
rock (*n.*)	zhayrr	bar, sūg, git	képā *or* kīpā
rocky	zhayrrayin		
roof	daniq	sarbān, sarkhāné	biqarshé, saqaf
room	seniag	manzal, ōda	ōda, manzal
root	armad	rīh, kok	aṣl, qāra
rope	baran, chvan	warīs, bāng	khaula
rotten	pthadz	razīā, pīs	spīsa, serya
rough	goshd	zbīr	lā randa
round (*adj.*)	glor	mudauwar, girover, khirr	mudauwar, glōla
row (*v.*)	thiavarel		
rubbish	avellsoug; zibil (Turkish)	khār, mīrdār	pūshikā
rudder	teg	dunbāl, pishté gamī	dūrmān
ruddy	garmrorag, garmrakuyn	ṣōr, qirmizī	smōqa
rug (*n.*)	basdar	farsh, mārsha, bārrik	khālī
(for prayer)	(*no such thing used except by Mohammedans*)	farsh, sajjādah	khālīchā
ruins	averag	kharābah	kharāba
run	vazel	ravī, ling dā	'riqlé
rushes	hartzagmounq, khoyanq	chīqa	qanyé
Russia	Rousia	Urūs, Misqōf	Misqof
Russian	Rousiatsi, Rous	Misqōfī, Urūsī	Misqofāya

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
Sabbath	sebt	sabt	pazar-günü
sack	kīs (small); gonīyah (large)	juwāl	torba
sacred	muqaddas	muqaddas	muqaddes, shérif
sad	ḥazīn	ghamgīn	mükéddér, mahzūn
saddle (*n.*)	serej	zīn	éyér
saddle (*v.*)	serej, yisraj	zīn kardan, kun	éyérlémék, éyér vurmaq
saddlebag	khurj	khurjīn	heibé
safe (*adj.*)	amīn	bi-salāmat	sāgh
sailing-vessel	safīnah, mahailah	kashtī-yi-bādī	yélkén gémisi
sailor	mellāḥ; khalaṣī (on river steamer)	kashtī-bān, mallāḥ	gémiji
sails	shuru'	bād-bān, shirā'	yélkénlér
salary	ma'āsh	mavājib	ma'ash; āiliq (monthly)
salt	milḥ	namak	tuz
salute (*n.*)	temennī; ta'dhīm (milit.)	taḥīyeh, salām	selām
salute (*v.*)	sallam, yusallim	salām kardan, kun	selāmlamaq
sally out (*v.*)	kharaj 'ala, yakhruj 'ala	khārij shudan, shau	chiqish étmék
same	wāhid, ferd shikl	hamīn, barābar	bir, farqsiz, 'aini
it is all the same	mā yukhālif	hamīn-ast	ikisi bir
this is the same as that	hādha mithl dhāk	īn bā ān yakīst	ikisi bir
sand	raml	rīg	qūm

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
Sabbath	(Sunday) Giragi; (7th day = Saturday) Shapat	Sabt	shabtā
sack	barg, dobrag	juwāl, kīsā	kīsa
sacred	sourp, srpazan	ḥarām, muqaddas	qūdīshā
sad	dkhour	dāmāī, dilṣōtī, khamīn	ghabīna, pshīma
saddle (*n.*)	thamp	zīn	sarga
saddle (*v.*)	thampel, hamedel	zīn kir	msūreglé
saddlebag	bayousag, khourjin	khurjīn	pāshazīn, khurjīn
safe (*adj.*)	abahov	amīn, panā	salāmal
sailing-vessel	arrakasdanav		
sailor	navasti	mallāh, gamīchī	gamīchī
sails	arrakastq		
salary	toshag, vartzq	ḥaq, haīv, māhngāna	mūwājib
salt	agh	khwé	melkha
salute (*n.*)	voghchuyn	salām, selāv	shlāma
salute (*v.*)	voghchounel	selāv dā	drélé shlāma
sally out (*v.*)	khoyanal, hartzagel	zhdarvā hāt	npiqlé barāyé
same	nuyn	wak, nazīr	mukhdaigid
it is all the same	nuynn e	har au bukhwaya	āwa bigiāné
this is the same as that	jisd ador bes e	au wak awā	ādhī mukhdaigid ādhī
sand	avaz	khīz, raml	khīzé, ʻepra

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
sandbank	hāwi, ramlī, jurf	pushte-yi-rīg	sighliq
sandal	na'al (*pl.* na'āl)	na'l, chāruq	chariq
sandy	ramalī	rīgī	qūmlu
Saturday	Yōm es-sebt	Shambeh	Jum'a-értési
saucepan	ṭawah	dīgcheh	ténjéré
saucer	ṣaḥn, mā'ūn	na'lbakī *or* nalbakī	finjan tabaghi
sausage	basṭarmah	sāsīsam, charghanda, *or* rūda-qe āganda	sujuq (dry); bumbar (fresh)
save	khallas; yukhalliṣ (rescue)	rahānīdan, rahān *or* najāt dādan, deh	qurtarmaq
saw (*n.*)	minshār	arreh	déstéré
say	gāl, yagūl	guftan, gūi	söilémék, démék
I say	ana agūl	mī-gūyam	déyorim
thou sayest	inta tagūl	mī-gū'ī	déyorsin
he says	hūa yagūl	mī-gūyad	déyor
we say	iḥna nagūl	mī-gū'īm	déyoriz
you say	intu tagūlūn	mī-gū'īd	déyorsiniz
they say	hum yagūlūn	mī-gūyand	déyorlar
I shall say	ana agūl	khāham guft	déyéjéyim
I said	ana gult	guftam	dédim
scales (balance, *n.*)	mīzān	pilla, kiffa	térāzi, mīzān
scarcely	bil-kād; bi-sa'ūbeh (with difficulty)	bi-dushwārī	nādiran, héman, güch hāl ilé

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
sandbank	avazap, avazathoump		
sandal	drekh	kālik, rashik, chārōkh	ṣōlī
sandy	avazod		
Saturday	Shapat	Shambā, Shamū	Yauma d-shabtha
saucepan	san, aman	qāzān, tanjūra	distītha, qidhra
saucer	kavati aman	zhīrpiāla, bintās, āmān	bashqāp d-steikān
sausage	yerchig	māmbar, muḥshī	
save	prgel	khalāṣ kir	mkhuliṣlé
saw (*n.*)	sghots	harrek, mashār	masarta, minshār
say	usel, asel	baizhin, gōtin	īméré
I say	yes g'asem *or* g'usem	az dabaizhim	kimrin
thou sayest	tou g'ases *or* g'uses	tū dabaizhé	kimret
he says	an g'ase *or* g'use	au dabaizhet	kīmer
we say	meng g'asenq *or* g'usenq	am dabaizhin	kimrōkh
you say	touq g'aseq *or* g'useq	hūn dabaizhin	kimrūtūn
they say	anonq g'asen *or* g'usen	wān dabaizhin	kimrī
I shall say	yes bidi asem *or* bidi usem	az dabaizhim	bid'amren
I said	yes asetsi *or* usi	ma gōt	īmérī
scales (balance, *n.*)	gshirr	terāzūn, shīn	māsāthā
scarcely	haziv	nādiran, bkémāhī	nādiran

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
scatter	shettet, yushettit	pāshīdan, pāsh	dāghitmaq, sachmaq
school	medresah, mekteb	maktab, madraseh	méktéb
scissors	maqaṣṣ	miqrāz	maqass
scout (*n.*)	kashshāfah (*pl.*); ṣabbārah (*pl.*)	ṭalāya-dār	izji, keshaf
screw (propeller)	parwānah	charkh	isqrū
sea	baḥr	daryā	déniz
seal (stamp, *n.*)	muhr	muhr	muhr
sealing-wax	lukk	lāk	muhr-balmumu
searchlight	nūr barqi	chirāgh-i-barqī	késhf-i-ziyā
season	faṣl, mūsim	faṣl	mévsim
sea-wall	musannāyah		déniz rikhtémé, dalgha qiran
second (number)	thānī	duvum	ikinji
secret (*n.*)	sirr (*pl.* asrār)	sirr, rāz	sirr
secret (*adj.*)	sirrī	sirrī	sirr, gizli
secretary	kātib (*pl.* kuttāb)	dabīr, kātib	kyātib; sirr kyātibi (private secretary)
secretly	sirran, khufyatān	makhfī, panhān	gizli
security	emnīyah; kafālah (pledge)	amān	emniyét
see	shāf, yashūf *or* ra'a, yara	dīdan, bīn	görmék

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
scatter	tsrvel	blāu kir, warāndin	mburbizlé
school	tbrots	maktab	madrāsah
scissors	mgrad	miqāsh	miqqaṣ
scout (*n.*)	ted, bahaban	jāsūs	gashōsha
screw (propeller)	bdoudag	burghī, charkh	burghī, charkh
sea	dzov	baḫré, daryā	yāma
seal (stamp, *n.*)	gniq	muhr, mūr	mōhr
sealing-wax	gnqamom	lak	lak
searchlight	lousakhuyz (parosneren yev naveren artzagvadz khouzargou luys)		
season	yeghanag	faṣlé ṣālé	shukhlāpa d-shāta
sea-wall	dzova-badnesh		
second (number)	yergrort	dūī, dūānī, sānī	tréyānā
secret (*n.*)	kaghdniq	sirr, penhānī	rāza
secret (*adj.*)	kaghdni		
secretary	qartoughar, krakir	kātib	kātiba
secretly	kaghdnapar	bdizī, zhépānī	b-rāza, b-ṭushwa
security	abahovoutiun, yerashkhavoroutiun	amān, panhānī, amnīat	iltīzām, salāmatūthā
see	desnel	dītin, chāu pāī kir	khzélé

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
seek	dawwar ʻala, yudawwir ʻala *or* fettesh, yufettish	justan, jū	aramaq
seize	kadhdh, yakudhdh *or* lezem, yilzam	giriftan, gīr	zabt étmék, tūtmaq, girift étmék
self	nefs (*pl.* nufūs)	khud, khīsh	kéndi
sell	bāʻ, yabīʻ	furūkhtan, furūsh	satmaq
semaphore	simafor	ishāreh namā'ī	sémafor
send	baʻath, yibʻath *or* arsal, yursil	firistādan, firist	göndérmék, irsāl étmék
sentry	nōbachī (*pl.* nōbachīyah)	qarāwul, pāsbān	nöbétji
separate (*trans.*)	farraq, yufarriq	tafriqeh kardan, kun	ayirmaq
separately	airī	judā-judā	airi airi
sepoy	ʻasker hindī	sipāhi-ye hind	sipahi
September	Ailūl	Mihr-māh, Ailūl	Eilūl
sergeant	chāwūsh	wakīl	chāwūsh
sergeant-major	bāsh chāwūsh	vakīl-e avval	bash chavush
servant	khādim (*pl.* khuddām)	naukar	hizmétji
serve	khadam, yikhdam	khidmat kardan, kun	hizmét étmék, ishini görmék
settle (an account)	sedd, yasidd	ta'diya namūdan *or* kārsāzī kardan	hissablashmaq
sew (*v.*)	khayyaṭ, yukhayyiṭ	dūkhtan, dūz	dikmék

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
seek	pntrrel	taftīsh kir, pé garriān	mputishlé
seize	prrnel	girtin	erélé
self	inqn	khwa, bkhwa	begiān (*with pronouns*)
sell	dzakhel	ferōhtin, feroshtin	mzūbenné
semaphore	tzaynadar, tzaynapogh (kortzig vorov navabedn g'khosi)		
send	ghrgel, ou-ghargel	henārtin, shāndin	mshūdéré
sentry	bahnort	naubachī	naubachī
separate (*trans.*)	anchadel, pazhnel	judā *or* jīā kir, pishirāndin	preshlé
separately	zad zad	pārcha-pārcha, yak-yak, judā judā	b-prīshūthā
sepoy	zinvor hntgas-tani	sipāhī, 'askar	rājālā
September	Sepdemper	Ailūl	Īlul
sergeant	hisnabed	chāwīsh	chāwish
sergeant-major	hisnabed	wakīl bāshī, chāwīsh	chāūsh d-tā-bur
servant	dzarra, sbasa-vor	khulām, nāu-ker	ghulāma khā-dim
serve	dzarrael, sbasavorel	khizmet kir	khdimlé
settle (an account)	hashiv vdjarel	hisāb kirin, ḥaq dān	qāté
sew (*v.*)	garel	dīrūn, dūrān-din	kheṭlé

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
sextant	sextant	uṣṭurlāb	sextant
shade (*n.*)	dhul, fē	sāyeh	gülgé, sāyé
shake	ḥarrak, yuḥarrik *or* nafadh, yanfudh	takān dādan, deh	sārsmaq, sallamaq
shallow	gēsh, (moi) qalīl	pāyāb	sigh
shame (*n.*)	ʻaib	sharm	hijab, ayib
shave (*v.*)	zēyyin, yuzēyyin	tirāshīdan, tirāsh	trāsh étmék
sheep	ghanam	gūsfand	qoyun
sheet (bed)	charchaf	chādar	charshaf
sheet (of paper)	warqah	varaq	tabaqa
shell (*n.*)	gulleh (*pl.* gulel)	khumpareh	mérmī, qumbara
shell (*v.*)	dharab bi-ṭōp, yadhrab bi-ṭōp	khumpareh andākhtan, andāz	qumbara atmaq
ship	markab	kashtī, jahāz	séfīné, gémi
shirt	qamīṣ; thōb (outer shirt)	pīrāhan	gömlék
shoal	shelhah	dasta	sigh yer, sighliq
shoe (*n.*)	qandarah, papūsh	kafsh, pīneh	papush, qundura
shoe (*v.*)	naʻʻal, yunaʻʻil	naʻl band kardan, kun	naʻalamaq
shoot	rama, yarmī *or* dharab bi raṣāṣ, yadhrab	gulūleh andākhtan, andāz *or* tīr andākhtan, andāz	tufénk atmaq
shop	dukkān (*pl.* dukākīn)	dukkān	dükyān
shore	sāḥil	kinār, sāḥil	sāhil, sū kénāri

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
sextant	sextant, angiunachap		
shade (*n.*)	shouk, sdver	sī, keresī	ṭella
shake	tsntsel, sharzhel	takāndin, jumāndin, weshāndin	npiṣlé
shallow	dzandzagh	borr	borré, dūktha di-psa'a
shame (*n.*)	amot	sharm, ruswāi, 'aibā hishmat	
shave (*v.*)	adzilel	tirāsh kir, kūr kir	gré'lé
sheep	vochkhar	méh, paz	'erba
sheet (bed)	savan	jājīm, charchaf	ghaṭā, jājim
sheet (of paper)	tert	kāghaz	tābāqā
shell (*n.*)	rroump		gunbilta d-ṭōpé
shell (*v.*)	rrmpaharel		
ship	nav	gamī, markab	markwa
shirt	shabig	kirās	südrā
shoal	tzgneram	jamā'at, gurūh (crowd); nakūr, na-qōl, bōrr (shallow)	qumsāl
shoe (*n.*)	goshig	ṣōl, pélāv, na'l	ṣāulé, na'la
shoe (*v.*)	baydel, nalel	na'l kir	mnu'ellé
shoot	kndagaharel, zarnel	āvītin, taqāndin	twéré nīshan
shop	khanout, krbag	dikkān	dikkāna
shore	ap, yezerq	nézīké āvé, sāḥil	siptha d-māya

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
short	qaṣīr	kūtāh	qissa
shot (act)	ramyah, chēlah	tīr, gulūleh	qurshun, sachma
shot (bullets)	sechem		
shoulder	kitif (*dual* kitifēn)	dūsh	omuz
shout (*v.*)	ṣāḥ, yaṣīḥ	bāng zadan, zan	baghirmaq
shovel (*n.*)	mijrāf	pārū	kürék
show (*v.*)	shawwaf, yu-shawwif; bēy-yen, yubēyyen (prove)	namūdan, numā	göstérmék
shrapnel	shrapnel	shrapnel	shrapnel
shrine	mazār (place of visitation)	mazār	ziyāret
shut (*see* close)	sedd, yasidd	bastan, band	qapamaq
sick	marīdh, waj'ān	bīmār, nā-khush	khasta, keifsez
sickle	menjel	dās	oraq
side	jānib, ṣōb	pahlū	yān, jānib
siege	muḥāṣarah	muḥāṣareh	muhāséré
sieve	mankhal, gharbāl	ghirbāl	élék, qalbur
sight (of gun)	nēshengah	nishāngāh	nishān-gyāh
signal	ishārah	ishārat	ishārét
silent, to be	seket, yiskut	khāmūsh shudan, shau *or* sākit shudan, shau	sūs lmaq *or* sukūt étmék
silting	radm, diḥlah	gil-band	qum vé chamur séddi
silver (*adj.*)	min fidhdhah	nuqrā'ī	gümüsh
silver (*n.*)	fidhdhah	nuqreh	gümüsh

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
short	garj	kurt	kerya
shot (act)	harvadz, kndag	ṣachma, riṣāṣ	gunbilta, ṣachma
shot (bullets)			
shoulder	ous, thigounk	mil, pīl	rūsha
shout (*v.*)	kochel, tsayn dal	dang *or* hāwār	m'uyiṭlé, ṣrekhlé
shovel (*n.*)	thiag	kir, kālin pārū, hestīv	rōshta, marra
show (*v.*)	tsuyts dal	nīshān dā	mukhzélé, mukhwélé
shrapnel	shrapnel (pegorq bay-thogh kndagi)		
shrine	khoran	mazār, ziārat	zīārat
shut (*see* close)	kotsel, pagel	bestīn, kuch-āndin	ghleqlé
sick	hivant	nāsākh, nākh-wosh	krīha, nākh-wosh
sickle	mankagh	dāsik, manjal, turdās, dāsūla	maglā
side	goghm	ṭeref, jānib	jānib, dipna
siege	basharoumn	ḥiṣār	ḥiṣār
sieve	magh	bézhing, hélik, tūlak, pāla	sarīdā
sight (of gun)	nshanatsuyts (hratsani)	nīshāngāh sipā	nīshangāh
signal	nshan, aztan-shan	nīshān	nīshan
silent, to be	lrrel, lourr mnal	dav girt, bé-dang bū	shtiqlé
silting	dghmalits	gilbānd	skāra
silver (*adj.*)	ardzathia		
silver (*n.*)	ardzath	zīv, zīw	séma

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
since (*prepos.*)	min	tā, az waqti keh	-dan béri(*suffix*)
since (*adv.*)	ba'ad		
since (because)	li-an, min ḥēth		
sinful	khāṭī	gunāhqār	gunahli
sing (*v.*)	ghanna, yughanni	āvāz khāndan, sarāyīdan	turku chaghirmaq
sink (*trans.*)	gharraq, yugharriq	gharq kardan, kun	bātirmaq
sink (*intrans.*)	ghariq, yaghraq	gharq shudan, shau	bātmaq
sir (to native)	effendim	āqā	effendim, agha
(to European)	sāḥib	āqā, mūsqū	bey effendi, chélébi
sister	ukht (*pl.* akhawāt)	khāhar, hamshīreh	qiz-qardash
sit	qa'ad, yaq'ad; jeles, yijlis	nishashtan, nishīn	oturmaq
size	kubr	andāza	büyüklik
skilful	māhir	hunarmand, zaring	hünérli
skin (inflated)	garbah	mashk	tūlūm, kélék
skirmish	munāwashah	zad-u khurd, qarāvulī	chérkha
sky	es-sema	āsmān	gök
slaughter (*n.*)	dhibḥ	kushtār	qirim
slaughter (*v.*)	dhebeḥ, yidhbaḥ	kushtan, kush	késmék, hélāk étmék
sleep (*n.*)	nōm	khābīdan	ūyqū
sleep (*v.*)	nām, yanām	khābīdan, khāb	ūyūmaq
sleeve	kumm (*pl.* akmām), rudn	āstīn	kol
slow	baṭī; muta-'akhkhar (of watch)	yawāsh	yavāsh
slowly	yawāsh, 'ala kēf	āhisteh	yavāsh yavāsh
small	ṣaghīr	kūchak	ufaq, küchük

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
since (*prepos.*)	horme hede	zhwakht	min
since (*adv.*)	minch		
since (because)	kanzi		min sābāb
sinful	*meghavor*	*gunāhkār, khudān sūj*	*khiltānā*
sing (*v.*)	yerkel	istirān bézhin, bān kirin	zāmir
sink (*trans.*)	souzel, ungghmel		mughriqlé
sink (*intrans.*)	souzil, ungghmil	dabinda *or* bin āv chō	ghariqlé
sir (to native)	baron	khwāja, āgha	effendi
(to European)	baron	baig, bag	sāhib
sister	quyr	khushk, khung	khātha
sit	nsdil	rūnishtin	ītūlé
size	chap, hasag	mazīnatī, gaurāī, qadar	gūrūthā
skilful	jardar, hmoud	ʻāqil, tézhfahm	shāṭir, māhir
skin (inflated)	dig, barg	charm, ziqq	ziqqa
skirmish	tetev grriv	sharr	
sky	yerginq, ot	āsmān	rqīʻā
slaughter (*n.*)	godoradz		nkhāra
slaughter (*v.*)	godorel, sbanel	kūshtan, zabḥ	nkhéré
sleep (*n.*)	qoun	khawā, khāu	shintha, dmākha
sleep (*v.*)	qnanal	newestin	dmikhlé
sleeve	thev	bāl, hūchik	darpilta, braidhātha
slow	gamats	pégirān, yawāsh	yaqūra
slowly	gamatsoug	yawāsh yawāsh	hédi hédi
small	poqr, manr	bechūk, hūr	zōra

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
smaller	aṣghar	kūchaktar	daha küchük
smallpox	jidrī	ābila	chichék 'illéti
smell (*n.*)	rīḥah	bū	qoqū
smell (*trans.*)	ishtemm, yashtemm	bū kardan, kun	qoqlamaq
smell (to stink)	antan, yuntin	muta'affin shudan, shau	qoqmaq
smoke (*n.*)	dukhān	dūd	duman
smoke (tobacco, *v.*)	sharab titen, yishrab titen	tutūn kashīdan, kash	tütün ichmék
smooth	mālis	ṣāf, hamwār	düz
smuggling	tehrīb	tahrīb az gumruk *or* az gumruk gurīzāndan	qachirma
snake	ḥayyah	mār	yilan
snow (*n.*)	thelj	barf	qār
so (thus)	hīchī	chunīn *or* īn taur	böilé
so and so (*n.*)	fulān	fulān	filan
soap	ṣābūn	ṣābūn	sābūn
sock	jōrib (*pl.* juwārib)	jūrāb	chorab
soft	lēyyin	narm	yimushaq
soil (earth)	trāb	khāk	topraq
soldier	'asker	sarbāz	'askér
solid	qawī, jāmid	mujassam	métin, qavi
some	shwēya	qadrī	bazi
somebody	ferd wāḥid	shakhsī	bir kimsé
something	ferd shē	chīzī	bir shei
sometimes	ba'dh el-awqāt	ba'zī auqāt, aḥyānan	ba'zi kérré
somewhere	fi ferd makān	yak jā	bir yére, bir yérde
son	ibn (*pl.* benīn)	pisar	oghl
song	ghinā, naghmah	āwāz	türkü, sharqi

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
smaller	aveli poqr, poqrakuyn	bechūkter	besh zōra
smallpox	dzaghgakhd	hāwla, āwlik, khūrī	shalqū, khwātītā
smell (*n.*)	hod	behn, būen	rīkha
smell (*trans.*)	hododal, hod arrnel	behin kir	shqillé rīkha
smell (to stink)	hodil	behin dā	īwellé rīkha
smoke (*n.*)	dzoukh	dūkal, dūd	tnāna
smoke (tobacco, *v.*)	dzkhel	tutun vakhwārin	shtélé tutun
smooth	harth	sā, hulū	rakīkha
smuggling	abranq pakhtsnel, maksanengoutiun	qachāgh	
snake	otz	mār	khūwi
snow (*n.*)	tziun	bafr	talga
so (thus)	aisbes, asang	waṣa, wuṣān	hātkhā
so and so (*n.*)	aisinch aininch	flānkas	pilān
soap	sabon	ṣābūn	ṣābun
sock	koulba	gōra, jūrāv	girwā
soft	gagough	narm	chalabī
soil (earth)	hogh	ʻard, ākh	ʻuprā
soldier	zinvor	ʻaskarī	ʻaskarī
solid	amour	qāim	matīn, zarbāna
some	qich, mi qich, qani me, qich me	chand, hindik	khakmā
somebody	mege, vomn	kasak	khā nāshā
something	pan me	tishtik, tishkī	khā mendī
sometimes	yerpemn	jāreki, jārjār	khakma gahātha
somewhere	oureq, degh mi	bʻardak	be-khdha dūktha
son	vorti	kurr, zārō	brōna
song	yerk	stirān	zmāra

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
soon	'an qarīb, fī awwal waqt, bil-'ajel	zūd	chabuk, téz
sooner	gabl	zūttar	daha chabuq, daha érkén
sortie (*n.*)	khurūj, hujmah	hamla-ye khurūj	khuruj, hujum
sound (*adj.*)	ṣaḥīh	sālim	sāgh, saghlam
sound (noise)	ṣaut (*pl.* aṣwāt), ḥiss	ṣadā	sés
sounding (water)	ghumq el-moi	miqyās	isqandil étmési
soup	shorbah	āb-i-gūsht	chorba
sour	ḥāmidh	turush	ékshi
sour milk	leben	māst	yoghurt
south	jinūb	janūb	jénūb, qibla
southern	jinūbi	janūbī	jénūbi
south wind	shergī	bād-e janūb	jénubdan ésén ruzkiar
sow (*v.*)	zara', yizra'	kāshtan	ékmék
spade	misḥā, miḥfar	bīl	bél, kürék
spark	sharārah	akhgar, sharāreh	qighiljim, shérāré
sparrow	'aṣfūr (*pl.* 'aṣāfīr)	kunjishk	serché
speak	ḥaka yaḥkī *or* tekellam, yetekellam	guftan, gūi	söilémék
spear (*n.*)	ramḥ (*pl.* armāḥ)	naiza	gharghi, mizraq
specially	khaṣūṣan makhṣūṣ	khuṣūṣan	bāshlija
specie	nuqūd	naqd	naqd, meskiu kiat
spectacles	mandharāt	ainak	gözlik
speed	sur'ah, 'ajalah	sur'at	sür'at

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
soon	shoud	zū	qalūla
sooner	aveli shoud	zūtir	būsh zōdā
sortie (*n.*)	hartzagoum (azadvelou)	hujūm	plaṭ ta le plāshā
sound (*adj.*)	arroghch	sākh	ṣāghh salīm
sound (noise)	tzayn, hnchiun	dang	qāla
sounding (water)	dzovachapoutiun		
soup	abour	shōrba	shōrba
sour	ththou	tersh	khamūṣa
sour milk	madzoun	māst	masta
south	haraf	junūb, qiblat	junūb, taimna
southern	harafayin	ṭarefé qiblaté	
south wind	haravayin hov	bāé junūb	pōkhā témnayā
sow (*v.*)	tsanel, sermanel	tū āvitin, kilāndin, chāndin	zāré
spade	prich, pah	bīal, bér, marr	māwal, rōshta, marra
spark	gaydz	prisk, chrisk, pāll	sharāritha
sparrow	jnjghong	chūkī, maluchka, chūlī	siprā
speak	khosel	gōtin, akhāftin	muḥkélé
spear (*n.*)	nizag	rūm	zergā, rūmḥa
specially	hadgabes	khuṣūṣan, galagter	
specie	hnchoun tram	naqd, zīv	naqd
spectacles	agnots	ainekī, chāwānk	chashmī
speed	arakoutiun	lazī, sur'at	sur'ah, qalūlūtha

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
spend	ṣaraf, yaṣrif; enfeq, yunfiq	sarf kardan	sarf étmék, kharj étmék
spirits	ʻaraq	ʻaraq	rāqi
spoon	khāshūgal	qāshūq	qāshiq
spring (season)	rabīʻ	bahār	ilk bahār
spring (of water)	ʻain moi	chashmeh	punar, cheshmé
spur	shābūr	mihmīz	mahmūz
spy (*n.*)	jasūs	jāsūs	jasus
squadron (nautical)	firqah	daste-yi-kash-tihā-yi-jangī	donanma, filo
squall (wind)	dharbah	bād-i-tund	bora
square (*adj.*)	murabbaʻ	murabbaʻ	dört küshéli
stable	ṭōlah	ṭawīleh	akhur
staff (of army, *n.*)	arkān el-ḥarb	sar-kardagān-e qushūn	erkian-i-harb
stagnant (of water)	khāyis, wāgif	īstāda	durghun, aq-maz
staircase	derej	nardbān, palleh	mérdivén
stalks (of millet or maize)	sāq	shākheh	sāplar
stallion	faḥl (*pl.* fuḥūl)	asp-i-nar	aighir, āt
stamp (postage, *n.*)	pūl	tambr	pul
stand (*v.*)	wagaf, yogaf *or* qām, yaqūm	īstādan, īst	ayaqda durmaq, dikilmék
star	nejmah (*pl.* nujūm)	sitāreh	yildiz
starboard	yamīn	rāst	sanjaq jiheti, sanjaq tarafi
hard a-starboard	tammam lil-yamīn		alabanda yali

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
spend	dzakhsel	kharj kirin	khārij
spirits	vokelits umpeliq, oghi	ʻaraq	ʻaraq
spoon	ktal	kauchik, hask	maṭamta
spring (season)	karoun	bahār	bahār
spring (of water)	aghpiur	kānī	ʻaina
spur	khthan, mtrag	pishīn	sqāṭa
spy (*n.*)	lrdes	jāsūs	jāsūsā
squadron (nautical)	koumardag; dormigh (of battleships)		
squall (wind)	jich, aghaghag, potorig	bā mazin	karapéch
square (*adj.*)	qarragousi	chārgōh, murabbaʻ	murabbaʻ
stable	akhorr, kom	pāga, ākhūr	bikāré
staff (of army, *n.*)		arkāné ḥarb	
stagnant (of water)	ljatsadz (chour)	bé-ḥarakat, sākin, nāhingivīn	
staircase	sandukh	pilakān, erdevān salāl	simalta
stalks (of millet or maize)	tsoghoun	shākh, pāl	qōrma
stallion	krasd (madagakhantz)	faḥl, tamāzalk	faḥla
stamp (postage, *n.*)	namagatroshm	pūl	mārqā, tambr
stand (*v.*)	ganknel	rāwustan	qimlé, klélé
star	asdgh	stār, hassāra	kaukhwa
starboard	arrachagoghm navi	rāst	liamné
hard a-starboard	ghegn tebi ach		

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
starvation (*n.*)	jū' ; mōt jū'	gurusnagī	ajliq
state (condition)	ḥāl (*pl.* aḥwāl)	ḥāl	hāl
station (railway)	maḥaṭṭah	maḥaṭṭah	mahatta (in Syria), iskélé, istasion
steal	bāq, yabūq	duzdīdan, duzd	chālmaq
steam	bukhār, ishtīm	bukhār	bughu, bukhār
steamer	markab bukhār, bākhirah	kashtī-yi-bukhārī	vapor
steel (*n.*)	fūlādh	pūlād	chélik
steel (*adj.*)	min fūlādh	pūlādī	chélik
steering-gear	ālat el-idārah		dūmén-āléti
steersman	sukkānchī	dūmandū	duménji
stem (of ship)	ṣadr el-markab	pīshi-yi-jahāz	géminin bashi
stern	akhīr el-markab	pusht-i-jahāz	géminin qichi
steward	khādim		qamarot
stick (*n.*)	'aṣa, 'ūdah	chūb-i-dastī	deinék, sōpa
still (of time)	ila 'l-ān	hanūz, tā bi-ḥāl	dahā, henōz
stirrups	rikāb	rikāb	üzengi
stock (of a gun)	qundaq (*pl.* qanādiq)	kundeh	qundaq
stoker	nārī, waqqād	ātashī	vaporun atéshjisi
stomach	baṭn, ma'dah	shikam, mi'da	qarin, mi'dé
stone	ḥajar (*pl.* ḥijār)	sang	tāsh
stony	ḥajarī	sang-sār	tāshli
stop (*intrans.*)	wagaf, yogaf	īstādan, īst	durmaq

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
starvation (*n.*)	ansvagoutiun, anotoutenné merrnil	birsītī, birchī, zhbirsā miriné, girānī	kipnā
state (condition)	vijag	ḥāl	ḥāl
station (railway)	gayan, gayaran		
steal	koghnal	dizīn	gnūlé
steam	shoki	bukhār	bukhār, hauhāra
steamer	shokenav		
steel (*n.*)	boghbad	pūlā	pōladh
steel (*adj.*)	boghbadia		min pōladh
steering-gear	sharzhich kortziq, aniv		
steersman	ghegavarich	dumanchī	dūmānchi
stem (of ship)	klkhadzayr (navi)		
stern	verchadzayr (navi)		
steward	dndes, sbasavor (navi)	khādim, khizmatkār	ghulāma
stick (*n.*)	kavazan	dār, gopāl	qatta
still (*adv.*)	dagavin	ḥatta nuhā	hul dahā
stirrups	asbantag	auzūm, zengī	zangūl
stock (of a gun)	goth (hratsani)	qundākh	qūndākha
stoker	navi-gragarar		
stomach	porr, stamox	zik, māda	ma'dah, kāsa, istümkā
stone	qar	bar	képā
stony	qarod		māri kīpi
stop (*intrans.*)	gank arrnel	rāwustān, sakinīn	klélé, smikhlé

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
stores	arzāq, dhakhāyir, alwas (grain)	zakhīreh	tédārükyāt, lévāzimāt
stork	legleg	laqlaq, laklak	leylék, haji baba
storm	dharbah	ṭūfān	firtina
stormy	ʻajāj	ṭūfānī	firtinali
story	ḥikāyah	hikāyat	hikyayé
stove	ṣōpa, bukhārī	bukhārī	soba
straight	ʻādil, gūbal (straight on)	rāst	doghru
strange	gharīb, ʻajīb	gharīb	yabānji, gharīb
strap	sēr	tasmeh	qāish
strategy	fann el-ḥarb	fann-i-muḥārabeh	sévq él-jeish
straw	tibn	kāh	samān
stream	nahr, mejrā	jūi	chāi, sū
street	shāriʻ, darb	khiyābān	soqāq
strength	qūwah	zūr	quvvét
stretcher	sedyah	takhta	
stretcher-bearer	shayyāl	hāmil-e takhta	
strike	dharab, yadhrib	zadan, zan	vurmaq
strike camp	qalaʻ el-khiyam, yakhlaʻ el-khiyam	chādirhā kandan, kun	chādirléri qaldirmaq
string	khaiṭ, sūtlī	rīsmān	ip
strong	qawī	qawī	quvvétli
stupid	thaqīl, balīd	nā-dān	ʻaqlsiz, shashqin
subaltern	mulāzim	nāyib	mulāzim
submarine	ghawwāṣah	ghauwāṣeh	tahtu'l-bahr
success	najāḥ	zafar	muvafaqiyét
suddenly	defʻatan baghtatan	nāgāh	āp-ānsiz, bir-dén-biré
sugar	sheker	qand, shakar	shékér

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
stores	mtherq	zakhīra, anbār	zakhīra, ʻanbar
stork	arakil	laglag, ḥajji laglag	laglāg
storm	potorig, mrrig	ṭufān, fartanah	ṭāvīa, karapéch, ṭufān
stormy	potorgalits		
story	badmoutiun	khabar, qiṣṣat, chīrūk	haqyāt
stove	chermots	āgirdān, kūchik, bikhairī	sūbā
straight	shidag, oughigh	drest, rāst	drest, ʻadil, dūs
strange	odar	gharīb	nakhrāya
strap	yeriz, pog	qāish	qāisha
strategy	rrazmakidoutiun		
straw	hart	kā, kah	tūna
stream	arrou, vdag	āv, rūbār	néhra, rubāra
street	poghots	kōlān	alōla
strength	uyzh, zoroutiun	zūr, hāz, quwwat	zakhmūtha
stretcher	badkarag	takhtah	takhtā
stretcher-bearer	badkaragagir	hammālé takhtah	hammāl d-takhtā
strike	zarnel, khpel		
strike camp	vranel	bār kiriné	maṭʻōné
string	lar, thel	risī, pat	gdhāla
strong	zoravor	khurṭ, qawī	zakhma
stupid	aboush	bémézh, aḥmaq	sakhla, aḥmaq
subaltern	entasba	bichūk māmūr	nāyib
submarine	submarin		
success	hachoghoutiun	najāḥ	ghālibūthā
suddenly	hangardz	ghaflatan, zhneshkīwa	shghaflé, nāgestan
sugar	shakar	shakar	shékar

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
sugar-cane	qaṣab esh-sheker	nai-shakar	shékér qāmishi
suitable	muwāfiq	munāsib	münāsib, lāiq
summer	ṣēf	tābistān	yaz
sun	shems	āftāb	günésh
Sunday	Yōm el-aḥad	Yekshambeh	Bāzār-günü
sunrise	ṭulū' esh-shems	ṭulū'-i-āftāb	gün doghusu
sunset	ghurūb esh-shems	ghurūb-i-āftāb	ghurūb, gün batisi
supper	'ashā	shām	aqsham ta'ami
supplies	arzāq, muhimmāt	zakhīreh	lévāzimāt
surgeon	jarrāḥ	jarrāḥ	jérrāh
surrender (*trans.*). *See also* give in	sellem, yusellim	sipurdan, sipār	téslīm étmék
survey (*v.*)	hendes, yuhendis	misāhat kardan	(arāziyi) ölchmék
surveyor	muhendis	massāh	muhendis
suspected	mashbūh	maznūn	shubhéli, maznūn
sweet	ḥulu, 'adhb (of water)	shīrīn	tatli
swelling (*n.*)	wurūm	āmās	shish, shishlik
swim (*v.*)	sebeḥ, yisbaḥ	shināwarī kardan, kun	yüzmék
switch (of railway, *n.*)	maqaṣṣ	mīl-e naqqāla-ye rāh-e āhan	
sword	sēf (*pl.* suyūf)	shamshīr	qilij
syphilis	frengī	kūft	frengi, éfrenj
Syria	Esh-Shām, Sūrīya	Shām	Shām
table	mēz	míz	trébézé, sofra
tactics	ḥarakāt ḥarbīyah	tadābīr-i-ḥarbīyeh	ta'biyé el-jeish

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac*
sugar-cane	shaqareghek		
suitable	harmar	munāsib, léhātin	munāsib, lāiq
summer	amarr	hāvin	qaiṭa
sun	arev	tāv, tāu	shemsha
Sunday	Giragi	Yekshamb	Khaushāba
sunrise	arevadzak	rūhalāt, ṣubaḥī	īsāqa d-yauma
sunset	arevamoud	khwārāwā, ghurūb	gnāya d-yauma
supper	entriq	shīv, chaishtashav	khāramshā
supplies	bashareghen	zakhīra	zakhīra
surgeon	virapuyzh	jarrāḥ, ḥakīm	jarrāḥ, hakīm
surrender (*trans.*). *See also* give in	hantznel	teslīm kir	msulemlé
survey (*v.*)	kednachapel	masāhat *or* handasat kirin	mākhī-tanap
surveyor	yergrachap	muhandis	tānāpchī
suspected	gasgadzeli	bshubha, bgumān	khū shubha
sweet	anoush	shirīn	ḥalūya
swelling (*n.*)	ourruytsk	bā girtiné, panāmiānī	zīrta
swim (*v.*)	loghal	malavān bū	ṣkhélé
switch (of railway, *n.*)	jiugh, aqdzan		
sword	sour, thour	shīr	saipa
syphilis	fransagan akhd	farangī, maraz khabīs	
Syria	Syria	Shām	Sūrīya, Shām
table	seghan	méz, ṣifrā	méz, ṣifra
tactics	rrazmakhagh, tactis		

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
tail	dhēl (*pl.* dhuyūl); līyah (of sheep)	dum	quiruq
tailor (*n.*)	khayyāṭ	khaiyāt	térzi
take	akhadh, yā'khudh	giriftan, gīr	ālmaq
talk (*v.*)	ḥaka, yaḥkī	ḥarf zadan, zan *or* guft-u-gū kardan, kun	qonūshmaq
tall	ṭawīl, 'ālī	buland bālā	ūzūn boilu
tame	alīf	dast-āmūz	alishmish
tank	ḥōdh	daryācha, hauz	sarnij
tar (*n.*)	qīr	qīr	qatran
target	nīshān	nishān	nishān
tarpaulin	mushemma'	mushamma'	mushamba
taste (*v.*)	dhāq, yadhūq	chashīdan, chash	tātmaq
tax (*n.*)	mīrī, resm, 'oshor (tithe), khumas ($\frac{1}{5}$)	bāj	vergi
tea	chāi	chāi	chaï
tea-cup	piyālah	finjān	chai finjani
tea-pot	kūrī	qūrī	chailiq
teach	'allam, yu'allim	ta'līm dādan, deh *or* āmūkhtan, āmūz	ögrétmék
tear (*v.*)	shaqq, yashuqq	pāreh kardan, kun	yirtmaq
telegraph (*n.*)	telegrāf	teleghrāf	télégrāf
telegraph office	telegrāf-khānah	teleghrāf-khāneh	télégrāf-khāné
telescope	darbīn	dūrbīn buzurg	dūrbīn
tell	qāl li-, yaqūl li-	guftan, gūi	söilémék

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
tail	aki, ' boch '	dūv, dunk, dūlik, bōch	tüprā
tailor (*n.*)	tertzag	derzī	derzi
take	arrnel, vertsnel	helgirtin, birīn, stāndin	shqillé
talk (*v.*)	zroutsel, khosel	gōtin, akhāv-tin	muḥkélé
tall	yergayn	drézh	yarīkha
tame	undani, undell	kedī, ahlī	kadī, ahlī
tank	avazan	lītch, sārinj	hāwūz
tar (*n.*)	sev tziut	qīr, zift	qir
target	nshaged, nshan	nīshān	nīshan
tarpaulin	momlat, mo-mazodz gdav ; monshamba (Turkish)	mushamma'	mūshamma'
taste (*v.*)	jashagel	ṭām kir	ṭmé'lé
tax (*n.*)	harg, dourq	bāj	kherj
tea	chay, they	chāi	chāi
tea-cup	teyi-kavat	finjāné chāi	isteikan, chīnī
tea-pot	teyaman	kūzé *or* tan-jūré chāi	chaipās
teach	sorvetsnel ousoutsanel	tālim kir, dast dā	muliplé
tear (*v.*)	badrrel	deryān, bizdān-din	jiqlé
telegraph (*n.*)	herrakir	teleghrāf	téleghrāf
telegraph office	herrakradoun	teleghrāf-khānah	teléghrāfkhāna
telescope	herratidag	dōrbīn	dorbīna
tell	usel, asel	gōtin, khabar dā	mukhbéré

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
tenant (*n.*)	mustā'jir	musta'jir	qiraji
tent	chādir, khēmah	khaimeh, chādir	chādir
tent-peg	watad (*pl.* autād)	mīkh	chādir qāzighi
tent-rope	ḥabl el-chādir	rasan, ṭanāb	chādir ipi
than	min	az	-dan (*suffix*)
thank	sheker, yishkur	shukr kardan, kun	téshékkür étmék
that (*conj.*)	ann	ki	ki
that (*pron.*)	hadhāk (*fem.* hadhīk)	ān	o, ol
thaw (*n.*)	dhawabān	gudāz-i-yakh	qārlarin érimési
thee	-ek (*fem.* -eki *or* -ech)	tu-rā	sana (*dat.*), séni (*accus.*)
their	-hum (*suffix*)	-i-īshān (*suffix*)	onlarin
theirs	mālhum	māl-i-īshan	onlarin-ki
them	-hum (*suffix*)	īshān-rā	onlara (*dat.*), onlari (*accus.*)
then (at that time)	hadhāk el-waqt	dar ān waqt	ol vaqit
then (after that)	thumma	ba'd az ān	ondan sōñra
thence	min hināk	az ānjā	oradan
there	hināk	ānjā	orada
there is	ākū	hast *or* manjūd ast	var
thermometer	mīzān el-ḥarārah	miqyās-i-ḥarārat	mīzān-i-harārét
these (*pron.*)	hadhōl, hel	īnhā	bunlar
they	hum	īshān	onlar
thick	thakhīn	kuluft, ambūh (of trees, &c.)	qālin
thief	ḥarāmī, bawwāq	duzd	khirsiz
thimble	kushtibān	angushtāneh	yüksük
thin	raqīq, dha'īf, khafīf	lāghar, nāzik	injé, za'īf
thine	mālek (*fem.* māleki)	māl-i-tū	séninki

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
tenant (*n.*)	vartsagal	kirchī, kirīkir	ījārādar
tent	vran	māl, kūn, chādir	kwīna, chāder
tent-peg	vranatsits, vrani tsits	senk, mīkh	ṣṭunta
tent-rope	vrani lar	bāng, rīst	khaula dekwīna
than	qan	zh . . . la . .	min
thank	shnorhagal linel	shiker kir	shkéré, tānen minta
that (*conj.*)	the, zi, vor	ki	d-
that (*pron.*)	at, ayt, ayn	av, au	āwa, ō
thaw (*n.*)	tsogh	av buyān	pishrāna
thee	kez, skez	tā, tū	-ōkh (*fem.*-akh)
their	anonts	-wān, awān	-waihi
theirs	anontsn	yāwān	dīyaihi
them	zanonq (*accus.*) anonts (*dat.*)	-wān	-naihi
then (at that time)	an-aden	avjār, wéjāré	āi gah
then (after that)	aba, hedo		bār
thence	andi, andeghen	zhwédaré, zhéra	min tāma
there	ayn-degh, ant	audaré, āora	tāma
there is	ga	haya	īth
thermometer	chermachap		
these (*pron.*)	asonq	vān, amān	ānī
they	anonq	vān, awān	ānī
thick	tantzr, khid	ustūr, tīr (of liquid)	ghalīẓ, qishya (of liquid)
thief	kogh, avazag	diz	ganāwa
thimble	madnots	kishtabāni	kishtabāni
thin	nosr, barag	zrāva, larr	naqīdha, raqīqa
thine	qougt	yāta, māléta	dyōkh

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
thing	shē	chīz	shei
think	ifteker, yaftekir	pindāshtan, pindār	düshünmék, zann étmék
thirst (*v.*)	ʻaṭish, yaʻṭash	tishneh shudan, shau	sūsuz olmaq
thirsty	ʻaṭshān	tishneh	sūsuz
this	hādha (*fem.* hādhī), hel	īn	bū
thither	ila hināk	tā ānjā	oraya
thorn	shōk	khār	dikén
camel-thorn	ʻagūl	khār-e shutur	dévé dikéni
those (*pron.*)	hadhōlāk; hadhīk (of things)	ānān, ānhā	onlar
thou	enta *or* inta (*fem.* enti)	tū	sén
thread	khaiṭ (*pl.* khuyūṭ)	nakh, rishteh	iplik
threaten	hedded, yuheddid	tahdīd kardan, kun	téhdīd étmék, qorqutmaq
threshing	dōs	khirman kūbī	kharman (étmék)
throat	ḥalq	galū	boghaz
through	fī, bi-	az miyān-e	-dan (*suffix*)
thunder	raʻd, qarāqīʻ	raʻd	gök gürlémési
Thursday	Yōm el-khamīs	Panjshambeh	Pérshémbé
thy	-ek (*fem.* -eki *or* -ech)		
tick (insect)	qarād		kéné

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
thing	pan, ir	tishtak	mindī
think	mdadzel, khorhel	fakkirīn	mtukhminné
thirst (*v.*)	dzaravil	tihnā *or* tī, bū	ṣhélé
thirsty	dzaravi	tīna, tī	ṣehya
this	ays	av, ama	ādhī, āhā
thither	on antr, hon	lawédaré	tāma
thorn	poush	dérrik, ḍuiru, khār	kitwā
camel-thorn		dérrik, duiru, khār	kitwā d-gümlā
those (*pron.*)	adonq, anonq	vān	ānai
thou	tou	tū	āyet, āté
thread	thel, tertzan	risī, dezhī, machīr	gdhādha
threaten	sbarrnal	tahdīd kir	ewedhlé tahdīd
threshing	gamnel, tsoren dzedzel	mālish kiriné, la bīdar āvitin, daq kiriné	
throat	gogort	gūrī, gilū, qurrig	qdhāla
through	meg goghmen miuse, mechen, michotsav	linīv, zhnīv	m-gō
thunder	vorodoumn	dandar, dangī āsmān, hāu rataqa	gargimma
Thursday	Hinkshapti	Penjshamb	Khamshaushāba
thy	qou		
tick (insect)	tziasdats (michad), gene, gana		

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
ticket	teskerah	balīt, tikat	billét, téskéré
tidal	dhū medd	ṣāḥib-i-madd ū jazar	medd ve jezr-den
tide	medd wa-jizr	madd ū jazar	sūyun qabarmasi ve chékilmési
flood tide	medd	madd	médd
ebb tide	jizr	jazr	jezr
tie (*v.*)	shedd, yashidd	bastan, band	baghlamaq
tight	mashdūd	sift, tang	siqi
Tigris (R.)	Ed-Dijla	Dijla	Dijla
tile (*n.*)	qarmīd (flat-shaped)	sufāl, qarmīd	kirémīd, tughla
till	ḥatta	tā	-é -qadar
time	waqt (*pl.* auqāt)	waqt, gāh, zamān	vaqit
what time is it ?	bēsh es-sā'ah ?	che sā'at ast, *or* sā'at chand ast ?	sa'at qach dir ?
(number *n.*)	marrāt, nōbāt	dafa'āt	déf'a
timid	khāyif, khawwāf	tarsān, tarsū	qorqaq
tired	ta'bān	khasteh	yorghun
tithe (*n.*)	'oshor ; khumas ($\frac{1}{5}$)	dah-yak	ondaliq, ushr
to	ila	bi-	-é, -a (*suffix*)
tobacco	titen	tambākū, tutūn	tütün
to-day	el-yōm	imrūz	bū gün
toe	usbu' er-rijl	angusht-i-pā	ayaq parmaghi
to-morrow	bukrah, bācher	fardā	yarin

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
ticket	domsag	sanad, billet, tikat	bilīt
tidal	deghadvayin yev magntatsayin		
tide	magntatsoutiun yev-deghadvoutiun (flow and ebb)		
flood tide	hadjel, partzranal (chour dzovi)	maddé bahré	
ebb tide	nvazil (chour dzovi)	jazré baḥré	
tie (*v.*)	gabel	giri kir, shadāndin	īṣéré
tight	bind, birg	ṭang	ḥazīqa, ḥezẓōqa
Tigris (R.)	Dikris	Āvé mazin, Dijlah	Diglat
tile (*n.*)	gghmindr	karpéch, hājūr	karpéch
till	minchev	ḥatta, tā	hūl
time	zhamanag	zamān, wakht	zauna
what time is it ?	zhame kani é ?	chī wakhta ?	sā'at k-mā īleh ?
(number, *n.*)	ankamner	jārā, naqlā	gāhī
timid	yergchod	tersōk, kemdīl	zadōa
tired	hoknadz	wastā, mānig	jihya
tithe (*n.*)	dasanort	deh-ék, 'ushr	sīrāyā
to	arr, i	la, -é (*suffix*)	ṭā, l- (*prefix*)
tobacco	dzkhakot, tutun	tutun	tutun
to-day	aysor	avrō, amrō	idyō
toe	vodqi mad	tel pé	ṣubéta d-aqla
to-morrow	vaghn	ṣubaḥi, baiānī	ṣapra

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
tongue	lisān (*pl.* alsinah)	zabān	dil
to-night	hel-lēlah	imshab	bū géjé
tonnage	miḥmal el-markab	maḥmūl	géminin tonélatasi
too (also)	aidhan, hum	ham	dakhi
tool	ālah (*pl.* ālāt)	ālat	ālét
tooth	sinn (*pl.* asnān *or* sinūn)	dandān	dish
toothache	waja' sinn	dard-i-dandān	dish-āghrisi
top-boot	jazmah	chakmeh	chizmé
torpedo (*n.*)	lughm (*pl.* alghām)		torpil
touch (*v.*)	mess, yamiss	dast zadan, zan *or* lams kardan, kun	doqunmaq
tough	qawī	sift	sért, qati
tow (*v.*)	galaṣ, yaglaṣ	kashīdan	chékmék
towards	naḥu, ila	sū-yi-	tarafina (*after the word*)
towel	peshkir	dastmāl	hauli, péshgīr
tower	burj (*pl.* burūj) maftūl (Arab watch tower)	burj	qulé
town	beled	shahr, qaṣabeh (small)	shéhir
track	ether, ṭarīq	rāhcheh	yol, iz
trade (commerce, *n.*)	tajārah	tijārat	tijarét, alish-vérish
trader	tājir (*pl.* tujjār)	tājir	tujjār
train (railway, *n.*)	qaṭr, qiṭār	qitār-e rāh-e āhan, tiran	trén
translate	terjam, yuterjim	tarjumeh kardan, kun	térjumé étmék
translation	terjumah	tarjumeh	térjumé

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
tongue	lezou	azmān, zwạ̄n	lishāna
to-night	ays kisher	av shavā, am shāu	idlailé
tonnage	daroghoutiun (navi)		
too (also)	nuynbes	zhī, zī, ham	ham
tool	kortziq	ālat	ālitta
tooth	ādam	dudān	kāka
toothache	adamnatsav	dardé dudān	mar'a d-kāka
top-boot	yergan goshig		chekmé
torpedo (*n.*)	torpedo		
touch (*v.*)	shoshapel tpchil	dast girtin	gishlé b-
tough	gardzr, bind	sart	sart, qeshya
tow (*v.*)	navaqarshel	gamī kishān-din *or* dar īnān	gārish
towards	tebi	ṭarafé	l-bālad, l-
towel	srpich, yeressrpich	kafīya, khaolī	kaffīya
tower	ashdarag, amrots	burj	būrja
town	qaghaq	shahr, bāzhar	mdhīta
track	hedq	daus	daus
trade (commerce, *n.*)	vajaraganoutiun	tijārat, bāzirgānī	tājīrūthā
trader	khanoutban	tājir, bāzirgān	tājīr
train (railway, *n.*)	shokegarq	train, pāpōr	māshīnā
translate	tarkmanel	tarjamat kir	mturjimlé
translation	tarkmanoutiun	tarjamah	tarjamah

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
transport (*v.*)	naqal, yanqal	haml-u naql kardan	naql étmék
travel (*v.*)	sāfar, yusāfir	safar kardan	yoljuluq étmék
traveller	musāfir	musāfir	yolju
treacherous	khāyin	ghaddār	khāin
treaty	mu'āhadah	mu'āhada	'ahd-namé, mu'ahédé
tree	shejerah (*pl.* shejer)	dirakht	aghach
trench	khandaq (*pl.* khanādiq)	gaudāl, khandaq	héndéq, sipér
tribe	qabīlah (*pl.* qabāyil), 'ashīrah (*pl.* 'ashāyir)	īl, qabīleh	qabīlé, 'ashīrét
tributary (of stream)	shākhah	shu'ba-ye rūd-khāna	chai digér bir chaia munsabb olan
trigger	zanād	pistānak, shaitanak	tetik
trot (*v.*)	hedheb, yehdheb	luk luk raftan	ris gitmék, ilgār gitmék
trouble (*n.*)	kedr, kalūfah	zahmat	zahmét, siqindi
trough (of water, *n.*)	ḥōdh	hauz, nāva (*better*, ābish-ahur)	avlaq
trousers (European)	pantalōn	pāntālōn	pantalon
(Oriental)	sirwāl	shalvār, tumbān	shalvar
truce	hudnah	hidnat, tark-i-asliḥah	mutéréké
truck	'arabah	'arabīyeh	vagon
true	ṣadq, ṣaḥīḥ	rāst	gérchék, doghru, sahīh

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
transport (*v.*)	ourish degh danil	naql kirin, haml kirin, birrin	lābil
travel (*v.*)	jamportel	safar kirin, garriānin	ʻāwid sāpār
traveller	jamport	renī, rewanchī, rébuār	ūrkhāchī
treacherous	nengavor	ghaddār, khāin	ghaddār, khāin
treaty	tashnakroutiun	ʻahd	sharat nāmā
tree	dzarr	dār	īlāna
trench	khram		khandāq
tribe	tsegh, dohm	ʻashīret, māl	ʻashīrah
tributary (of stream)	hargadou ked	rūbār	hāchā
trigger	tzkan	pāya, chaqmaq	uqlā d-topang
trot (*v.*)	suyr, yeraknthats	luk lōk chō	mluqliqlé
trouble (*n.*)	vishd, hok, neghoutiun	zāmat, perishānī, tikil, khudūk	zāhmat
trough (of water, *n.*)	gour, ourt	sangāv	ʻagānā
trousers (European)	antravardiq, ʻpantalonʼ	pantalūn, shall	pantūl
(Oriental)	vardiq	darpé, shall, peshmā	shalwār
truce	zinatatar	havālīyé	īthāya li-khdha dhé
truck	pats perrnagarrg, sayl		
true	irav, jshmarid, oughigh	rāst, drest, sarast	ḥaq, sarast, trūsā

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
try	jarrab, yujarrib	kūshīdan, kūsh	chalishmaq (endeavour); téjribé étmék (experiment)
Tuesday	Yōm eth-thalāthā	Sehshambeh	Sáli-günü
tug (boat)	markab jarrār	jahāz-kash	remorqueur, chatana
tunnel (*n.*)	sirb (*pl.* esrāb)	naqb-e rāh-e āhan (a railway tunnel)	tunél
turban	leffah, 'imāmah	imāma	sariq
Turk	'Osmanlī	Turk, 'Osmānī	'Osmānli, Türk
Turkey	Turkīyā	Rūm, Khāk-i-'Osmānī	Mémālik-i-'osmānīyé, Turkiya
turn back	raja', yirja'	bar gardīdan, gard	géri dünmék
turret	burj (*pl.* burūj)	kungureh	top qulési
unbeliever	kāfir (non-Moslem)	kāfir	giaur, dinsiz
uncertain	mashkūk	mashkūk	shubhéli
uncivilized	mū mutemedden, waḥshī	vahshī	médéniyétsiz
unconscious	mā yaḥiss	bī-hūsh	baighin, bekhūd (insensible; khabéri olmayan (unaware)
uncultivated	kharāb	bī-ā bān	chöllik
under	jōa, taḥt	zīr	altinda
understand	fehem, yifham	fahmīdan, fahm	anlamaq
under way	musāfir	rawāneh	harékétdé olan (gémi)
undress oneself	neza' hudūm, yinza' hudūm	rakht kandan, kan *or* lukht shudan shau	soyunmaq

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
try	chanal	tajrīb kir	mjuriblé
Tuesday	Yereqshapti	Séshamb	Ṭlāthaushāba
tug (boat)	qashogh nav, navatzik		
tunnel (*n.*)	sdorergria-antsq	kunā chīā	kān
turban	patdots	kulāv, kōpīn	shumlā, pūshīyā
Turk	Tourq	Turkī, 'Osmanlī	Osmānlī
Turkey	Tourqia	Turkīya	Turkīya
turn back	hed tarnal	zevirrin, wagarriān	d'éré l-bathra
turret	bourg	burj	burja
unbeliever	anhavad	kāfir	kāpūrā
uncertain	anorosh	na-ma'lūm, bé-haqīqat	lā khātirjam
uncivilized	angirt	tamaddunsiz	bī terbīyat
unconscious	anked, oushaknats	béhish	fqīda heshshé
uncultivated	anmshag	bizhiār, bizhūn	būrā
under	nerqev, dag	bindā, zhir	khōthed . . . , eltékh
understand	hasganal	fahm kir	fhimlé mparmi
under way	i sharzhman, yertalou vra	musāfir	musāfir, pashāṭa
undress oneself	hanvil, merganal	jul dar īnān	shlekhlé jullé

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
unexpected	mū muntaẓar	nāgahān	umūlmamish
uniform (soldier's)	kiswah 'askarīyah	rakht-i-nizāmī	uniforma, forma
unjust	dhālim	bī-inṣāf, sitamkār	zālim, insāfsiz
unkind	mū laṭīf, qāsī	nā-mehrbān	mérhamétsiz, jéfakiar
unload *v.*	nafadh, yanfadh	khālī kardan, *or* bār pāyīn avardan	boshaltmaq
unlucky	mash'ūm	bad-bakht	bakhtsiz, zévali
unpleasant'	mū laṭīf	nāpasand	nakhosh
unripe	akhdhar	nā-rasīda	olmamush
unsafe	mukhṭir	nā-amn	téhlikéli
unshod	ḥāfī	pā-barahna, bī-na'l	na'alsiz
unsuitable	mū muwāfiq	nā-muwāfiq	yaramaz, munāsebetsiz
untrue	mu ṣaḥīḥ, kidhb	durūgh (lie)	yalān (lie); doghru déyil
up (of motion)	ila fōq	bālā	yuqaria, yuqarida
upon	'ala		
urgent	dharūrī	zarūrī; faurī (sudden)	musta'jél
urine	bōl	shāsh	sidik
us	-na (*suffix*)	mārā	bizé (*dat.*), bizi (*accus.*)
use (*v.*)	ista'mal, yasta'mil	isti'māl kardan, kun *or* bikār burdan, bar,	qullanmaq

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
unexpected	ansbaseli	lanishkiwā, zhghaflé	d-la īdhatha *or* intiẓār ghaflatan
uniform (soldier's)	hamazkesd	jul, kenj	jūllé
unjust	anartar	zālim, be-inṣāf, bédād	ẓālim, bé-inṣāf
unkind	ankout, dmarti, gosht	béraḥmat, bé-murūwat	bī rakhmī
unload	(pere)barbel	bār dainān	mrāpé ṭānā
unlucky	anpakht	bérisq, bé-bakht	d-la risq
unpleasant	anhajo,	nākhwosh	nākhwosh, d-la luṭf
unripe	dhas, khag	na-chébīa, na-gehīa, na-gaishtī	kāl
unsafe	anabahov	bé-amān, mukhṭir, darakī	nā-salāmāt
unshod	anbayd	pai-rūt, pai-tāzi, pai-khāos, pai-luit	d-lā sōlī
unsuitable	anharmar		lak-lāyeq, lā munāsib
untrue	anjist	ārast, nādrest	daggāla, dūgla
up (of motion)	ver	zhōr, bar, hal	l-'ulul
upon	vra		'al
urgent	garevor, sdi-boghagan	lāzim, wājib	lāzim, band
urine	mez, sherr	mīz, mīs	jūri, tīné
us	mez (*dat.*) smez (*accus.*)	-ma (*suffix*)	-an (*suffix*)
use (*v.*)	kordzadzel	isti'māl kir	mustu'millé mpālikh

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
useful	mufīd	bā fā'ideh, sūd-mand	fā'idéli
useless	bila fāyidah	bī-fā'ideh	fā'idé-siz, bosh, yaramaz
usually	'ādatan	'ādatan	'ādetan, éksériya
vain	rās kabīr (proud); bi-lā fāyidah (futile)	bīhūda; khud-pasand (proud)	maghrur (proud); bosh (futile)
vain, in	'abathan	'abath	nāfilé, bīhūdé
valley	wādī	arreh	déré
valuable	thamīn	qīmatdār	qīmétli
vanguard	rawād, muqaddamah	qarāvul, talāya	muqaddimét
veal	laḥm 'ijl	gūsht-i-gūsāleh	dana éti
vegetables	khadhrawāt	sabzī	sébzévāt
veil (for women, *n.*)	pūshī, pardah	rūband	yashmaq
vengeance	thā'r	intiqām	intiqām
verandah	ṭārmah	aivān, bar-āmada	üstü qapali balqōn
verbally	shifāhan	zabānī	shifāhan
vermin	qaml (lice)	kirm (worms); hasharāt	kéhlé-piré-maqulési
very	kathīr, kūllish	bisyār	pék, choq
victory	ghalbah, nuṣrah	fatḥ, ghalabeh	nusrét, ghalébé
victuals	aṭ'imah	khurdanī, āzūqah	yéyéjék ichéjék
view (*v.*)	mandhar (of scenery); rāi, fikr (opinion)	manzar, chashm-andāz	nazaret
village	jamā'ah (of huts); qaryah (*pl.* qura)	deh (of huts); kapportīa-ye mu'askar	köi, qārié
vine (grape, *n.*)	tislāqah	angīr	asma

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
useful	okdagar	mufīd, b'īsh	mārī paidā
useless	anokoud	nāmufīd, béīsh	d-la manfa'ah
usually	sovorapar	'ādatan	'ādatan
vain	zour, vochinch, barab	bāṭil, bé-fā'ida	bāṭīlā
vain, in	i zour	'abathan, mānasiz	'abath, b-gō baṭīlūtha
valley	hovid	dōl, nuhāl	wādī, ra'ōla
valuable	knahadeli	thamīn, bahālī	mārī ṭīma
vanguard	arrachabahq	paishé 'askaré	
veal	horti mis	gōshté guérik *or* gāh	biṣra d-sharkha
vegetables	ganacheghen	zarzāwāt	zarzāwāt
veil (for women, *n.*)	dzadzgots	īzār	chudrā, chershōwī
vengeance	vrezh	tōl, intiqām	tōl
verandah	jemelik	diwān, qirish	éwān
verbally	pernatsi	davūdav, zhdav	b-kemma
vermin	karshadjdji	kirm, kurum	righjā
very	shad, huyzh	galak, per	rābā
victory	haghtoutiun	bezand, ber, ghalabā	ghalaba
victuals	baren, bashar	zakhīra, khwārin	zakhīra, īkhāla
view (*v.*)	yerevoyt, desaran	manzar, chāvbīna	khzétā
village	kiugh, shen (of huts) avan	gund, gundik, āvahī (of huts); dikaya	mātā
vine (grape, *n.*)	vort	raz, dāritirī, mīv	giptā

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
violent	shadīd, khārij	sakht, tund	shiddétli
visit (*n.*)	ziyārah	ziyārat	ziyārét
visit (*v.*)	zār, yazūr	ziyārat kardan, kun	ziyārét étmék
visitor	khaṭṭār (*s. and pl.*)	mehmān	musafir
voice	ṣawt (*pl.* aṣwāt)	āwāz	sés
volley (*n.*)	ramyah	shalīk	yayilim
volunteer (soldier, *n.*)	mutaṭawwa'	dau-talab	güñüllü 'askér
voyage	sefer el-baḥr	safar-i-daryā	déniz séféri
wade	khādh, yakhūdh	dar āb rāh raftan, rau	sū-da yürümék
wage (daily)	yōmīyah	rūzāna	gündélik
(monthly)	shahrīyah	māhiyāna	āiliq
waist	ḥizām	kamar	bél
wait	istandhar, yastandhir	māndan, mān	béklémék
wake (*trans.*)	ga''ad, yuga''id	bīdār kardan, kun	oyandirmaq
wake up (*intrans.*)	ḥass, yaḥiss	bīdār shudan, shau	oyanmaq
walk (*v.*)	mesha, yimshī	rāh raftan, rau *or* gardish kardan, kun	gézmék, yayan gitmék
wall	ḥāyiṭ (*pl.* ḥīṭān)	dīwār	duwār
wanting (missing)	nāqiṣ		
war	ḥarb, muḥārabah	jang	harb, muhārébé
warehouse (*n.*)	'ambār (*pl.* 'anābīr)	ambār-e amti'a	maghaza
warm	ḥārr; dāfī (moderately)	garm	sijaq

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
violent	pourrn, sasdig	tīzh, mazin	zarbāna, zakhma
visit (*n.*)	aytseloutiun	zyārat	ziāra, fqāda
visit (*v.*)	aytselel	zyārat kir	fqedlé
visitor	hyour, aytselou	zā'ir, mehwān, mévān	ārkhā
voice	tzayn	dāng	qāla
volley (*n.*)	hratzkoutiun	shélik	
volunteer (soldier, *n.*)	gamavor (zinvor)	'askar bekhwāstiné *or* bdilé	b-rīzāyé, dōtālāb
voyage	dzovaknatsoutiun, dzovantsq	safar	safar
wade	antsnel (ked, chour)	dar āv chō	khidhlé
wage (daily)	oragan (vartz),	ḥaq, muzd	hāqā d-yōmā
(monthly)	amsagan (vartz)	hāīv, ḥaqé hāīva	mūwājib d-yerkhā
waist	mechq	pisht	nāvtanga
wait	sbasel	intizār kir, chāv kir	khmellé, ḥmellé
wake (*trans.*)	zartetsnel, artntsnel	hishār kir	muqimlé min shintha
wake up (*intrans.*)	zartnoul, artnnal	hishār bū	qimlé min shintha
walk (*v.*)	qalel	pīā chōn, bzalāmī chōn	rkhishlé
wall	bad (of a house or garden)	dīwār	gūda
wanting (missing)	bagas		
war	baderazm	sharr, jeng	sharré
warehouse (*n.*)	mteranots	'anbār, makhzan	umbārkhānā
warm	daq, jerm	garm	khamīma

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
warn	khaṭṭar, yukhaṭṭir	āgāhī dādan, deh	ikhtār étmék, khaber vérmék
wash (*trans.*)	ghassal, yughassil	shustan, shui	yiqamaq
wash oneself	ightasal, yaghtasil	khudrā shustan, shui	yiqanmaq
wasp	zambūr (*pl.* zanābīr)	zambūr *or* zambūr-e khar	éshék arisi
waste (*trans.*)	dhayya', yudhayyi' *or* etlef, yutlif	zāyi' kardan, kun	israf étmék
lay waste (*v.*)	kharrab, yukharrib	kharāb kardan	kharab étmék
watch (*v.*)	ḥaras, yaḥrus *or* naṭar, yanṭur	nigāh dāshtan, dār	gözlémék, békjilik étmék
watch (*n.*)	sā'ah	sā'at	sā'at
watch (on ship)	naubah	naubat	varda
watchman	nobāchī	dīdabān	nöbétji, bekji
water	moi	āb	sū
water-bottle	maṭrīyah (military)	shīshe-yi-āb	mastara
water-carrier	saqqā	saqqā	saqqā, sūji
water-closet	edebkhānah	khalā	abdést-khāné
water-skin	garbah	mashk	sū tulumu
water-wheel (for irrigation)	nā'ūr	dūlāb	dolab
wave (*n.*)	mōj (*pl.* amwāj)	mauj	dalgha
we	eḥna *or* iḥna	mā	biz
weak	dha'īf	za'īf	quvvétsiz za'īf
wealthy	zengīn; ghanī (*pl.* aghniyā)	daulatmand *or* mutamarvil	zengin, parali

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
warn	zkoushatsnel	inzār *or* khabar, dā	mukhbéré
wash (*trans.*)	lval	shshtin, shūtin, blāva kir	mkhulillé
wash oneself	lvatsvil		
wasp	bidzag	muzīzar, sīrāmūz	zerqītā
waste (*trans.*)	sbarrel, pchatsnel	hindā kir, zāyi' kir	msukéré, mburbizlé
lay waste (*v.*)	averag anel	khārāb kirin, kambākh kirin	dāish
watch (*v.*)	hsgel	āgāh bū	nṭéré
watch (*n.*)	zhamatsuyts	sā'at	sā'ah
watch (on ship)	ted, hsgoghoutiun	naubat	nauba
watchman	bahaban, kisherabah	naubachī, didawān, pāswān	qārāwūl
water	chour	āv, āu	mīā
water-bottle	srvag, chri shish		
water-carrier	chrgir	saqqā, āvdirī	saqqa
water-closet	ardaqnots	adabkhāna	ābidast
water-skin	chri dig, chradig	mashk, jawāna	ziqqa
water-wheel (for irrigation)	vorokoumi aniv (chro)	nā'ōr	dūlābā
wave (*n.*)	aliq		gandapéllé
we	menq	mā	akhnī, akhnan
weak	dgar, thuyl	béwaj, zabūn, sīs	za'īf, mḥīla
wealthy	harousd	dāulatmand, zengīn, khirémāl, daulomand	dōlatmand

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
weapon	silāḥ (*pl.* esliḥah)	silāh	silah
wear (dress)	lebes, yilbas	pūshīdan, pūsh	geimék
weather	hawa	hawā	havā
wedge	gīnah	mīkh	qamā
Wednesday	Yōm el-arba'ā	Chahārshambeh	Charshamba
week	isbū' (*pl.* asābī')	hafteh	hafta
weigh (*trans.*)	wazan, yozin	sanjīdan, sanj	tartmaq
weight	wazn	sang, wazn	aghirliq
well (healthy)	muta'āfī, kēfuh zēn	khūb	eyi, sagh
well (*n.*)	bīr (*pl.* abyār)	chāh	qūyū
well (Persian-wheel)	nā'ūr		sū dolābi
well-known	mashhūr	mashhūr	méshhūr
west	gharb	maghrib	gün batisi, gharb
western	gharbī	maghribī	gharbi
wet (*adj.*)	mubellel (of thing); mumṭir, maṭrī (of day)	tar, namnāk	yashli (day); némli, islānmish (thing)
what	mā	āncheh (that which)	né
what ?	shinū, shlōn, ēsh ?	cheh ?	né ?
wheat	ḥanṭah	gandum	boghdayi
wheel	charkh	charkh	tékérlik
when (*adv.*)	lemma	chūn, waqtī keh	né-zémān
when ?	meta *or* yimta ?	kai ?	né vaqit ?
whence	min ēn	az kujā	nérédén
whenever	yimtamā	har gāh	hér né vaqit
where	wēn, ēn	kujā	nérédé (in); néréyé (to)
wherever	wēnma	har kujā	hér nérédé

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
weapon	zenq	chakk, silāḥ	chakā
wear (dress)	haknel	libās *or* bar, kir	lweshlé
weather	ot, yeghanag	hawā, rūjgār	paukha
wedge	seb, kam		seppéna
Wednesday	Choreqshapti	Chārshamb	Arbaushāba
week	shapat	hafta	shabtha
weigh (*trans.*)	gshrrel	pīvān, kīshān	tqillé
weight	gshirr, dzan-routiun	kīsh, girānī	tuqla
well (healthy)	lav, agheg	sākh	sākh
well (*n.*)	hor	bīr, kānī	béra
well (Persian-wheel)	chrhori aniv		
well-known	qajadzanot, anvani	mashhūr	īḏhī'a, mashhūr
west	arevmoudq	maghrib, rujā-wāi	ma'rwa, gharb
western	arevmdian		
wet (*adj.*)	thats, thrchvadz	shil, tarr	talīla, talla
what	inch	tesht	mā, mindī
what ?	inch ?	chī ?	mahā ? mā ?
wheat	tsoren	ganim	khetṭé
wheel	aniv		dōlāb
when (*adv.*)	yerp	wakī	īman
when ?	yerp ?	kengī ?	īman ?
whence	ousdi	lakū, zhekū	min aika
whenever	yerp-ev-itse	har jār	kull gaha d-
where	our		aika
wherever	our yev itse	harjā	aika d . . .

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
whether . . . or	idha . . . yō *or* au	khāh . . . khāh	yā . . . yākhod
which ?	ē, yā ; yāhū ? (*without noun*)	kudām ?	hangi ?
whip (*n.*)	qāmchī	tāziyāneh, shallāq	qamchi
whirlpool	khōra	girdāb	girdab
white	abyadh	safīd	béyāz, āq
whither	li-wēn	bi kujā	néréyé
who, which	elledhi, ellī	keh	ki
who ?	men ?	keh ?	kim ?
whole (*adj.*)	tammām, kull (all)	sālim, tamām	bitün, hépisi
whose ?	māl men ?	māl-e kī ?	kimiñ ?
why	lēsh	chirā	nichun
wicked	sharīr, shēṭān	sharīr	féna
wide	'arīdh	pahn	génish
widow	armalah (*pl.* arāmil)	bīveh-zan	dūl
wife	zōjah ; ḥarmah (Arab)	zan, zaujeh	qāri, harem
wild	waḥshi ; barrī (of fruit)	biyābānī, waḥshī	yabān
willing	rādhī	rāzī	günüllü
win	ghalab, yaghlib (overcome) ; ḥaṣṣal, yuhaṣṣil (gain)	ghālib shudan, shau	qazanmaq
wind (*n.*)	hawa	bād	rüzgyār
wind (*v.*)	dawwar, yudawwir	pīchīdan, pīch, kūk kardan, kun (a watch)	qūrmaq
window	shubbāk	darīcheh, rauzan	pénjéré
windy	bi-hawa	bādī	rüzkiārli, yélli
wine	sharāb	khamr, mai	shérāb

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
whether . . . or	artioq		yan . . . yan
which ?	vore ?	chī, kizhān ?	énī ?
whip (*n.*)	kharazan	qāmchī	qāmchī
whirlpool	hortzanq, chrerou bdoyd	garr, garrāv	girdāb
white	sbidag	spī, bōz	khwāra
whither	our	la'ardé kī	laika d-
who, which	ov, vor	ki	d- (*prefix*)
who ?	ov ?	kī ?	manī ?
whole (*adj.*)	polor, ampoghj	sākhlam, sālim	sāghlam, salīm
whose ?	voroun ?	yā kī ?	d-mānī ?
why	inchou	bōchī, chirā	qāmūdī
wicked	char	bīzha, gunah-kār, mufsid	bīshā
wide	layn	pehn, ferrah	pethya, wasī'
widow	ayri gin, ayri	zhinābī, bémér	armiltha
wife	gin	zhin	bakhta
wild	vayreni	kūvī, dāba	barbrāya
willing	hozharagam	muṭī', dvét	muṭī', kba'é, kibé
win	haghtel	ghālib bū, birrīn	ghliblé
wind (*n.*)	qami	bā, wā	paukha
wind (*v.*)	volorel, bdoudagel	pīchāndin, pīchin	mukhdhéré
window	badouhan, lousamoud	shabbāka, penjara	shabbāka
windy	hoghmalits, qamiod		
wine	kini	māi, sharāb	khamra

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
wing	janāḥ	par, bāl	qanat; jénāh (of army)
winter	shitā	zamistān	qish
wire	tēl ḥadīd	sīm	tél
wireless telegraphy	telegrāf bi-lā tēl	telegrāf-i-bī-sīm	télsiz télé-graf
wise	ʻāqil, fahīm	ʻāqil, dānā	ʻaqlli
wish (*v.*)	rād, yarīd	khāstan, khāh	istémék
with (instrumental)	bi-	bā	-īlé (*suffix*)
with (accompanying)	maʻa, wīyā	bā	īlé bérābér
withdrawal (military)	insiḥāb	takhliya, bāz-gasht, aqab nishastan	uzlét
without (*prep.*)	min-dūn, bi-dūn, bi-lā (beli)	bī-, bidūn-i-	-siz (*suffix*)
witness (*n.*)	shāhid (*pl.* shuhūd)	shāhid	shāhid
wolf	dhī'b (*pl.* dhiyāb)	gurg	qurt
woman	ḥarmah, marah (*pl.* niswān)	zan	khanum (lady), qadin, qāri
wood (fuel)	ḥaṭab	hīzam	odun
wood (forest)	ghābah, zōr	bīsheh	ormān
wood (material)	khashab		odun
woollen	min ṣūf	pashmīn	yunlu
word	kalimah (*pl.* kalimāt)	kalimeh	söz
work (*n.*)	shughl	kār	ish
work (*intrans.*)	ishtaghal, yashtaghil	kār kardan, kun	ishlémék, cha-lishmaq
world	dunya	dunyā	dunya
worse, worst	adwan, el-adwan; aʻṭal, el-aʻṭal	badtar, badtarīn	daha féna, én féna

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
wing	tev	bāl, bāsk	parra
winter	tzmer	zewestān	sitwa
wire	medaghatel, herrakir		tél
wireless telegraphy	antel herrakir		
wise	imastoun, khelatsi	ʻāqil, zāna	ʻāqil, fahīma konānā
wish (*v.*)	tsangal	khwāzin, marām kir	mshuhélé
with (instrumental)	(*not in use separately*)	bā	b- (*prefix*)
with (accompanying)	hed	gal, lagal	ʻimm
withdrawal (military)	yed qashvil, nahanchel	pésh-pāsh chōin, barspāsh chōin	madīrtā
without (*prep.*)	arrantz	bé	d-lā, bé
witness (*n.*)	vga	shāhid	sahda
wolf	kayl	gurg	déwa
woman	gnig, digin (lady)	zhin	bakhta
wood (fuel)	payd	dār	qaisé
wood (forest)	andaar	ghābah, ḥawīgah	ghāba, ḥawīga
woollen	prteghen	zhherī	min amra
word	parr, khosq	gōta, sōz, zār	tanaitha, khabra
work (*n.*)	ḳordz, sbaghoum	shōl, shukhul	pülkhānā
work (*intrans.*)	ashkhadel kortsel	shūl kir, kār kir	plikhlé
world	ashkhar	dunyā, ʻālam	ʻalma, dunyé
worse, worst	aveli kesh, amenakesh	kharābter	besh kharāba

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
worth (be)	sawa, yiswa	arzīdan, arz	qīméti (its worth is . . .)
wound (*v.*)	jarraḥ, yujarriḥ	zakhm kardan, kun	yaralamaq
wound (*n.*)	jurḥ (*pl.* jurūḥ)	zakhm	yara
wound-dresser	rabbāṭ jurūḥ	marham guzār	timarji
wounded	majrūḥ	zakhm khurdeh	yaralanmish
wreck (*n.*)	markab mad-mūr, ḥaṭām	kashtī-yi-shikasteh	gharq
wreckage	damār	khurdahā-yi-kashtī	qirinti, kharābé
wrist (*n.*)	khuṣr	much	bilék
write	keteb, yiktub	navishtan, navīs	yazmaq
I write	iktub	mī-navīsam	yazarim
thou writest	tiktub	mī-navīsī	yazarsin
he writes	yiktub	mī-navīsad	yazar
we write	niktub	mī-navīsīm	yazariz
you write	tiktubūn	mī-navīsīd	yazarsiniz
they write	yiktubūn	mī-navīsand	yazarlar
I shall write	iktub	khāham navisht	yazajaghm
thou wilt write	tiktub	khāhī navisht	yazajaqsin
he will write	yiktub	khāhad navisht	yazajaq
we shall write	niktub	khāhīm navisht	yazajaghiz
you will write	tiktubūn	khāhīd navisht	yazajaqsiniz
they will write	yiktubūn	khāhand navisht	yazajaqlar
I wrote	ana ketèbet	navishtam	yazdim
thou wrotest	inta ketèbet	navishtī	yazdin
he wrote	hūa kèteb	navisht	yazdi
she wrote	hīya kètebet	navisht	yazdi

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
worth (be)	arzhel	hizhīān	kṭāwé
wound (*v.*)	viravorel	brīndār kir	jriḥlé
wound (*n.*)	verq	brīn	jurḥa
wound-dresser	verq gabogh, viratarman	jarrāḥ, ḥakīm	jarrāḥa, ḥakīm
wounded	viravor	brīndār	jrīḥa
wreck (*n.*)	navapegoutiun		
wreckage	pegorq (navapegoutian)		
wrist (*n.*)	tasdag	zand	bīlāg
write	krel	newīsīn	kthūlé
I write	yes[1] g'krem	az niwīsim	kathwen
thou writest	tou g'kres	tu niwīsi	kathwet
he writes	an g'kre	au niwīsa	kāthū
we write	menq g'krenq	am niwīsin	kathwōkh
you write	touq g'kreq	hūn niwīsin	kathwūtū
they write	anonq g'kren	wān niwīsin	kathwī
I shall write	yes bidi krem	az déniwīsim	bedkathwen
thou wilt write	tou bidi kres	tu déniwīsi	bedkathwet
he will write	an bidi kre	au déniwīsa	bedkāthū
we shall write	menq bidi krenq	am déniwīsin	bedkathwōkh
you will write	touq bidi kreq	hūn déniwīsin	bedkathwūtū
they will write	anonq bidi kren	wān déniwīsin	bedkathwī
I wrote	yes kretsi	az niwīstim	kthūlī
thou wrotest	tou kretsir	tu niwīsti	kthūlōkh
he wrote	an krets	au niwīst	kthūlé
she wrote	ne krets	au niwīst	kthūlā

[1] The verbs can be used without the pronouns *yes, tou, an, menq, touq, anonq.*

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
we wrote	iḥna ketèbna	navishtīm	yazdiq
you wrote	intu ketèbtum	navishtīd	yazdiniz
they wrote	hum kètebū	navishtand	yazdilar
I do not write	mā iktub	namī-navīsam	yazmam
he does not write	mā yiktub	namī-navīsad	yazmaz
we do not write	mā niktub	namī-navīsīm	yazmaiz
you do not write	mā tiktubūn	namī-navīsīd	yazmasiniz
they do not write	mā yiktubūn	namī-navī-sand	yazmazlar
do you write?	tiktubūn ?	mī-navīsīd ?	yazar-misiniz?
wrong (*adj.*)	mū ṣaḥīḥ, khaṭīyah (sin)	ghalaṭī	doghru déyil
yacht	yakht (*pl.* yukhūt)		yōt, sir gémisi, ténézzuh vaporu
yard (measure)	dhrā'	gaz	arshin, yārda
year	senah (*pl.* sinīn)	sāl, saneh	séné
yellow	aṣfar	zard	sari
yes	na'am, belli	balī	évvét
yesterday	embārḥa	dīrūz	dün
yet (of time)	ba'd	hanūz,	dahā
(nevertheless)	ma' hādha	bā wujūd	ma'-mā-fih yiné
you (*plur.*)	entum; (-kum *after prep. or verb*)	shumā	siz
young	shābb	jawān	génj
your	-kum (*suffix*)	-i-shumā, -atān (*suffix*)	sizin
yours	mālkum,	māl-i-shumā	sizin-ki
yourself	nefsek	khud-e shumā	kendiñ
zinc (*n.*)	tūtyā, zink	rūh *or* tūtiyā	tutya
zone (of fire)	minṭaqah	minṭaqah	mintaqé

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
we wrote	menq kretsinq	am niwīstin	kthūlan
you wrote	touq kretsiq	hūn niwīstin	kthūlaukhu
they wrote	anonq kretsin	wān niwīstin	kthūlai
I do not write	yes chem krer	az nā niwīsim	lak-kathwen
he does not write	an, chkrer	au nā niwīsa	lak-kāthū
we do not write	meng che'nq krer	am nā niwīsin	lak-kathwōkh
you do not write	touq ch'eq krer	hūn nā niwīsin	lak-kathwūtū
they do not write	anonq ch'en krer	wān nā niwīsin	lak-kathwī
do you write ?	touq g'kreq artioq ?	hūn niwīsin ?	gallo kathwūtū ?
wrong (*adj.*)	skhal	khalaṭ, nā tamām	ghelṭa
yacht	zposanav		
yard (measure)	yarda, kankoun	gaz	dra'a
year	dari	sāl	shāta
yellow	ganach	zar	sha'ūtha
yes	ayo	haré, balé	hé, balé
yesterday	yereg	duhī, dwaika	timmal
yet (of time)	terr, dagavin	hézh, hizhī	hésh
(nevertheless)	sagayn yev aynbes	walau	'immed ādhī
you (*plur.*)	touq	hūn	akhtun
young	yeridasart	juwān	jwanqa
your	tzer	-wā (*suffix*)	khu (*suffix*)
yours	tzern, tzerinn	māléwā	dīyaukhū
yourself	touq inqnit, touq tzezi	tū bikhwa	gānūkh
zinc (*n.*)	zing	tūtyā, qalā	tütyā
zone (of fire)	shrchan, kodi	'ardé sharré	dūktha d-sharré

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
1	wāḥid	yak	bir
2	ithnēn	dū	iki
3	thalātah	seh	üch
4	arba'ah	chahār	dört
5	khamsah	panj	bésh
6	sittah	shish	alti
7	seb'ah	haft	yédi
8	thamāniyah	hasht	sékiz
9	tis'ah	nuh	doquz
10	'asherah	dah	on
11	ida 'āsh	yāzdeh	on-bir
12	ithnā 'āsh	duwāzdeh	on-iki
13	thalāthat 'āsh	sīzdeh	on-üch
14	arba'at 'āsh	chahārdeh	on-dört
15	khamsat 'āsh	pūnzdeh	on-bésh
16	sitt 'ash	shūnzdeh	on-alti
17	seb'at 'ash	hifdeh	on-yédi
18	thamānat 'ash	hizhdeh	on-sékiz
19	tis'at 'āsh	nūzdeh	on-doquz
20	'ashrīn	bīst	yirmi
21	wāḥid wa-'ashrīn	bist-ū-yak	yirmi-bir
30	thalāthīn	sī	otuz
40	arba'īn	chihil	qirq
50	khamsīn	panjāh	élli
60	sittīn	shast	altmish
70	seb'īn	haftād	yétmish
80	thamānīn	hashtād	séksén
90	tis'īn	nawad	doqsan
100	mī'ah	ṣad	yüz
101	mī'ah wa-wāḥid	ṣad-ū-yak	yüz-bir
110	mī'ah wa-'asherah	ṣad-ū-dah	yüz-on
111	mī'ah wa-ida 'āsh	ṣad-ū-yāzdeh	yüz-on-bir
120	mī'ah wa-'ashrīn	ṣad-ū-bīst	yüz-yirmi

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
1	meg	yak, ék	khā
2	yergou	dū, duān	trai
3	yereq	sé, sīān	ṭlātha
4	chors	chār, chwār	arba‘
5	hink	penj	khamsha
6	vets	shash	ishta
7	yot	haft	shau‘a
8	out	hasht	tmanya
9	inn	nah	tesh‘a
10	dasn	dah	‘iṣra
11	dasnmeg	yāzdā	khadésar
12	dasnyergou	dwāzdā	traisar
13	dasnyereq	saizdā	teltāsar
14	dasnchors	chārdā	arbāsar
15	dasnhink	pāzdā	khamshāsar
16	dasnvets	shāzdā	ishtāsar
17	dasnyot	hāvdā	ishwāsar
18	dasnout	hāshdā	tmānésar
19	dasninn	nozdā	chāasar
20	qsan	bīst	‘isrī
21	qsanmeg	bīst ūyak	khā wisrī
30	yeresoun	séh	ṭlāthī
40	qarasoun	chel	arbī
50	hisoun	penjī	khamshī
60	vatsoun	shest	ishtī
70	yotanasoun	heftī, haftā	shau‘ī
80	outsoun	hashtā	tmānai
90	innsoun	nōṭ, nōt	tesh‘ī
100	hariur	ṣad	emma
101	harīur meg	ṣad ūyak	emma ūkhā
110	hariur dasn	ṣad ūdah	emma wiṣra
111	hariur dasn-meg	ṣad ūyāzdā	emma ūkhadé-sar
120	hariur qsan	ṣad ūbīst	emma wisrī

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
121	mī'ah wa-wāḥid wa-'ashrīn	ṣad-ū-bist-ū-yak	yüz-yirmi-bir
130	mī'ah wa-thalāthīn	ṣad-ū-sī	yüz-otuz
200	mītēn	diwīst	iki-yüz
201	mītēn wa-wāḥid	diwīst-ū-yak	iki-yüz-bir
210	mītēn wa-'asherah	diwīst-ū-dah	iki-yüz-on
211	mītēn wa-ida 'āsh	diwīst-ū-yāz-deh	iki-yüz-on-bir
220	mītēn wa-'ashrīn	diwīst-ū-bīst	iki-yüz-yirmi
221	mītēn wa-wāḥid wa-'ashrīn	diwīst-ū-bīst-ū-yak	iki-yüz-yirmi-bir
230	mītēn wa-thalāthīn	diwīst-ū-sī	iki-yüz-otuz
300	thalāt-mī'ah	sīṣad	üch-yüz
400	arba'-mī'ah	chahār ṣad	dört-yüz
500	khams-mī'ah	panṣad	bésh-yüz
600	sitt-mī'ah	shish ṣad	alti-yüz
700	seb'-mī'ah	hafṣad	yédi-yüz
800	thamān-mī'ah	hashṣad	sékiz-yüz
900	tis'a-mī'ah	nuhṣad	doquz-yüz
1,000	elf	hazār	bin
1,001	elf wa-wāḥid	hazār-ū-yak	bin-bir
1,010	elf wa-'asherah	hazār-ū-dah	bin-on
1,011	elf wa-ida 'āsh	hazār-ū-yāz-dah	bin-on-bir
1,020	elf wa-'ashrīn	hazār-ū-bīst	bin-yirmi
1,021	elf wa-wāḥid wa-'ashrīn	hazār-ū-bīst-ū-yak	bin-yirmi-bir
1,100	elf wa-mī'ah	hazār-ū-ṣad	bin-yüz
1,101	elf wa-mī'ah wa-wāḥid	hazār-ū-ṣad-ū-yak	bin-yüz-bir
1,110	elf wa-mī'ah wa-'asherah	hazār-ū-ṣad-ū-dah	bin-yüz-on

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
121	hariur qsan-meg	ṣad ūbīst ūyak	emma wisrī ūkhā
130	hariur yere-soun	ṣad ūséh	emma ūṭlāthī
200	yergou hariur	dūṣad	tréemma
201	yergou hariur meg	dūṣad ūyak	tréemma ūkhā
210	yergou hariur dasn	dūṣad ūdah	tréemma wiṣra
211	yergou hariur dasnmeg	dūṣad ūyāzdā	tréemma ūkha-désar
220	yergou hariur qsan	dūṣad ūbīst	tréemma wisrī
221	yergou hariur qsanmeg	dūṣad ūbīst ūyak	tréemma wisrī ūkhā
230	yergou hariur yeresoun	dūṣad ūséh	tréemma wi-tlāthī
300	yereq hariur	sésad	ṭellath emma
400	chors hariur	chārṣad	arbā' emma
500	hink hariur	penjṣad	khammesh emma
600	vets hariur	shashṣad	eshshet emma
700	yot hariur	haftṣad	eshwā emma
800	out hariur	hashtṣad	tmānéemma
900	inn hariur	nahṣad	tishā' emma
1,000	hazar	hazār	alpa
1,001	hazar meg	hazār wyak	alpa ūkhā
1,010	hazar dasn	hazār wdah	alpa wiṣra
1,011	hazar dasnmeg	hazār ūyāzdā	alpa ūkhadésar
1,020	hazar qsan	hazār ūbīst	alpa wisrī
1,021	hazar qsanmeg	hazār ūbīst ūyak	alpa wisri ūkha
1,100	hazar hariur	hazār ūṣad	alpa ūemma
1,101	hazar hariur meg	hazār ūṣad ūyak	alpa ūemma ukha
1,110	hazar hariur dasn	hazār ūṣad ūdah	alpa ūemma wiṣra

English.	*Arabic.*	*Persian.*	*Turkish.*
1,121	elf wa-mī'ah wa-ida wa-'ashrīn	hazār-ū-ṣad-ū-bīst-ū-yak	bin-yüz-yirmi-bir
2,000	elfēn	dū hazār	iki bin
3,000	thalāt ālāf		
10,000	'ashrat ālāf	dah hazār	on bin
100,000	mī'at elf	ṣad hazār	yüz bin
½	nuṣṣ	nīm, niṣf	yarim; (... and ½) ... buchuq
¼	rub'	rub', chāryak	cheirék
both (of them)	ithnēnehum	har dū	ikisi
first	awwal	nukhust, auwal	birinji
second	thānī	dūwum	ikinji
third	thālith	sīvum	üchünjü

English.	*Armenian.*	*Kurdish.*	*Syriac.*
1,121	hazar hariur qsanmeg	hazār ūṣad ūbīst ūyak	alpa ūemma wisrī ūkhā
2,000	yergou hazar	dū hazār	trai alpé
3,000			
10,000	dasn hazar	dah hazār	ʻiṣra alpé
100,000	hariur hazar	ṣad hazār	emma alpé
½	ges	nīv	pelga, palga
¼	qarrort	rubʻ, chār ék	rubiʻ, arbaʻ khā
both (of them)	yergoqian, yergouqn al	har dū	terwaihi
first	arrachin	auwal, péshīn	qamāya
second	yergrort	dūwī, dūwān	di-trai
third	yerrort	séīī, sīyān	di-ṭlātha

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

1. Time and Place

Where is ?

Arabic. Wēn ?
Persian. Kujāst ?
Turkish. Nérédé dir ?
Arm. Our e ?
Kurd. Kī daré ?
Syriac. Aika ?

Where are they ?

Arabic. Wēn hum ?
Persian. Kujāyand ? *or* Kujā hastand ?
Turkish. Nérédé dirlér ?
Arm. Our yen ?
Kurd. Kudaréna ?
Syriac. Aikailai ?

They are here.

Arabic. Hum hina.
Persian. Īnjāyand *or* Īnjā hastand.
Turkish. Burada dirlér.
Arm. Hos yen.
Kurd. Lharanā.
Syriac. Hōlai ākha.

He is not there.

Arabic. Hūa mū hināk.
Persian. Ānjā nīst.
Turkish. Orada déyil.
Arm. Hon che.
Kurd. Nā lharaya.
Syriac. Lailé ākha.

Where are you going ?

Arabic. Wēn tarūḥ (*pl.* tarūḥūn) ?
Persian. Kujā mī-ravīd ?
Turkish. Néréyé gidiyorsiniz ?
Arm. Our g'ertaq ?
Kurd. Lakī daré tchin ?
Syriac. Laika bzalaukhū ?

Where have you come from ?

Arabic. Min ēn jī't (*pl.* jī'tū) ?
Persian. Az kujā mī-ā'īd ?
Turkish. Nérédén géldiniz ?
Arm. Ousti yegaq ?
Kurd. Hūn zhkū daré tén ?
Syriac. Min aika kīthūtū ?

I am going home.

Arabic. Ana rāyiḥ ila-bētī
Persian. Bi-khāne-yi-khud mī-ravam.
Turkish. Évé gidiyorim.
Arm. Doun g'ertam.
Kurd. Azé chim māl.
Syriac. Hōlī bīzāla l-baitha.

We have come from home.

Arabic. Jī'na min bēt-na
Persian. Az khāne-yi-khud āmada'īm.
Turkish. Évdén géldik.
Arm. Dounen eganq.
Kurd. Am shmāl hātin.
Syriac. Kīthukh min baithan.

Come up!

Arabic. Uṭla'.
Persian. Bi-yā (Come on!); Bar khīz (Rise up!).
Turkish. Yuqāriya gél!
Arm. Ver yeg (*sing.*), ver yegeq (*plur.*)!
Kurd. Wara héra!
Syriac. Hayyō lākha!

Go down!

Arabic. Inzil (*pl.* Inzilū)!
Persian. Bi-rau pā'īn!
Turkish. Ashāgha git!
Arm. Var kna (*sing.*), var knatseq (*pl.*)!
Kurd. Harra khwāré!
Syriac. Nkhōth!

Turn to the right (left).

Arabic. Ilfet 'ala yamīnek ('ala shimālek).
Persian. Bi-ṭaraf-i-rāst (chap) bi-rau.
Turkish Sāgha dön, sola dön.
Arm. Ach tartzeq (tzakh tartzeq).
Kurd. Bezeverra larāst (lachap).
Syriac. Dor l-yamné (l-chappé)

Stand still there.

Arabic. Ogaf bi-maḥāllek.
Persian. Anjā bi-īst.
Turkish. Rāhat dur.
Arm. Hantart ketseq hot.
Kurd. Lavé daré rāwusta.
Syriac. Klī nīkha tāma.

Wait for me.

Arabic. Istandhir-ni.
Persian. Muntazir-i-man bāsh.
Turkish. Béni béklé.
Arm. Sbasetseq intz.
Kurd. Bōmin chāv vakā.
Syriac. Ḥmōl ellī.

Come with me.

Arabic. Ta'āl wīyā-ī (*pl.* ta'ālū).
Persian. Hamrāh-i man bi-yā
Turkish. Bénim ilé gél.
Arm. Yegeq intz hed.
Kurd. Lagal min warā.
Syriac. Hayyō'emmī.

Go away.

Arabic. Ruḥ (*pl.* Rūḥū).
Persian. Bi-rau! gum shau
Turkish. Haidé git, qach.
Arm. Herratseq.
Kurd. Harrā.
Syriac. Sī.

In which direction?

Arabic. Min ai ṭarf?
Persian. Bi-kudām ṭaraf?
Turkish. Hangi tarafa?
Arm. Vor oughghoutiamp?
Kurd. Lachī rakhā?
Syriac. Ṣūb aika?

In that direction.

Arabic. Min dhāk eṭ-ṭarf
Persian. Bi-ān ṭaraf.
Turkish. O tarafa.
Arm. Ayt oughghoutiamp.
Kurd. Lavé rakkhé.
Syriac. Ṣūb tāma.

How far is it?

Arabic. Shqad ba'īd ?
Persian. Chi-qadar rāh-ast ?
Turkish. Né qadar uzaq dir ?
Arm. Vorqan herrou e ?
Kurd. Chand haya la ?
Syriac. Kmailé raḥūqa ?

It is not far!

Arabic. Mū ba'īd !
Persian. Dūr nīst !
Turkish. Uzaq déyil !
Arm. Herrou che !
Kurd. Nā dūra !
Syriac. Lailé raḥūqa !

Two hours' distance.

Arabic. Masāfat sā'atēn.
Persian. Bi masāfe-yi-dū sā'at, *or* Dū sā'at rāh.
Turkish. Iki sā'atliq yol.
Arm. Yergou zhamva jampa.
Kurd. Rīā dū sā'at.
Syriac. Ūrkhad tetté sā'é.

When will he come?

Arabic. Yimta yijī ?
Persian. Kai mī-āyad ?
Turkish. Né zémān géléjék ?
Arm. Yerp bidi ka ?
Kurd. Kangé dé'ét ?
Syriac. Īman bed'āthé ?

At what o'clock?

Arabic. Ai sā'ah ?
Persian. Chi waqt ?
Turkish. Sā'at qachda ?
Arm. Vor zhamin ? zham qaniin ?
Kurd. Chī sā'at ?
Syriac. B-aima sā'ah ?

At six o'clock.

Arabic. Es-sā'ah sittah
Persian. Bi-sā'at-i-shish.
Turkish. Sā'at altida.
Arm. Zham vetsin.
Kurd. Bisā'at shash.
Syriac. Sā'ah b'eshshet.

In the morning.

Arabic. Biṣ-ṣabāḥ.
Persian. Ṣubḥī.
Turkish. Sabāhléyin.
Arm. Arravodian.
Kurd. Ṣubaḥī.
Syriac. Biṣparé *or* qadamta.

At noon.

Arabic. Edh-dhuhr.
Persian. Zuhr.
Turkish. Öilé-yin.
Arm. Ges orin.
Kurd. Nīvrō.
Syriac. Palged yauma.

In the evening.

Arabic. Bil-mesa
Persian. Shab (night); Waqt-i-ghurūb (sunset).
Turkish. Akhshamléyin.
Arm. Irigvan, yeregoyan.
Kurd. Évār.
Syriac. 'Aṣerta.

Very early.

Arabic. Badrī kathīr.
Persian. Khailī zūd.
Turkish. Pék érkén.
Arm. Shad ganoukh.
Kurd. Galak zū.
Syriac. Kabīra qalūla.

It is late.

Arabic. Muta'akhkhir.
Persian. Dīr-ast.
Turkish. Géch dir.
Arm. Oush e.
Kurd. Drānga.
Syriac. Drang īla.

How often?

Arabic. Kam marrah?
Persian. Chand martabeh?
Turkish. Qach kérré?
Arm. Qani ankam?
Kurd. Chand jāra?
Syriac. Kma gahātha?

What time is it?

Arabic. Es-sā'ah ḥbēsh?
Persian. Sā'at-i-chīst?
Turkish. Sā'at qach dir?
Arm. Vor zhamn e?
Kurd. Sā'at bchānda?
Syriac. Sā'ah bikmaila?

2. Weather

What will the weather be to-day?

Arabic. Shlōn bekūn eṭ-ṭaqs el-yōm?
Persian. Imrūz hawā chi-ṭaur khāhad shud?
Turkish. Bū gün havā nasl olajaq?
Arm. Yeghanagn inchbes bidi lini aysor?
Kurd. Dunyā chāwa débet īrō?
Syriac. Dākhi bithauya dunyé idiō?

Very fine.

Arabic. Kūllish zēn.
Persian. Khailī khūb.
Turkish. Pék güzél.
Arm. Shad hianali.
Kurd. Sāwīa.
Syriac. Ṣekhwaila.

Bad, cloudy, foggy weather.

Arabic. Ṭaqs mu zēn, mu-ghayyam, dhabāb.
Persian. Bad, abr, mih.
Turkish. Féna, bulutlu, sissli havā.
Arm. Vad, ambod, marrakhlod yeghanag.
Kurd. Dunyā 'aura, mīzhaya.
Syriac. Dunyé aiwaila, khapū-thaila.

It is snowing on the mountains.

Arabic. Tethluj ed-dunya 'ala 'ljibāl.
Persian. Dar kūhistān barf mī-bārad.
Turkish. Dāghlara qār yaghiyor.
Arm. G' tziune lerrants vra.
Kurd. Bafr tét lachīā.
Syriac. Holé bīthāya talga l-resh ṭūré.

3. The Road

Where does this road go?

Arabic. Ed-darb hādha yuwaddī li-wēn.
Persian. Īn rāh kujā mī-ravad?
Turkish. Bū yol néréyé gidér?
Arm. Our g'erta ays janpan?
Kurd. Av rīā kūdaré tchet?
Syriac. Laika kīza adh ūrkha?

Does this road lead to —?

Arabic. Hed-darb bewaddī li —?
Persian. Īn rāh bi — mī-ravad?
Turkish. Bū yol — é gidér-mi?
Arm. Ays jampan artioq g'erta —?
Kurd. Av rīā tchet la —?
Syriac. Gallo kīza adh ūrkha l —?

Which road leads to —?

Arabic. Yā darb bewaddī li —?
Persian. Kudām rāh bi — mī-ravad?
Turkish. — é hangi yoldan gitméli?
Arm. Vor janpan g'erta —?
Kurd. Chī rīā tchet la —?
Syriac. Aima ūrkha kīza l —?

Which is the shortest way?

Arabic. Yā darb agrab?
Persian. Kudām rāh nazdīk-tar ast?
Turkish. Én qissa yol hangisi dir?
Arm. Vorn e amenagarj jampan?
Kurd. Chī rré nézīktera?
Syriac. Aimaila ūrkha besh krītha?

Is it safe on the road?

Arabic. Eṭ-ṭarīq amīn?
Persian. Dar īn rāh amnīyat ast?
Turkish. Yol qorqusuzmu dur?
Arm. Jampan artioq abahov e?
Kurd. Av ré amīna?
Syriac. Gallo ūrkha amīnīla?

How many hours is it to —?

Arabic. Kam sā'ah ila —?
Persian. Chand sā'at-ast bi —?
Turkish. — é qach sā'atleq yol vār?
Arm. Qani zham e minchev —?
Kurd. Chand sā'at haya la —?
Syriac. Kma sā'é īth ta —?

Take me to —.

Arabic. Waddī-ni ila —.
Persian. Marā bi — bi-bar.
Turkish. Béni — é götür.
Arm. Dareq intz minchev —.
Kurd. Nīshāmin bedé la —.
Syriac. Naubelli l —.

Where is there drinking water on this road?

Arabic. Wēn el-moi lish-sherb fi hādha 'ṭ-ṭarīq?
Persian. Dar īn rāh āb-i-khurdanī kujāst?
Turkish. Bū yol-da ichiléjék sū nérédé dir?
Arm. Our khmelou chour ga ays janpou vra?
Kurd. Kāné avé vakhwārené bvī rīā?
Syriac. Aikailai māya de-shtāya b-ādh ūrkha?

Is it a camel road ?

Arabic. Eṭ-ṭarīq muwāfiq lij-jimāl ?
Persian. Rāh-i-shutur ast ?
Turkish. Dévé yolu-mi dir ?
Arm. Oughdi jampa e artiog ?
Kurd. Av rīā bo heshter bāsha ?
Syriac Kkhaskha adh ūrkha ta gūmlé ?

Is it only a mule road ?

Arabic. Hūa faqāṭ lil-baghāl ?
Persian. Faqaṭ az barāyi qātirhā khūbast ?
Turkish. Yaliniz qatir yolu-mi dir ?
Arm. Miayn chorii jampa e artioq ?
Kurd. Av rīā bas bō hesterāna ?
Syriac. Gallo ūrkha d-kawedhnéla ūbass ?

Is it only fit for men on foot ?

Arabic. Hūa faqaṭ muwāfiq lil-meshi ?
Persian. Faqaṭ az barāyi piyādagān khūbast ?
Turkish. Yaliniz yāyan gidénléré eyi-mi dir ?
Arm. Mithe miayn hediodn martots harmar e ?
Kurd. Av ré bas payā ra ?
Syriac. Gallo bas kkhashkha ta nāshé rakhāshé ?

4. A Village or Town

What is this place called ?

Arabic. Shismū hādha'l-makān ?
Persian. Bi īnjā chi mī-gūyand ? *or* Īnjā chi nām dārad ?
Turkish. Bū yérin ismi né dir ?
Arm. Inchbes g'gochvi ays deghn ?
Kurd. Nāvé av 'ard chīa ?
Syriac. Mīlé shimma d-ādh dūktha ?

Where is the post ?

Arabic. Wēn el-postakhānah ?
Persian. Post khāneh kujāst ?
Turkish. Postakhāné nérédé dir ?
Arm. Our e namagadounn ?
Kurd. Pōṣṭakhānah lakū daréya ?
Syriac. Aikaila pōṣṭakhānah ?

How many houses in this village ?

Arabic. Kam bēt fil-beled ?
Persian. Dar īn deh chand khāneh dārad ?
Turkish. Bū köide qach év vār ?
Arm. Qani doun ga ays kiughin mech ?
Kurd. Chand māl haya lavī gund ?
Syriac. K-ma bāté īth b-ādh mātha ?

Show me the telegraph office.

Arabic. Dull-nī 'ala 't-telegrāf-khānah.
Persian. Teleghrāf-khāne-rā bi-man nishān bi-dihīd.
Turkish. Bana téléghraf-khānéyi göstér.
Arm. Our e herrakradounn.
Kurd. Teleghrāf khānah nīshāmin beda.
Syriac. Makhzéli teleghrāf khāna.

Is there a telephone office here?

Arabic. Ākū maḥall talfūn hina?
Persian. Īnjā telefūn dārad?
Turkish. Burda téléfon mérkézi vār mi?
Arm. Hos herratzayn ga artioq?
Kurd. Téléfon khānah lahara haya?
Syriac. Īth ākha dūkthat téléfon?

Where is the inn?

Arabic. Wēn el-Khān?
Persian. Khān (kārwānsarāi, chāpārkhāneh) kujāst?
Turkish. Khān nérédé dir?
Arm. Our e otevann?
Kurd. Khān lakudaréya?
Syriac. Aikaila khān?

We are going to stay the night here.

Arabic. Inbāt el-lēlah hina.
Persian. Imshab īnjā mī-mānīm.
Turkish. Biz géjé burda durajayiz.
Arm. Kishern hos bidi mnanq.
Kurd. Av shav am lahéra débim.
Syriac. Bdamkhōkh ākha idlailé.

5. At a River

What is this river called?

Arabic. Shism hel-shaṭṭ?
Persian. In rūd-khāneh chi nām dārad?
Turkish. Bū irmaghen ismi né dir?
Arm. Inchbes g'gochvi ays kedn?
Kurd. Navé av āv chīa?
Syriac. Mīlé shimma d-ādh néhra?

How deep is the river?

Arabic. Shqad ghumq esh-shaṭṭ?
Persian. Rūd-khāneh chi-qadar ʿamīq-ast?
Turkish. Sū né qadar dérin dir?
Arm. Vorchap khor e ays kedn?
Kurd. Vī āv chand kūra *or* ʿamīqa.
Syriac. Kmailé ʿamūqa adh néhra?

Where is the nearest bridge?

Arabic. Wēn agrab jisr?
Persian. Kudām pul nazdīktar-ast?
Turkish. Én yaqen köprü nérédé dir?
Arm. Our e amenamod gamourchn?
Kurd. Nézīkter prr lakū daréya?
Syriac. Aikailé gishra āu bish qarīwa?

Take me there.

Arabic. Waddī-nī li-hināk.
Persian. Marā ānjā bi-bar.
Turkish. Béni oraya götür.
Arm. Hon dareq zis.
Kurd. La āu daré nishāmin beda.
Syriac. Naubellī l-tāma.

Show me the nearest ferry.

Arabic. Wēn agrab mu'ēber.
Persian. Guzār-gāhī ki nazdīktar bāshad bi-man nishān bi-dih.
Turkish. Bana én yaqin géchid-yérini göstér.
Arm. Tsuyts dveq intz amen-amod kedantsn.
Kurd. 'Ardé nézīkter bō darbāz nishāmin beda.
Syriac. Aikaila dūktha de-psa'a āi besh qarūta.

Get hold of a boat (canoe).

Arabic. Jīb-li bellōm.
Persian. Kashtī paidā kun.
Turkish. Bir qayiq bul.
Arm. Mi navag kdeq.
Kurd. Gamī paida beka.
Syriac. Khzī kha qāyegh.

Is there a raft here?

Arabic. Ākū kelek hina ?
Persian. Kalak īnjā paidā mī-shavad ?
Turkish. Burda sal vār mi ?
Arm. Hos lasd ga artioq ?
Kurd. Kalak lahéra haya ?
Syriac. Gallo īth kalak ākha ?

Is the current strong?

Arabic. El-moi terkodh qawī ?
Persian. Āb tund mī-ravad ?
Turkish. Aqinti choq vār mi ?
Arm. Mithe hosanqn zoravor e?
Kurd. Av zakhma ?
Syriac. Gallo māya zarbānélai ?

Where is the easiest place to swim across?

Arabic. Wēn es-hal makān lis-sabāḥah.
Persian. Kujā mī-tawānam bi-āsānī bi-shināvarī bi-guzaram ?
Turkish. O bir tarafa yüzérék gitmék ichin én qolaï yér nérédé dir ?
Arm. Our e amenaheshd vayrn loghalou antin ?
Kurd. Chī 'ard āsāntira ta am bmalavānyé darbāz kin?
Syriac. Aimaila dūktha ai besh sanāhi tad ṣākhokh ūpa-sokh ?

Take us across.

Arabic. Qaṭṭi'ena.
Persian. Mārā bi-ān ṭaraf bi-barīd.
Turkish. Bizi qarshiya géchir.
Arm. Antin dareq mez.
Kurd. Ma darbāz bika.
Syriac. Mapsīlan.

You will be rewarded.

Arabic. Minkēfīk.
Persian. In'ām khāhīm dād.
Turkish. Bakhshīsh véréjéyiz.
Arm. G'vartzadrenq tzez.
Kurd. Amé teshtak din ta.
Syriac. Bed yawekhlokh kha mindī.

You must go in front of me.

Arabic. Lāzim temshī guddāmī.
Persian. Bāyad jilau-i-man bi-ravīd.
Turkish. Iléri gitmélisin.
Arm. Arrcheves yertalou eq.
Kurd. Lāzima tu péshémin deché.
Syriac. K-lāzim d-zālokh qamāya minnī.

What lies on the other side?

Arabic. Ēsh-fī 'ala hedhāk eṣ-ṣōb?
Persian. Chi jā (place) *or* shahr (city) dar ān ṭaraf ast?
Turkish. Uté tarafda né vār?
Arm. Inch degh e timatsi goghmn?
Kurd. Lavé ṭarafé chī haya?
Syriac. Mā īth lāu bāla khinna?

Is it far to the mouth?

Arabic. Ēsh qadr li-ṣadr esh shāṭṭ?
Persian. Az īnjā tā ānjā ki dar daryā mī-rīzad dūr-ast?
Turkish. Chai aghzi uzaq-mi dir?
Arm. Kedaperann herrou e artioq?
Kurd. Zh-harā ḥattā vī āv dchet baḥré dūra?
Syriac. Gallo raḥūqtaila ūrkha min ākha hul d-'āwir adh néhra l-yāma?

6. A Mountain or Hill

What is this big mountain called?

Arabic. Shism 'l-jebel (el-kabīr)?
Persian. Īn kūh-i-buzurg chi mī-gūyand?
Turkish. Bū büyük dāghin ismi né dir?
Arm. Inchbes g'gochvi ays medz lerrn?
Kurd. Nāvé vī chīā mazin chīa?
Syriac. Mīlé shimma d-adh ṭūra rāba?

How high is the mountain?

Arabic. Ēsh 'elū ej-jebel?
Persian. Īn kūh chi-qadar buland ast?
Turkish Dāgh né qadar yüksék dir?
Arm. Vorchap partzr e ays lerrn?
Kurd. Vī chīā chand bilinda?
Syriac. Kmailé rāma adh ṭūra?

What is the easiest way up the hill?

Arabic. Yā darb as-hal lit-tell?
Persian. Bi-kudām rāh bi-āsānī mī-tuwān bi-qulle-yi-ān kūh rasīd?
Turkish. Yuqāriya én qolaī yol hangisi dir?
Arm. Vorn e amenaheshd jampan tebi plourn?
Kurd. Chī ré āsāntira lasaré vī chīā?
Syriac. Aimailā ūrkha ai besh sānāhī tad asqokh l-adh ṭūra?

Is it very steep?

Arabic. Ṭal'et-hu qawīyeh?
Persian. Khailī sar-ā-bālāst?
Turkish. Pék dik mi dir?
Arm. Shad zarriver e artioq?
Kurd. Galak zaḥmata?
Syriac. Gallo kabīra 'asqailé?

Is it dangerous ?

Arabic. Hūa mukhṭir ?
Persian. Khaṭar-nāk ast ?
Turkish. Qorqulu mu dir ?
Arm. Vdankavor e artioq ?
Kurd. Khaṭar tédā haya ?
Syriac. Gallo mar darak īlé ?

Can one get up on horseback ?

Arabic. Mumkin el-wāhid yuṭla' rākib ?
Persian. Suwār mī-shavad raft ?
Turkish. At-ilé chikila bilirmi ?
Arm. Tziov artioq gareli e ver elnel ?
Kurd. Am tkārin bechim lasar beswārī ?
Syriac. Gallo īban asqokh b-rakawūtha ?

Can the guns be got up ?

Arabic. Mumkin eṭ-ṭawāp teṭla' ?
Persian. Ṭūp-hā-rā mī-shavad ānjā burd ?
Turkish. Toplar yuqāriya chikarila bilirmi ?
Arm. Artioq gareli e tntanotnern ver hanel ?
Kurd. Am dikārin ṭōpā lasar helīnin ?
Syriac. Gallo īban d-masqōkh ṭōpatha ?

Yes, but they cannot be got down on the other side.

Arabic. Na'am, lākin mūsh mumkin tanzīl-hum min ṭarf eth-thānī.
Persian. Balī, ammā az ān ṭaraf namī - shavad pā'īn āvardan.
Turkish. Évvét, ammā öté tarafda indirilméz.
Arm. Ayo, payts che gareli zanonq var ichetsnel mius goghmn.
Kurd. Haré, amma am nikārin lāav ṭerefé wān lakhwār bestīnin.
Syriac. Na'm, illa laiban d-mankhthukhlai mau bāla khenna.

Are there several ways down ?

Arabic. Ākū jimlāt nazlāt ?
Persian. Āyā, chand rāh bi-pā'īn dārad ?
Turkish. Ashāghiya bir qach yol vār mi ?
Arm. Artioq shad jampaner gan tebi var ?
Kurd. Galak rīā haya lvéré ?
Syriac. Gallo īth kabīré ūrkhātha linkhātha ?

Are there any robbers about ?

Arabic. Akū ḥarāmīyah ?
Persian. Dar īn jā-hā duzd dārad?
Turkish. Etrafda khirsiz vār mi ?
Arm. Avazagner gan artioq ays goghmern ?
Kurd. Diz haya ?
Syriac. Gallo īth ganāwé ?

7. A Forest

How big is the forest?

Arabic. Ēsh kubr el-ghāb (ez-zōr)?
Persian. Īn bīsheh (*or* jangal) chi-qadar buzurg-ast?
Turkish. Ormān né qadar büyük dir?
Arm. Andarrn vorchap medz e?
Kurd. Av ghābah chand mazina?
Syriac. Kmaila rabtha adh ghāba?

How wide is it?

Arabic. Ēsh 'ardh-hu?
Persian. Pahnāsh chi-qadar buzurg-ast?
Turkish. Né qadar génish dir?
Arm. Vorchap layn e?
Kurd. Pehnéwī (*or* ferrahéwī) chanda?
Syriac. Kmaila pethyūthah?

Where does the road go through the forest?

Arabic. Wēn ākū darb bil-ghāb (biz-zōr)?
Persian. Īn rāh ki az jangal mī-guzarad kujā mī-ravad?
Turkish. Bū ormāndan géchén yol néréyé gidér?
Arm. Our g'erta jampan andarri mechen?
Kurd. Ré bvī ghābah lakū daréya?
Syriac. Aikaila ūrkha b-ādh ghāba?

Can mounted troops get through the forest?

Arabic. Mumkin lil-khaiyālah ta'bur el-ghāb (ez-zōr)?
Persian. Qushūn-i-suwār mī-tawānad az bīsheh bi-guzarad?
Turkish. Ormāndan süvāri géché-bilirmi?
Arm. Hedzelazorq grna artioq antsnel andarri mechen?
Kurd. Dikārin suwāri déchin nivā vī ghābah?
Syriac. Ībai rakāwé pasī b-ādh ghāba?

Yes, but I don't think one can get through with the guns.

Arabic. Na'am, lākin mā azunn eṭ-ṭawāp tafūt.
Persian. Balī, ammā gumān namī-kunam ki ṭūp bi-ravad.
Turkish. Évvét, faqat zann étmém ki top ilé géchilébilir.
Arm. Ayo, payts chem gardzer gareli e tntanotnerov antznel mechen.
Kurd. Haré, amma ṭōpā nikārin bechin.
Syriac. Na'm, illa la kẓainin ṭōpātha ībai d'aurī.

8. Railway Station

Is it far to the railway?

Arabic. Ēsh bu'ed es-sikkah?
Persian. Ayā, bi-rāh-i-āhan dūr-ast?
Turkish. Démir yoluna uzaq-mi dir?
Arm. Yergatoughin artioq her-rou e?
Kurd. Rīa papōré chand dūra?
Syriac. Kmaila raḥūqta ūrkha di-prizla?

Only half an hour.

Arabic. Nuṣṣ sā'ah faqaṭ.
Persian. Nīm sā'at rāh-ast ū bas.
Turkish. Salt yarim sā'at dir.
Arm. Miayn ges zham.
Kurd. Nīv sā'at ūbas.
Syriac. Palgé d-sā'ah bas.

When does the train arrive?

Arabic. Yimta yosal el-qiṭār?
Persian. Qiṭār kai mī-rasad?
Turkish. Trén né zémān gélir?
Arm. Yerp knatsqn g'hasni?
Kurd. Rīa papōré kangé déét?
Syriac. Īman bed athya mā-shīnā?

When does the train go to — ?

Arabic. Yimta yusāfir el-qiṭār ila —?
Persian. Qiṭār bi — kai mī-ravad?
Turkish. Trén — é né zémān gidér?
Arm. Yerp knatsqn g'megni?
Kurd. Pāpor kangé déchet la —?
Syriac. Īman bedzāla māshīna l —?

Where is the next train coming from?

Arabic. Min ēn yajī el-qiṭār eth-thānī?
Persian. Qiṭār az kujā mī-āyad?
Turkish. O bir trén nérédén gélir?
Arm. Ousti gu'ka hachort knatsqn?
Kurd. Pāpor zhkū daré déét?
Syriac. Min aika bed athya mā-shīnā?

Stop the train.

Arabic. Waggif el-qiṭār.
Persian. Qiṭār-rā īstādeh kun.
Turkish. Tréni durdur.
Arm. Knatsqn getsoutseq.
Kurd. Pāpor besakkina.
Syriac. Maḥmella māshinā.

Get me a porter.

Arabic. Jīb-li ḥammāl.
Persian. Ḥammālī paidā kun.
Turkish. Bana bir hammāl gétir.
Arm. Perrnagir jareq.
Kurd. Ḥammālak bōmin paidā bekā.
Syriac. Maithélī khā ḥammāla.

What is the fare?

Arabic. Bēsh yiswā en-nōl?
Persian. Chand bāyad bi-diham?
Turkish. Yol parasi né qadar dir?
Arm. Vorqan e janabarha-dzakhqn?
Kurd. Chand ḥaq az bedem?
Syriac. K-ma ṭīmé yawin?

Where is my luggage?

Arabic. Wēn aghradhī?
Persian. Asbāb-i-man kujāst?
Turkish. Éshyām nérédé dir?
Arm. Our e ireghens?
Kurd. Asbābémin lakū daréna?
Syriac. Aikailai sabābī?

9. Inquiries about Troops

Have you seen our troops ?

Arabic. Shuft ʻasākir-na ?
Persian. Qushūn-i-mārā dīda-īd ?
Turkish. ʻAskérimizi gördünüzmü ?
Arm. Desaq artioq mer zorqern ?
Kurd. ʻAskarāmā ta dīt ?
Syriac. Gallo khzélōkh ʻaskar dīyan ?

Do you know where the troops are ?

Arabic. Taʻraf wēn el-ʻasker ?
Persian. Mī-dānīd ki qushūn kujāst ?
Turkish. ʻAskérin nérédé oldughunu bilirmisiniz ?
Arm. Kideq artioq our yen mer zorqern ?
Kurd. Tu tzānī ʻaskar lakū daréya ?
Syriac. Gallo yadh-ét aikaila ʻaskar ?

Yes, I saw them by the wood.

Arabic. Naʻam, shufthum garīb el-ghāb (ez-zōr).
Persian. Balī, ān-hā-rā dam-i-bīsheh dīdam.
Turkish. Evvét, ormānin yaninda gördüm.
Arm. Ayo, andarri mod desa zanonq.
Kurd. Haré, ma awān dīt nézīké vī ghābah.
Syriac. Naʻm kemkhāzennai qorba d-ādh ghāba.

What sort of troops and how many are they ?

Arabic. Ēsh shikel asker wa kam wāḥid ?
Persian. Chi jūr qushūn, ū chand nafar ?
Turkish. Né durlu ʻaskér dir, vé ʻaddé né qadar ?
Arm. Inch desag zorqer yev qani had yen ?
Kurd. Chī tōv ʻaskarin ū chandin ?
Syriac. Mā tūkhma d-ʻaskarīlai wukmailé miniānaihi ?

Five thousand, with cavalry and guns.

Arabic. Khamsat ālāf maʻ 'l-khaiyālah waṭ-ṭawāp.
Persian. Panj hazār, bā suwār ū ṭūp.
Turkish. Bésh bin vār, süvāri ilé toplar.
Arm. Hink hazar, hedzelazorqov yev tntanotnerov.
Kurd. Penj hazār suwār ū ṭōpā.
Syriac. Khamsha alpé ʻimmed swārīyé ūṭōpātha.

How long have they been there ?

Arabic. Kam yōm baqa lahum hināk ?
Persian. Az chi waqt ānjā būdehand ?
Turkish. Né vaqit-dan-béri orada dirlér ?
Arm. Yerpen i ver hon yen ?
Kurd. Zhchī wakht wān lav daréna ?
Syriac. Min īmanīlai tāma ?

In which direction have they marched?

Arabic. Min ē ṭarf rāḥū ?
Persian. Bi-kudām ṭaraf rawāneh shudeh-and ?
Turkish. Hangi jihété harékét étdilér ?
Arm. Vor goghm qaletsin ?
Kurd. Lachī ṭarafé chōyen ?
Syriac. Gallo ṣūb aima ṭaraf zellai ?

Where is an officer?

Arabic. Wēn edh-dhābiṭ ?
Persian. Ṣāḥib-manṣabī kujāst ?
Turkish. Zābit nérédé dir ?
Arm. Our ga mi sba ?
Kurd. Zābiṭ lakū daréya ?
Syriac. Aikailé zābiṭ ?

Take me to the Colonel.

Arabic. Waddī-nī ila 'l-mīrālai.
Persian. Marā pīsh-i-sartīp bi-bar.
Turkish. Béni mīrālāya götür.
Arm. Dareq zis kndabedin.
Kurd. Péshé mīralāi min bé-birra.
Syriac. Naubellī l-gébe d-mīralāi.

I have a letter from our General.

Arabic. 'Andī maktūb min mushīr-na.
Persian. Kāghazī dāram az sardār.
Turkish. Qomāndānimizdan béndé bir méktūb vār.
Arm. Namag ounim mer zorabeden.
Kurd. Kāghazak zhsar'askaréma lagal min haya.
Syriac. Īth 'immī kha kthāwa min sar'askar dīyan.

10. Food and Drink

am hungry, I wish to eat.

Arabic. Ana jō'ān, arīd shē ā'kul.
Persian. Gurasneh-am, mī-khāham bi-khuram.
Turkish. Qarnim ach, yéyéjék bir shei istérim.
Arm. Anotiyem, oudel g'ouzem.
Kurd. Az bersīma, ma tishtak tvét.
Syriac. Kpīnaiwin, kibain d-akhlin.

I am thirsty, I wish to drink.

Arabic. Ana 'aṭshān, arīd-li shē ishrab.
Persian. Tishneh-am, mī-khāham bi-nūsham.
Turkish. Sūsuzim, sū ichmék istérim.
Arm. Dzaravi yem, khmel g'ouzem.
Kurd. Az téhnim, vakhwāriné ma tvét.
Syriac. Ṣihyaiwin, kibain d-shātin.

Where can I get food?

Arabic. Wēn aḥaṣṣil el-ekl?
Persian. Az kujā mī-tawānam khurdanī paidā kunam?
Turkish. Nérédé yéyéjék būla bilirim?
Arm. Our grnam oudeliq kdnal?
Kurd. Teshtak bō khwāriné lakū daré az paidā bikim?
Syriac. Gallo min aika khāzin khā mindī ta īkhāla?

Have you enough for all my men?

Arabic. 'Andek shē kāfī li-jamā'atī?
Persian. Āyā, az barāyi hame-yi-ādamhā-yi-man kāfī dārīd?
Turkish. Néférlérimin hépisiné yétéjék qadar vār-mi?
Arm. Artioq pavaganachap ouneq polor martots's hamar?
Kurd. Lagalta haya tesht bō hammū mérémin?
Syriac. Gallo ittokh mindī dikmālé ta kullai nāshé dī?

Innkeeper, we want a meal.

Arabic. Ya khānjī, nurīd ekl.
Persian. Mī-khāhīm chīzī bi-khūrīm.
Turkish. Khānji, yémék istériz.
Arm. Bantogabed, geragour gouzenq.
Kurd. Khānchi, ma tesht tvét.
Syriac. Khānchī, kibōkh īkhāla.

Is the water good here?

Arabic. El-moi ṭayyib hina?
Persian. Āb dar īnjā khūb-ast?
Turkish. Buranin sūyu eyi mi dir?
Arm. Chourn artioq lav e hos?
Kurd. Av lahéra khwasha?
Syriac. Gallo māya d-ākha randélai?

Give me something to drink.

Arabic. A'ṭīnī shē ishrab.
Persian. Chīzī nūshīdanī bi-man bi-dihīd.
Turkish. Bana ichéjék bir shei vér.
Arm. Khmelou mi pan dveq.
Kurd. Teshtak bō vakhwāriné bō min beda.
Syriac. Hallī khā mindī ta shtāya.

Have you fresh eggs?

Arabic. 'Andkum baidh tāzi'ah?
Persian. Tukhm-i-murgh-i-tāzeh dārīd?
Turkish. Tāzé yumurtaniz vār mi?
Arm. Artioq ouneq tharm havgit?
Kurd. Nū hékā lagalwā haya?
Syriac. Gallo ittaukhū bé-é randé?

Bring bread and cheese.

Arabic. Jīb-lena khubz wa-jiben.
Persian. Nān ū panīr bi-yār.
Turkish. Ékmék ilé pénir gétir.
Arm. Peretseq hats yev banir?
Kurd. Nān ū penīr bō ma bīna.
Syriac. Maithélan likhma ūgūpta.

Bring us coffee with milk.

Arabic. Jīb-lena qahwah bi-ḥalīb.
Persian. Qahweh bā shīr-i-gāu bi-yār.
Turkish. Bizé sūtlū qahvé gétir.
Arm. Gathov sourj peretseq mez.
Kurd. Qahwa ū shīr bōma bīna
Syriac. Maithé lan qahwa ū khelya.

Hurry up, we haven't much time.

Arabic. Ista'jil, mā 'andna waqt.
Persian. Zūd bāsh, khailī waqt nadārīm.
Turkish. Chabuk ol, choq vaqitimiz yoq.
Arm. Shdabetseq, shad zhamanaq ch'ounenq.
Kurd. Lazī bika, wakht mā nīna.
Syriac. Qalūla, lattan 'iddāna.

I am going to pay for it.

Arabic. Ba'tīq ḥaqqek.
Persian. Pūl-i-ān-rā mī-khāham bi-diham.
Turkish. Parasini véréjéyim.
Arm. Bidi vjarem ador hamar
Kurd. Az ḥaqqéwī bidem.
Syriac. Bidyawin ḥaq dīyé.

Bring us the bill.

Arabic. Jīb-lena el-ḥisāb.
Persian. Ḥisāb-rā bi-yār.
Turkish. Bizé hisāb gétir.
Arm. Peretseq hashivn.
Kurd. Ḥisābéma bīna.
Syriac. Makhzélan ḥisāb dīyan.

How much do we owe?

Arabic. Ēsh ṭela' 'alēna?
Persian. Chand bāyad bi-dihīm?
Turkish. Borjumuz né qadar?
Arm. Vorqan g'bardinq tzez?
Kurd. Ḥaqqéta chanda?
Syriac. Kmailé ḥaq dīyokh?

How much does this cost?

Arabic. Bēsh yiswā hādha?
Persian. Īn chand mī-arzad?
Turkish. Bunun fi'ati né dir?
Arm. Ays vorqan arzhe?
Kurd. Ḥaq avī chanda?
Syriac. Mīlé ṭīmed ādhī?

11. Billets, Lodging and Stabling

I want quarters for 50 men.

Arabic. Arīd makān li-khāṭir khamsīn nefer.
Persian. Az barāyi panjāh ādam manzil mī-khāham.
Turkish. Élli néfér ichun yér istérim.
Arm. Hisoun marti hamar degh g'ouzem.
Kurd. Az 'ard dikhwāzim bō penjī zalām.
Syriac. Kibain dūktha ta khamshī nāshé.

Give me better quarters.

Arabic. A'ṭīnī makān aḥsan.
Persian. Manzilī bihtar az īn biman bi-dih.
Turkish. Bana būndan eyi bir yér vér.
Arm. Aveli lav degh dveq intz.
Kurd. 'Ard khwashter bō min beda.
Syriac. Hallī dūktha besh ṭauta.

Have you found me quarters yet?

Arabic. Ḥaṣṣalt-lī makān ?
Persian. Manzilī az barāyi man hanūz paidā kardeh-īd ?
Turkish. Bizim ichun yér daha buldun mu ?
Arm. Intz hamar degh kdaq the voch ?
Kurd. Ta 'ard bōma paidā kerī ?
Syriac. Gallo khzélokh dūktha ṭālī ?

Where is the owner of the house?

Arabic. Wēn ṣāḥib el-bēt ?
Persian. Ṣāḥib-i-īn khāneh kujāst?
Turkish. Ev sāhibi nérédé ?
Arm. Our e ays dan dern ?
Kurd. Khudāné vī māl lakū daréya ?
Syriac. Aikailé māre d-adh baitha ?

Light the fire, please.

Arabic. Ish'al en-nār.
Persian. Luṭfan ātash-rā biafrūz.
Turkish. Kérém ét, atéshi yaq.
Arm. Hajetseg gragn varrel.
Kurd. Bkaraméta, āgir bika.
Syriac. Kmarjin minnokh, ewōdh nūra.

I want stabling for 16 horses.

Arabic. Yilzam-lī makān khāṭir zerabāt li-sitt 'āsh ḥiṣān.
Persian. Az barāyi shūnzdeh asp ṭawīleh mī-khāham.
Turkish. On alti āt ichun akhur istérim.
Arm. Dasnvets tzii hamar akhorr g'ouzem.
Kurd. 'Ard bō shāzdā asp dikhwāzim.
Syriac. Kibin dūktha ta 'ishtāsar sūsé.

Thanks, we want nothing more.

Arabic. Mimnūnīn, mā nerīd ghēr shē.
Persian. Luṭf-i-shumā ziyād, dīgar chīzī lāzim nadārīm.
Turkish. Téshékkür édérim, bashqa bir shei istéméyiz.
Arm. Shnorhagaloutiun, aveli pan chenq ouzer.
Kurd. Shukur, lateshtak dī ḥauja nīna.
Syriac. Shakrinnokh, lak sanqokh l-mindī khenna.

Tell all people not to be afraid.

Arabic. Qul lin-nās lā yakhāfū.
Persian. Bi-mardum bi-gū natarsand.
Turkish. Bitün éhāliya söilé qorqmazsinlar.
Arm. Amen martots aseq vor ch'vakhnan.
Kurd. Bō hammu khalq khabar bida nātersin.
Syriac. Makhber kullai nāshé d-la zadī.

Where is there some clean water?

Arabic. Ākū moi nedhīf?
Persian. Āb-i-pāk kujāst?
Turkish. Témiz sū nérédé bulunur?
Arm. Our ga maqour chour?
Kurd. Lakū daré āv khwash haya?
Syriac. Aika īth māya randé?

Clear those houses; we are going to quarter our men in them.

Arabic. Farrigh el-buyūt; nerīd nunezzil rijālna fīha.
Persian. Ān khāne-hā-rā khālī kun; mī-khāhīm ādam-hā-yi khud-rā ānjā manzil bi-dihīm.
Turkish. Shu évlérdén éhāliyi chiqār, néfératimizi orada oturtajaghiz.
Arm. Maqretseq ayt dounern, anonts mech bidi deghavorenq mer martiqn.
Kurd. Vān mālā khālī bika, amé mérékhwa lavédaré dainin.
Syriac. Msapqū an bāté, bedmatwokh nāshan b-gawaihī.

Is there smallpox in this village?

Arabic. Ākū jidrī fil-beled?
Persian. Dar īn deh ābileh dārad?
Turkish. Bū köidé chichék khastalighi vār mi?
Arm. Dzaghgakhd ga artioq ays kiughi mech?
Kurd. Āwlek (*or* khūrī) lavgūnd haya?
Syriac. Gallo īth shalqō (*or* shikhna) b-ādh-tha?

Tell me the house where there are sick men.

Arabic. Akhbir- ni wēn el-ḥōsh el-ledhī ākū mardha.
Persian. Marā ān khāne-rā nishān deh ki-mardum-i-nā-khush dar ānjā ha-stand.
Turkish. Ichindé khasta bulunan évi bana göstér.
Arm. Asatseq intz ayn doun'n our hivant martiq gan.
Kurd. 'Ardé nāsākha nishāmin beda.
Syriac. Makhzélī dūktha d-īth bā krīhé.

Is it feverish here?

Arabic. Akū sakhūneh fil-makān hādha?
Persian. Īnjā tab dārad?
Turkish. Burasi sitmali mi dir?
Arm. Artioq chermod degh e hos?
Kurd. Tā lahérā haya?
Syriac. Gallo īth shātha b-adh dūktha?

Is it healthy here?

Arabic. Hawa hel-makān ṭayyib?
Persian. Īnjā sālim-ast?
Turkish. Buranin havāsi eyi-mi dir?
Arm. Artioq arroghch degh e hos?
Kurd. Bāyé vī ard khwasha?
Syriac. Gallo manākh d-adh dūk-tha randailé?

12. Strangers or Suspects

Stop! or I shall shoot.

Arabic. Ogaf, wa-illā idhrabek bi-raṣāṣ.
Persian. Bi-īst, wa-illā tīr mī-andāzam.
Turkish. Dur! yoqsa atésh edérim.
Arm Getseq! yethe voch g'zar-nem.
Kurd. Rawuṣtā! (*or* bisakkinā) yān az ta kuzhim.
Syriac. Ḥmōl! illa bedmākhin.

Don't move from the spot.

Arabic. Lā tataḥarrak min makānek.
Persian. Az ānjā ki hastī ḥarakat na-kun.
Turkish. Oradan qimildanma.
Arm. Mi sharzhir deghed (*sing.*), ch'sharzhiq deg-herned (*pl.*).
Kurd. Zhvédaré nacha.
Syriac. La mḥarkit min dūk-thokh.

Stand a little farther off.

Arabic. Ogaf shwēyah ab'ad.
Persian. Qadrī dūrtar bi-īst.
Turkish. Bir az daha uzaqda dur.
Arm. Poqr inch aveli herroun getseq.
Kurd. Dūrter bisakkinā.
Syriac. Ḥmōl besh raḥūqa.

Come closer.

Arabic. Tāl (ta'āl) shwēya agrab.
Persian. Nazdīktar biyā.
Turkish. Daha yaqin gél.
Arm. Aveli mod yegeq.
Kurd. Nézīkter wara.
Syriac. Hayyo besh qarīwa.

Turn round.

Arabic. Dūr (*pl.* Dūrū).
Persian. Bar gard.
Turkish. Dön.
Arm. Tartzeq.
Kurd. Bezevirra.
Syriac. Pthol *or* khdhōr.

Hands up!

Arabic. Arfa' yedaik!
Persian. Dast bar dārīd!
Turkish. Éllérini qaldir!
Arm. Tzerrqernit partzratsoutseq!
Kurd. Dastéta helīna!
Syriac. Maurim īdhāthokh!

Put down your arms.

Arabic. Irmī islaḥatek (*pl.* Irmū islaḥtekum).
Persian. Asliḥah rū-yi zamīn biguzār.
Turkish. Silāhini yéré brāq.
Arm. Zenqernit var dreq.
Kurd. Chakkéta bāvézha.
Syriac. Mḥālik chakkokh.

Surrender.

Arabic. Sellem nefsek.
Persian. Khud-rā taslīm kun.
Turkish. Téslīm ol.
Arm. Antznadour yegheq.
Kurd. Taslīm beka.
Syriac. Msālim.

You may not talk to any one.

Arabic. Lā teḥakī ma' aḥad.
Persian. Na-bāyad bā kasī ḥarf bi-zanī.
Turkish. Hīch bir kimséilé qonushmayajaqsin.
Arm. Ourishi hed khoselou ch'eq.
Kurd. Lagal kas nā khéva.
Syriac. La maḥkit 'immed chū kha.

You are trying to deceive me.

Arabic. Enta terīd (*or* tujarrib) takhda'-ni.
Persian. Mī-khāhīd marā gūl bizanīd.
Turkish. Béni aldatmagha chālishyorsun.
Arm. G'ashkhadiq khapel zis.
Kurd. Ma khalatāndin ta khwast.
Syriac. Kibet ta d-maghelṭettī.

You are lying!

Arabic. Enta tikdheb 'alēyī!
Persian. Durūgh mī-gū'ī!
Turkish. Yalān söiléyorsun!
Arm. Soud g'khosiq!, g'sdeq
Kurd. Tū drāu kir.
Syriac. Kimdaglit.

You are a spy!

Arabic. Enta jāsūs!
Persian. Jāsūsī!
Turkish. Sén jāsūs sin!
Arm. Lrdes eq!
Kurd. Tu jāsūsī!
Syriac. Gashōshaiwet!

You are under arrest.

Arabic. Enta taḥt el-ḥabs.
Persian. Zīr-i-tauqīf hastī.
Turkish. Tahti tévqīfdé sin.
Arm. Galanavor eq.
Kurd. Tu girtīé.
Syriac. K'ārinnokh.

Take off your belt.

Arabic. Fukk ḥizāmek.
Persian. Kamarband-i-khud-rā bar dārīd.
Turkish. Qayishini chiqar.
Arm. Qagetseq tzer kodin.
Kurd. Pishtéta vaka (*or* kamaréta daina).
Syriac. Shrī shībāqokh.

If you behave you will be safe.

Arabic. Idha meshīt ṭayyib, 'alēk amān.
Persian. Agar bi ṭaur-i-ma'qūl raftār kunī, zararī bi-tū na-khāhad rasīd.
Turkish. Éyér éyi davranarsan qorqusuz ola bilirsin.
Arm. Yethe kheloq genaq anvdank g'mnaq.
Kurd. 'Aqil bika ū tu khalāṣ bikī.
Syriac. Hwī 'āqil ū bedkhalṣit.

13. Wounds or Sickness

Do you feel better?

Arabic. Kēfek aḥsan?
Persian. Aḥwāl-i-shumā bihtar-ast?
Turkish. Kéndini daha eyi güriyormisin?
Arm. Aveli lav g'zkag artiog?
Kurd. Tu khwashteré?
Syriac. Gallo besh randaiwet?

Do you feel worse?

Arabic. Kēfek arda?
Persian. Aḥwāl-i-shumā badtar-ast?
Turkish. Kéndini daha féna güriyormisin?
Arm. Aveli vad g'zkag artiog?
Kurd. Tu kharābteré?
Syriac. Gallo besh kharābaiwet?

What is the matter?

Arabic. Mā lak?
Persian. Chi (zarar) dārīd?
Turkish. Né vār?
Arm. Inch ga? Inch e badahadz?
Kurd. Chī haya?
Syriac. Mā īth?

I am wounded.

Arabic. Ana majrūḥ.
Persian. Zakhm khurdeh-am.
Turkish. Yarali-im.
Arm. Viravorvadz yem.
Kurd. Az brindārim.
Syriac. Jrīḥaiwin.

Where are you wounded?

Arabic. Wēn jurḥek ?
Persian. Zakhm-at kujāst ?
Turkish. Nérédé yaralisin ?
Arm. Vor deghen viravorvadz eq ?
Kurd. Brīnéta lakū daréya ?
Syriac. Aikaiwet jrīḥa ?

In the knee, the foot.

Arabic. Bi-rukbatī, bi-rijflī.
Persian. Dar zānū, dar pā.
Turkish. Dizimdén, ayaghimdan.
Arm. Dzounges, vodqes.
Kurd. La zhnū (*or* la zarānī), la pé.
Syriac. Bgō birkā, bgō aqla.

Keep quiet.

Arabic. Iskut (*don't talk*), lā tataḥarrak (*don't move*).
Persian. Āsūdeh bāsh.
Turkish. Qimildanma.
Arm. Hantard getseq.
Kurd. Nākhéva (*don't talk*), ḥarakat naka (*don't move*).
Syriac. Shtōq (*don't talk*), la mḥarkit (*don't move*).

You mustn't speak.

Arabic. Lā teḥakī.
Persian. Na-bāyad ḥarf bi-zanīd.
Turkish. Laqirdi étméélisin.
Arm. Bedq che khosiq.
Kurd. Nākhéva.
Syriac. La maḥkit.

Sit down, lie down.

Arabic. Aq'ad (*pl.* uq'udū).
Persian. Bi-nishīn, bi-khāb.
Turkish. Otur, yat.
Arm. Nsdetseq, barrgetseq.
Kurd. Rūna, rāḥat bistīna *or* draizh biba.
Syriac. Ītū, īrokh.

Undress yourself.

Arabic. Ishlaḥ hudūmek.
Persian. Rakht-i-khud-rā bi-kan *or* lukht bi-kan shau.
Turkish. Soyun.
Arm. Hanvetseq.
Kurd. Jilkéta beshalīna.
Syriac. Shlōkh jullokh.

Give me water.

Arabic. A'ṭīnī moi.
Persian. Ab bi-dih.
Turkish. Bana sū vér.
Arm. Chour dveq intz.
Kurd. Av bida min.
Syriac. Hallī māya.

Here is water and brandy.

Arabic. Hāḏha moi wa-kunyāk.
Persian. Īnak, āb ū konyāk.
Turkish. Ishté sana sū ilé qonyāq.
Arm. Aha chour yev *coniac.*
Kurd. Avā āv ūkonyāk.
Syriac. Hā māya ū kōnyāk.

Give me a bandage.

Arabic. A'ṭīnī rabāṭah.
Persian. 'Iṣābe-yi bi-man bi-dih.
Turkish. Bana bir yara sarghisi vér.
Arm. Viragab dveq intz.
Kurd. Pāta bō min bīna.
Syriac. Hallī khḏha pasta.

Help me with the bandaging.

Arabic. Sā'id-nī bir-rabāṭah.
Persian. Dar 'iṣābeh bastan marā yāwarī kun.
Turkish. Bana sarghiyi sarmaqda yardim ét.
Arm. Oknetseq intz viragapoutiamp.
Kurd. Lashadāndiné hārémin wara.
Syriac. 'Ōnnī b-īṣāra.

Take this medicine.

Arabic. Khōd ishrab ed-dawā.
Persian. Īn dārū-rā bi-khur.
Turkish. Shu 'ilāji ich.
Arm. Arreg ays teghn.
Kurd. Vī darmān bestīna.
Syriac. Shqōl adh darmāna.

Go to the Doctor and tell him to come at once.

Arabic. Ruḥ lil-ḥakīm wa-qulluh yijī bil-'ajel.
Persian. Ḥakīm-rā bi-gū zūd biyāyad.
Turkish. Hekīme git söilé ki shimdi buraya gélsin.
Arm. Knatseq pzhishgin yev asatseq anmichabes ka.
Kurd. Harra nik ḥakīm ūbézha bōwī da zū ét.
Syriac. Sī l-gébe d-ḥakīm ūmōré d-āthé qalūla.

Take this man to hospital.

Arabic. Waddi her-rijāl lil-khastakhānah.
Persian. Īn mard-rā bi marīzkhāneh bi-bar.
Turkish. Bū néféri khasta-khānéyé götür.
Arm. Hivanlanots dareg ays martn.
Kurd. Vī mér lakhastakhāna biberra.
Syriac. Naubil adh nāsha lkhastakhāna.

14. General Phrases

Good night, madam.

Arabic. M-Allāh bi-khēr yā sitt.
Persian. Shab-i-shumā bi-khair, khānam.
Turkish. Géjéniz khair olsun, hanem effendi.
Arm. Pari kisher, digin.
Kurd.
Syriac. Pūsh b-shayna khanam.

Good morning, madam.

Arabic. Ṣabāḥ m-Allāh bi-khēr, yā sitt.
Persian. Ṣubḥ-i-shumā bi-khair.
Turkish. Sabāhiniz khair olsun, hanem efféndi.
Arm. Pari luys, digin.
Kurd. Subahī bkhair.
Syriac. Shlama khanam.

Good morning, Sir.

Arabic. Ṣabāḥ m-Allāh bi-khēr, effendi.
Persian. Ṣubḥ-i-shumā bi-khair.
Turkish. Sabāhiniz khair olsun, efféndim.
Arm. Pari luys, baron.
Kurd. Ṣubaḥī bkhair!
Syriac. Shlama lukh effendi.

How are you?

Arabic. Shlōn kēfek?
Persian. Aḥwāl-i-shumā chi ṭaur-ast?
Turkish. Nasl siniz?
Arm. Inchbes eq?
Kurd. Kaifāta chāwaya?
Syriac. Dékh īwet?

I am sorry.

Arabic. Ana mute'essif.
Persian. Afsūs mi-khuram.
Turkish. Yaziq.
Arm. G'tsavim.
Kurd. Az khamīnim.
Syriac. Kimasfin.

What is the news?

Arabic. Ēsh el-khabr?
Persian. Chi khabar-ast?
Turkish. Né khaber vār?
Arm. Inch lour ga?
Kurd. Chī khabar haya?
Syriac. Mā khabra īth?

Do you know English?

Arabic. Ta'rif anglēzī?
Persian. Inglīsī-rā mī-dānīd?
Turkish. Ingilizjé bilirmisiniz?
Arm Anglieren kideq?
Kurd. Tu inglīsī zānī?
Syriac. Gallo kyadh'et inglīsī?

Speak slowly.

Arabic. Eḥkī yawāsh.
Persian. Yawāsh ḥarf zan.
Turkish. Yavāsh söilé.
Arm. Gamats khosetseq.
Kurd. Yawāsh bākhéva.
Syriac. Maḥkī b-nīkhūtha.

There is a fire.

Arabic. Ākū nār.
Persian. Ātash dārad.
Turkish. Atésh vār burda.
Arm. Grag ga.
Kurd. Agir haya.
Syriac. Īth nūra.

Impossible.

Arabic. Mū mumkin.
Persian. Muḥāl, ghair-i-mumkin.
Turkish. Olmaz.
Arm. Angareli.
Kurd. Nā mumkina (*or* nābit).
Syriac. Ghair mumkin (*or* la barāya).

Please come in; sit down!

Arabic. Tafadhdhal udkhul; uq'ud!
Persian. Bi-farmā'īd; bi-nishīnīd!
Turkish. Buyurun; oturun!
Arm. Hajetseq ners; nsdetseq!
Kurd. Wara; rūna!
Syriac. Tafadhdhal hayyo; ītū!

God grant it!

Arabic. In'shā Allāh!
Persian. Khudā kunād! In sha'llāh!
Turkish. Inshallāh!
Arm. Asdvadz da! Amen!
Kurd. Khuzzī, īshallah!
Syriac. Khuzzī, in shā allah!

It is true.

Arabic. Ṣaḥīḥ.
Persian. Rāst ast.
Turkish. Doghru dir.
Arm. Jisht e.
Kurd. Rāsta.
Syriac. Tamām.

What are your wishes ?

Arabic. Ēsh khāṭirek ?
Persian. Chi mī-khāhīd ?
Turkish. Né istérsiniz ?
Arm. Inch e tzer papakn ?
Kurd. Ta chī tvet (*or* dkhwāzī) ?
Syriac. Mā kibet ?

Thank God ! I am well.

Arabic. El-ḥamdu lillāh (*or* El-ḥamdillah), ana bi-khēr !
Persian. Al-ḥamdu lillāh, aḥwāl-am khūb-ast !
Turkish. Al-hamdu lillāh, eyi yim!
Arm. Parrq Asdoudzo, lav yem !
Kurd. Shukur lakhudé, az sā-khim !
Syriac. Kshakrin ālaha, sākh īwin !

You are welcome.

Arabic. Marḥaba ; ehlen wa-sehlen.
Persian. Khush āmadīd.
Turkish. Khosh géldiniz ! Safā géldiniz !
Arm. Parov yegaq.
Kurd. Marḥaba ! tu khwash hātī.
Syriac. Marḥaba !

Please.

Arabic. Tafadhdhal. (*See Vocab.*)
Persian. Luṭfan.
Turkish. Kérém ét.
Arm. Hajetseq, khntrem.
Kurd. Bkhairéta.
Syriac. Min fadhl diyokh.

Thank you.

Arabic. Mimnūn *or* kethther khairek.
Persian. Iltifāt-i-shumā ziyād.
Turkish. Téshékkür édérim.
Arm. Shnorhagal yem tzez.
Kurd. Min zhta minata.
Syriac. Minta minnokh (*or* kshakrennokh).

Do you understand ?

Arabic. Tifham ?
Persian. Ayā, fahmīdī ?
Turkish. Anladin mi ?
Arm. G' hasgnaq ?
Kurd. Tu fahm dekī ?
Syriac. Gallo kfahmit ?

I don't understand.

Arabic. Ana mā iftahim.
Persian. Namī-fahmam.
Turkish. Anlamam.
Arm. Chem hasgnar.
Kurd. Az fahm nākim.
Syriac. Lak fahmin.

All right.

Arabic. Ṭayyib.
Persian. Khailī khūb.
Turkish. Pék 'ala, pék eyi.
Arm. Shad lav !
Kurd. Chāka (*or* qanja).
Syriac. Randa.

There is no news.

Arabic. Mākū khabr.
Persian. Khabarī nīst.
Turkish. Khaber yoq.
Arm. Lour ch'ga.
Kurd. Chū khabar nīna.
Syriac. Laith chū khabra.

How do you know?

Arabic. Shlōn ta'rif?
Persian. Az kujā mī-dānīd?
Turkish. Nasl bilirsiniz?
Arm. Inchbes kideq? inchen kideq?
Kurd. Tu chāwa (*or* kusā) tzānī?
Syriac. Min aika kyadh-et?

It is false.

Arabic. Mū ṣaḥīḥ *or* kidhb.
Persian. Durūgh-ast.
Turkish. Yalān dir.
Arm. Skhal e, soud e.
Kurd. Drawa.
Syriac. Duglailé!

I am glad.

Arabic. El-ḥamdu lillāh.
Persian. Khush-am mī-yāyad.
Turkish. Mémnūn um.
Arm. Ourakh yem, koh yem.
Kurd. Az khwashim.
Syriac. Pṣīkhaiwin.

Possible.

Arabic. Mumkin.
Persian. Mumkin.
Turkish. Mumkin, olabilir.
Arm. Gareli.
Kurd. Mumkina (*or* dbit).
Syriac. Mumkin (*or* kbāré).

Rain threatens.

Arabic. Ed-dunya maṭṭārah.
Persian. Dārad bārān bi-bārad.
Turkish. Yaghmur yaghajaq gibi
Arm. Antzrev g'sbarrna.
Kurd. Dunyā bārāna.
Syriac. Dunyé miṭranīthaila.

It is moonlight.

Arabic. Ed-dunya nūr qamar.
Persian. Mahtāb-ast.
Turkish. Mahitāb havāsi vār.
Arm. Lousnga e, lousniag kisher e.
Kurd. Rōzhnāhié haīva.
Syriac. Béhra d-séraïlé.

How old are you?

Arabic. Kam senah 'umrak?
Persian. Chand sālagī dārīd?
Turkish. Qach yashinda sin?
Arm. Qani daregan eq?
Kurd. 'Umréta chanda? (*or* ta chand sāl haya?)
Syriac. Kmailé 'umr diyokh?

I must go.

Arabic. Lāzim arūḥ.
Persian. Bāyad bi-rawam
Turkish. Gitméliyim.
Arm. Yertalou yem, bardim yertal.
Kurd. Lāzima az déchem.
Syriac. Lāzim ta d-zālī.

Is he at home?

Arabic. Hūa bil-bēt?
Persian. Dar khāne-ast?
Turkish. Évdé mi dir?
Arm. Dann e artioq?
Kurd. Au lmāla?
Syriac. B-go baithailé?

Who is it?

Arabic. Menū?
Persian. Kīst?
Turkish. Kim dir?
Arm. Ov e?
Kurd. Āu kīā?
Syriac. Manīlé?

Let him enter.

Arabic. Khallī-yidkhul.
Persian. Biyāyad.
Turkish. Buyursun.
Arm. Ners thogh ka.
Kurd. Bilā bét.
Syriac. Shud āwer.

Does the water boil?

Arabic. El-moi teghlī?
Persian. Āb jūsh mī-khurad?
Turkish. Sū qainayor mu?
Arm. Chourn g'erra artioq?
Kurd. Av kul bū?
Syriac. Gallo māya birthākhailai?

Good-bye.

Arabic. Auda'nākum *or* Fī amān Allāh (*see Vocab.*).
Persian. Khudā ḥāfiz.
Turkish. Allāha ismarladiq.
Arm. Mnaq parov.
Kurd. Bkhātirāta.
Syriac. Pōsh bi-shlāma.

Au revoir.

Arabic. Inshallāh neshūfek 'an qarīb.
Persian. Dūbāreh shumā-rā khāhīm dīd.
Turkish. Yaqinda görüshürüz inshallāh.
Arm. Yertaq parov.
Kurd. Az jārak dī tā debīnim.
Syriac. Bidkhāzinnokh gaha khirta.

Pleasant journey.

Arabic. Ma'a 's-selāmah.
Persian. Fi amān illāh.
Turkish. Sélamétlé, oghurlar-olsun.
Arm. Pari janportoutiun.
Kurd. Safaréta pīrōz bit.
Syriac. Safar diyokh hāwé brīkha.

Of course.

Arabic. Ma'lūm *or* helbet.
Persian. Albatteh.
Turkish. Élbétté.
Arm. Anshousht.
Kurd. Mā'lum.
Syriac. Ma'lūm.

Please tell me.

Arabic. Tafadhdhal qul-li.
Persian. Luṭfan marā bi-gū.
Turkish. Rija édérim bana soïlé.
Arm. Khntrem aseq intz.
Kurd. Zhkaraméta, khabar beda min.
Syriac. Kmarjin minnokh, makhbérī.

What did you say?

Arabic. Ēsh qult?
Persian. Chi guftīd?
Turkish. Né dédiniz?
Arm. Inch usiq? inch asetsiq?
Kurd. Ta chī gōt?
Syriac. Mā mérokh?

What did he say?

Arabic. Ēsh qāl?
Persian. Chi guft?
Turkish. Né dédi?
Arm. Inch usav, inch asets?
Kurd. Chī gōt?
Syriac. Mā iméré?

Excuse me.

Arabic.	El-'afu.
Persian.	Bi-bakhshīd.
Turkish.	'Afv édérsiniz.
Arm.	Neretseq.
Kurd.	Gāzin naka.
Syriac.	Al-'afū (*or* la audhit gāzin).

You are mistaken.

Arabic.	Enta ghalṭān.
Persian.	Khaṭā kardīd.
Turkish.	Yanlishiniz vār.
Arm.	G'skhaliq.
Kurd.	Tu khalaṭī.
Syriac.	Ghelṭaiwet.

No matter.

Arabic.	Mā yukhālif.
Persian.	'Aibī na dārad.
Turkish.	Zarar yoq.
Arm.	Hok che.
Kurd.	Bilā bit.
Syriac.	Shud hāwé (*or* lā bās)

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