

# Complete Essay on the Ottoman Empire in Turkey (1300-1923)

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Turkey lies at two critical crossroads – of Asia and Europe and of Islam and Christianity. During the past 4,000 years, the Anatolian Peninsula was a key part of four impressive empires – Hittite, Roman, Byzantine, and Ottoman. The first and last of those empires in Anatolia grew out of substantial waves of migrants – of Indo-European-speaking peoples before 2,000 BCE, and of Turkic-speaking peoples in the 11<sup>th</sup>-13<sup>th</sup> centuries CE. The history of Anatolia and Turkey features interactions with many other leading empires of the Ancient Near East, based in Assyria, Persia, and Egypt.

The imperial struggle for control of the Anatolian Peninsula (later Turkey) is the central theme of this essay. The most powerful empire based in Anatolia – and the principal focus of the essay – was the Ottoman Empire (1300-1923), led in succession by 35 Islamic Turkish sultans. The first section of the essay summarizes key trends in the three millennia of Anatolian history

that preceded the rise of the Ottomans. The essay's central part examines the rise, rule, and fall of the Ottomans – how immigrant Turkic-speaking peoples gained control of Anatolia, created a powerful multiethnic empire, encompassing large parts of southeastern Europe, southwestern Asia, and North Africa, and then gradually lost power after four centuries of dominance. The third and last part of the essay looks at the aftermath of the Ottoman Empire – the evolution of the Republic of Turkey in the past century. A time line, an annotated bibliography, and a description of sites that I visited in Turkey are appended at the end of the essay.

Osman (ruled 1300-1326), a talented Turkish soldier and administrator of a tiny kingdom, was the founding father of the Ottoman Empire (1300-1923). The keys to Ottoman success were the skilled use of Islamic Turkish horse-warriors in conquest and religious tolerance for the Orthodox-Christian Greek majority in governing western Anatolia. During the next century, Osman's

three successors expanded Ottoman control into the Balkan region of southeastern Europe and throughout Anatolia. Mehmed II (The Conqueror) successfully besieged Constantinople in 1453, and the city's fall ended the Byzantine Empire. Mehmed expanded Ottoman control in the Balkans in the 1460s by taking Serbia, Bosnia, Albania, and Greece. Between 1515 and 1517, the Ottomans added Syria, Egypt, and Western Arabia to their empire, paving the way for further expansion across North Africa. Suleiman I (The Magnificent), the Ottoman Empire's greatest sultan, took control of Hungary in 1543 and Mesopotamia (Iraq) in 1554.

The Battle of Vienna (1683) was the Ottoman Empire's first loss of territory to Christian foes. Thereafter, the Empire was on the defensive. The Ottoman Turks lost Hungary (in 1699), the Crimea (1774), Greece (1830), Serbia, Romania, Bosnia, and Cyprus (1878), and Bulgaria (1913). The Ottoman Empire declined and was dismembered because of succession crises

(disputes over who would rule following the death of a sultan), military conservatism (an inability to adopt new technologies and strategies), economic weakness (agricultural backwardness and losses of transit trade to European competitors), and changing international realities (the politico-economic rise of Great Britain, France, the Netherlands, Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Germany).

The Ottomans joined the Central Powers (Germany and Austria- Hungary) and lost the First World War (1914-1918). Thereafter, League of Nations mandates over former Ottoman territories were awarded in 1923 to Britain for Palestine, Transjordan, and Iraq and to France for Syria and Lebanon. In that same year, the Ottoman Empire ceased to exist and the Republic of Turkey was formed encompassing Anatolia and eastern Thrace (in southeastern Europe).

Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, the Turkish nationalist leader who defeated a Greek invasion in 1922, served as the first president of the Republic of Turkey (1923-1938). Atatürk's loyal prime

minister, Ismet İnönü, was Turkey's second president (1938-1950). İnönü continued Atatürk's policies of secularism and étatism – large government participation in the economy. Turkey received ample Marshall Plan aid from the United States and joined NATO in 1952. For the next half century, Turkey experienced political instability under weak coalition governments. The Justice and Development Party (AKP), a moderate Islamist group led by Recep Tayyip Erdoğan, has governed since 2002. The popularity of the AKP has rested on their success in creating rapid growth of per capita income and building grassroots political organizations.

## **Ancient Anatolia (3<sup>rd</sup> millennium-130 BCE)**

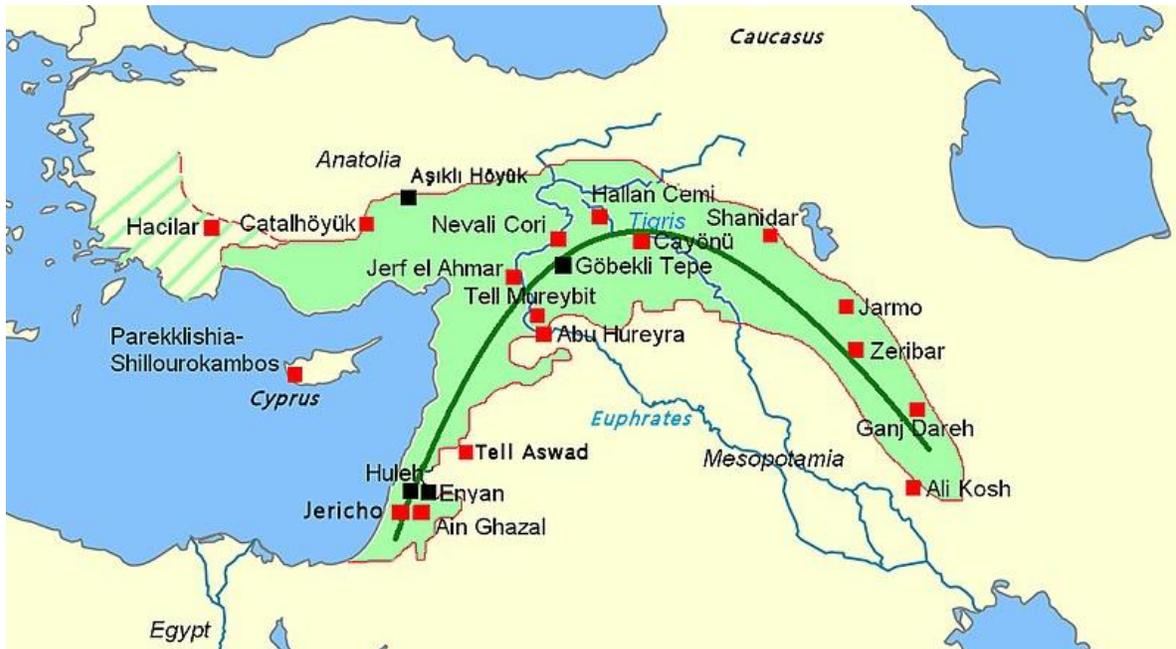
**Geography and Settlement of Anatolia (3<sup>rd</sup> millennium-1700 BCE).** The history of Anatolian kingdoms has been strongly influenced by geography and migrations. Anatolia (in contemporary Turkey) is a large peninsula that is bordered on the north by the Black Sea, the west by the Aegean Sea, and the south by the eastern Mediterranean Sea. In the center of Anatolia is a vast plateau, ringed by mountain ranges, which separate the plateau from narrow coastal plains.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Turkey\\_topo.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Turkey_topo.jpg)>

### *Topography of the Anatolian Peninsula*

Advanced civilization in Western Asia arose with the development of agriculture (from 8500 BCE), cities and hierarchical social organization (from 4000 BCE), and writing (from 3000 BCE). The most extensive Neolithic archaeological excavation in Anatolia is Çatal Huyuk, a town of 32 acres that produced grain with irrigation and wove cloth in 6500 BCE. Çatal Huyuk, located southeast of modern Konya, is one of the world's largest and most extensively studied Neolithic settlements.

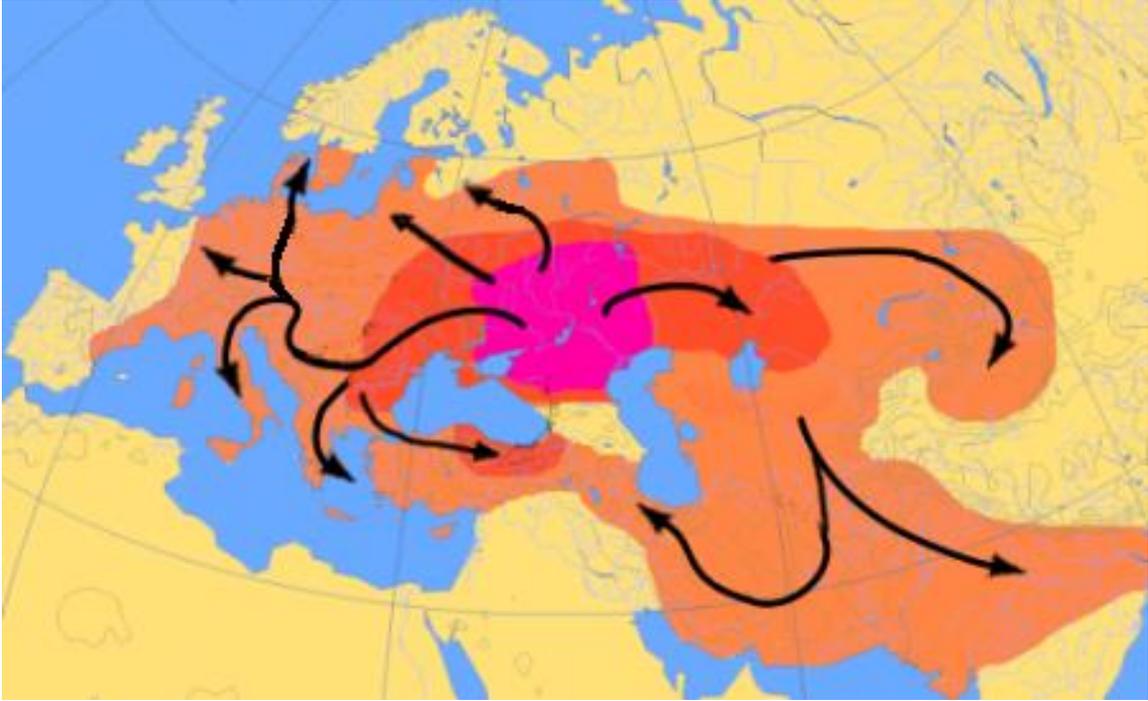


Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Fertile\\_crescent\\_Neolithic\\_B\\_circa\\_7500\\_B\\_C.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Fertile_crescent_Neolithic_B_circa_7500_B_C.jpg)>

*Agriculture Originated in the Fertile Crescent, c. 8500 BCE*

By the 3<sup>rd</sup> millennium BCE, numerous city-states on the Anatolian plateau prospered and adopted cuneiform writing from Mesopotamia. Many of those people referred to themselves as the Hatti. By 2000 BCE, the leading Anatolian city-state was Kanesh, the center of an extensive trading network of Assyrian merchant colonies in Anatolia. Anatolia exported silver, copper, wood, and gold to Assyria and received imports of tin (needed, with copper, to make bronze) and woolen textiles from Assyria and Babylon.

In the late 3<sup>rd</sup> millennium BCE, Anatolia experienced large migrations of Indo-European-speaking peoples, who had originated in Central Asia, moved westerly north of the Black Sea, and then entered Anatolia through the Bosphorus. Those migrants – the Luwians in the west, the Palaians in the north, and the Nesites (or Hittites) in the center – used superior military and political organization to gain control of much of Anatolia by 1700 BCE.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:IE\\_expansion.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:IE_expansion.png)>

*Indo-Aryan Migrations, c. 4000-1000 BCE –  
4000-2500 BCE (Red Areas), 2500-1000 BCE (Orange Areas)*

### **Rise of the Hittite Kingdom (18<sup>th</sup>-15<sup>th</sup> centuries BCE).**

The Hittite Kingdom, based around its capital, Hattusa, in north-central Anatolia, was a leading power in Western Asia for five centuries (c. 1700-1200 BCE). The multi-ethnic kingdom consisted of a powerful central state, sometimes called Hatti, and numerous vassal states. The ruling elite were Indo-European-speaking Nesite people, and the conquered vassals were mainly

Luwians, Syrians, and Hurrians (migrants from northern Mesopotamia).



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Lion\\_Gate,\\_Hattusa\\_01.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Lion_Gate,_Hattusa_01.jpg)>

*Lion Gate, Hattusa – Hittite Capital, 14<sup>th</sup> century BCE*

The Hittite rulers faced an unending struggle to control hostile neighbors – Kaskans (north), Luwians (southwest and south), and Hurrians (southeast). Hatti was a warrior-kingdom, and the Nesite rulers used superior horse-based cavalry to conquer much of Anatolia and the northern Levant, create vassal states, and

exact regular tribute. Rulers allocated land and war captives to a militaristic elite who in return provided tax revenues, horses, and cavalrymen to the state.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Hittite\\_Empire.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Hittite_Empire.png)

*The Hittite Kingdom In 1590 BCE (Dark Red Area) and At Its Territorial Peak, c. 1290 BCE (Dark Red and Orange Areas)*

The Hittite founder kings, Hattusili and Mursili (who ruled between 1650 and 1590 BCE), created buffer states in Anatolia to secure their landlocked home state, located in the arc of the Kizil Irmak River (which they called the Marassantiya). They then expanded into northern Syria and western Mesopotamia to ensure supplies of tin (needed to make bronze weapons and farming implements) and to receive tribute to offset the costs of their military campaigns. Mursili's defeat of Aleppo and the fall of kingdoms in Assyria and Babylon left a political vacuum in northern Syria. The Hurrians then created the Kingdom of Mittani, which became the Hittites' main rival. Later, Egypt's powerful pharaoh, Thutmose III, defeated Mittani at the Battle of Megiddo (c. 1457 BCE) and asserted Egyptian control over the valuable Levantine trade.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Near\\_East\\_1400\\_BCE.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Near_East_1400_BCE.png)

*Thutmose III's Conquest of Syria-Palestine –  
 Egypt Defeated Mittani at Megiddo, c. 1457 BCE*

**Peak of the Hittite Kingdom (14<sup>th</sup> century BCE).** With Egypt in control of trade in the Levant, Hittite fortunes ebbed. During much of the 15<sup>th</sup> century BCE, the Hittites were in disarray. In the early 14<sup>th</sup> century BCE, their traditional enemies, Kaska, Arzawa, and Mittani, encroached on Hatti territory and destroyed

the capital, Hattusa, but they failed to capture the Hittite rulers. Unexpectedly, a strong king, Tudhaliya III, emerged from the wreckage to reconquer Hatti territory and rebuild the capital and kingdom. His partner in the reconstruction of the Hittite kingdom was his son, who succeeded him as Suppliliuma I (1350-1322) and became the greatest king in Hittite history.



Source: *Wikimedia Commons*, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Sphinx\\_Gate,\\_Alaca\\_H%C3%B6y%C3%BCk\\_02.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Sphinx_Gate,_Alaca_H%C3%B6y%C3%BCk_02.jpg)>

*Sphinx Gate, Alaca Hoyuk – Second Most Important Hittite Site*

Suppliliuma re-enacted earlier Hittite strategy by pacifying Kaska (to the north) and Arzawa (to the southeast) and by reconquering eastern Anatolia and setting up weak vassal states there. Once he was in firm control of Anatolia, Suppliliuma turned his attention to the rich city-states and key trade routes of northern Syria. Taking advantage of an internal political crisis that diverted Egyptian interest from Syria, Suppliliuma carried out lightning raids into northern Syria and destroyed the Kingdom of Mittani. He then installed two of his sons as direct rulers in Aleppo and Carchemish, thereby guaranteeing Hittite control of the main trade routes connecting the Mediterranean with the Euphrates (and thus the Persian Gulf).

Mursili II (1321-1295) consolidated those gains by expelling Assyrian invaders from Carchemish. He also transferred defeated populations to the Hittite homeland to provide labor for noble estates and the infantry. But the Hittite Kingdom was vulnerable

as the Kaskans and Arzawans in Anatolia and the Egyptians and Assyrians in Syria awaited their chances for revenge.

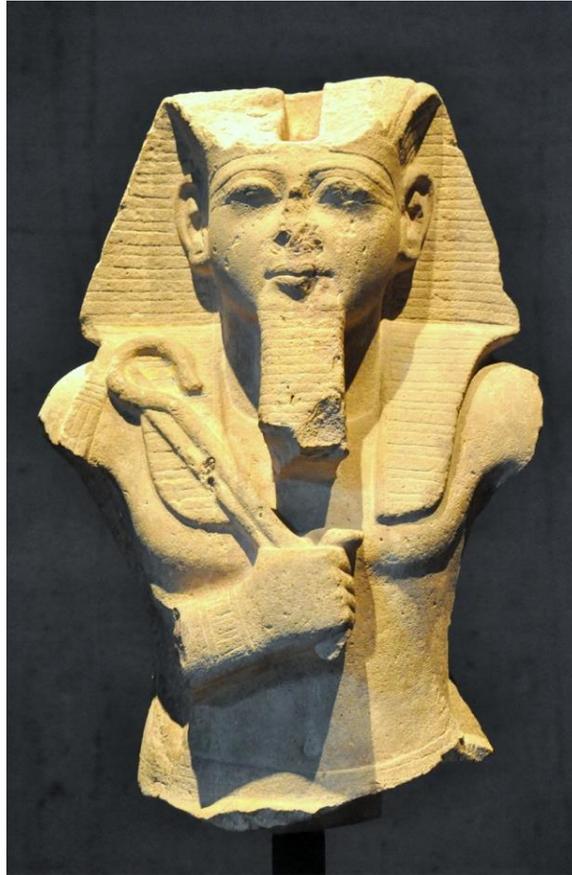


Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Hittite\\_Kingdom.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Hittite_Kingdom.png)

*The Hittite Kingdom (Hatti) At Its Greatest Territorial Extent, c. 1295 BCE*

**Fall of the Hittite Kingdom (13<sup>th</sup> century BCE).** The 13<sup>th</sup> century BCE began well for the Hittite Kingdom. When Egypt's most powerful pharaoh, Ramesses II, invaded Syria with a huge army in 1274 BCE, the Hittite king, Muwatalli II, out-maneuvered

him at the Battle of Kadesh. Ramesses was fortunate to gain a standoff.

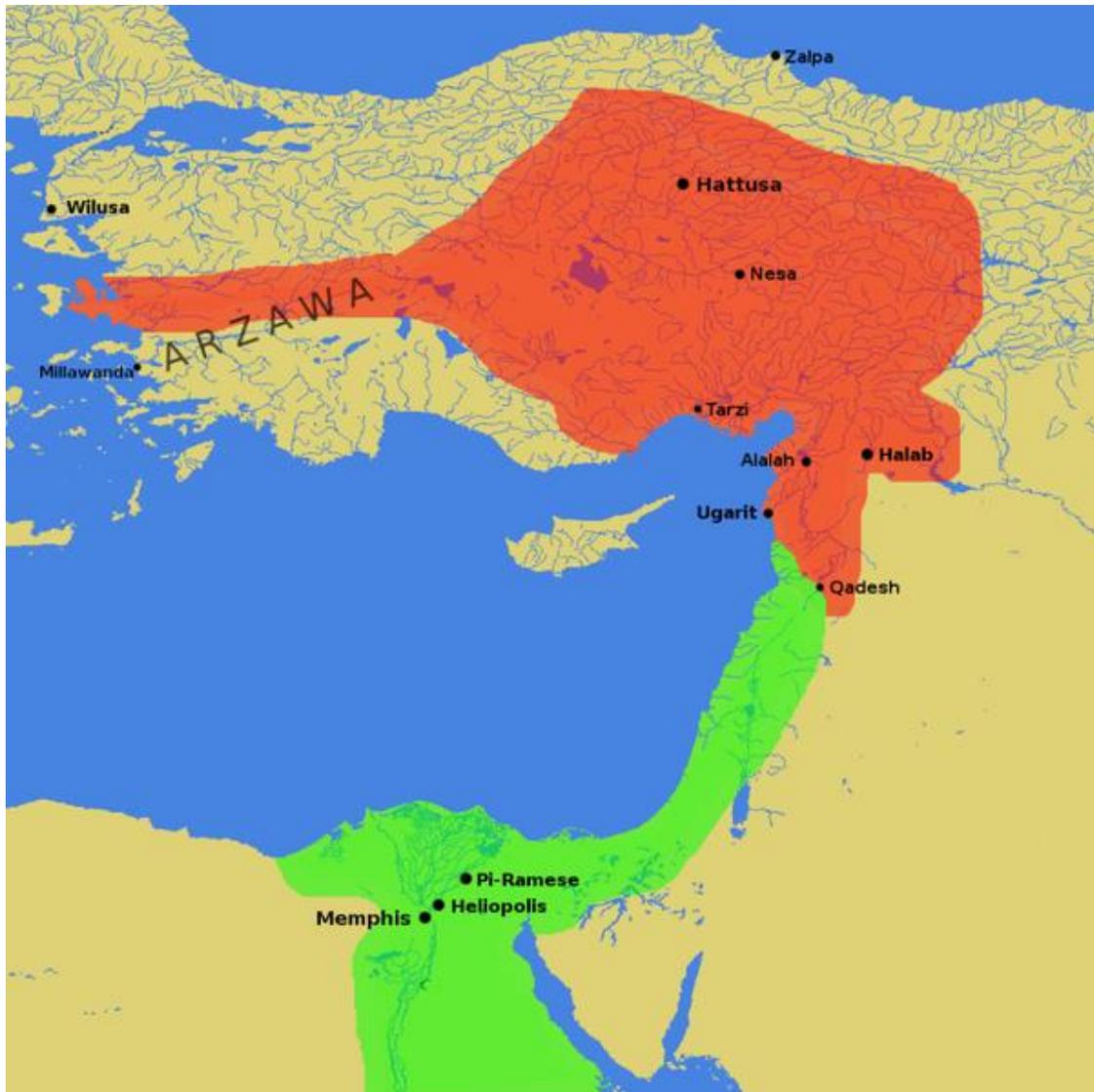


Source: *Wikimedia Commons*, available at [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ramesses II holding a crook and a flail.19th Dynasty, c. 1240 BC. From Nubia. State Museum of Egyptian Art, Munich.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ramesses_II_holding_a_crook_and_a_flail.19th_Dynasty,_c._1240_BC._From_Nubia._State_Museum_of_Egyptian_Art,_Munich.jpg)

*Ramesses II, c. 1240 BCE, State Museum of Egyptian Art, Munich – Fortunate To Escape With A Draw With the Hittites, 1275 BCE*

Ramesses withdrew, and the Hittites expanded into central Syria. When the expansionist Assyrians later took Carchemish, the

Hittites and Egyptians negotiated a mutual defense treaty in 1257 BCE in hopes of curbing Assyrian power and guaranteeing political stability in Syria.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Hitt\\_Egypt\\_Perseus.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Hitt_Egypt_Perseus.png)>

*Ramesses II's Incursions in Syria-Palestine, c. 1275 BCE –  
The Hittites (Red) Stalemated Egypt (Green) at Kadesh*

The new Hittite king, Hattusili III (1267-1237), who had fought a civil war in a succession struggle with his nephew, gained Egyptian political legitimacy from the treaty. But Hittite power soon unraveled.

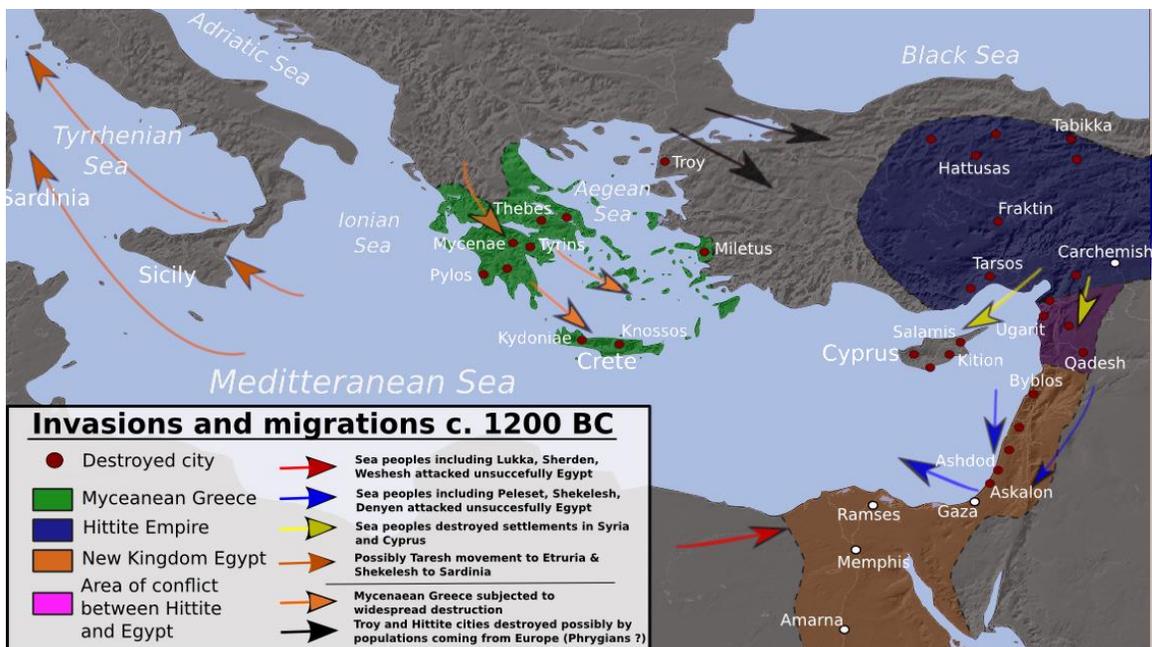


Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Felsrelief\\_von\\_Firaktin\\_Hattusili\\_III\\_\(cropped\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Felsrelief_von_Firaktin_Hattusili_III_(cropped).jpg)>

*Rock Relief of Hattusili III (Ruled 1267-1237 BCE) –  
Firakatin, Kayseri*

Between about 1250 and 1150 BCE, a cataclysmic mass migration of displaced peoples occurred in much of Anatolia, Mesopotamia, and the Levant. The Egyptians called them the “Sea

Peoples” and fought hard to prevent their entrance into Egypt. The causes of this mass displacement are debated. One reasonable explanation is that the movements began with anarchy in western Anatolia, following the breakdown of political control by the Mycenaean and Hittite Kingdoms.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Invasions, destructions and possible population movements during the Bronze Age Collapse, ca. 1200 BC.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Invasions,_destructions_and_possible_population_movements_during_the_Bronze_Age_Collapse,_ca._1200_BC.png)

### *Foreign Invasions by the Sea Peoples – c. 1200 BCE*

As Anatolia was swamped with mass migrations of often-unruly people, the Hittite Kingdom seems to have suffered catastrophic food shortages and famines, perhaps resulting from

droughts, supply disruptions, warfare, and shortage of farming manpower. Weakened by succession struggles, mass marauders, and famine, the once-powerful Hittite military kingdom fell victim to invasion from its archenemies, the Kaskans from the Pontic north, who destroyed Hattusa, occupied Hittite territory, and ended five centuries of Hittite glory.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:KaratepeNV16-8.jpg>>

*Hittite Orthostat (Relief Carving), Karatepe Fortress –  
Showing Hungry People*

**Anatolia in Transition (1200-547 BCE).** After the fall of the Hittite Kingdom, ancient Anatolia hosted a number of

kingdoms and city-states, many ruled by migrants from Greece.

The Phrygians migrated from Greece in the 13<sup>th</sup>-12<sup>th</sup> centuries BCE, along with other Sea Peoples. A Phrygian confederation of kingdoms, based on gold mining and trade, prospered between the 9<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> centuries BCE, controlling western Anatolia from Gordium and central Anatolia from Kayseri. The last Phrygian ruler, King Midas, was overrun by Cimmerian warriors from north of the Black Sea.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Aizanoi\\_Zeus\\_temple\\_2120.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Aizanoi_Zeus_temple_2120.jpg)>

*Acroterion and Temple of Zeus, Aizanoi, Phrygia –  
c. 8<sup>th</sup> century BCE*

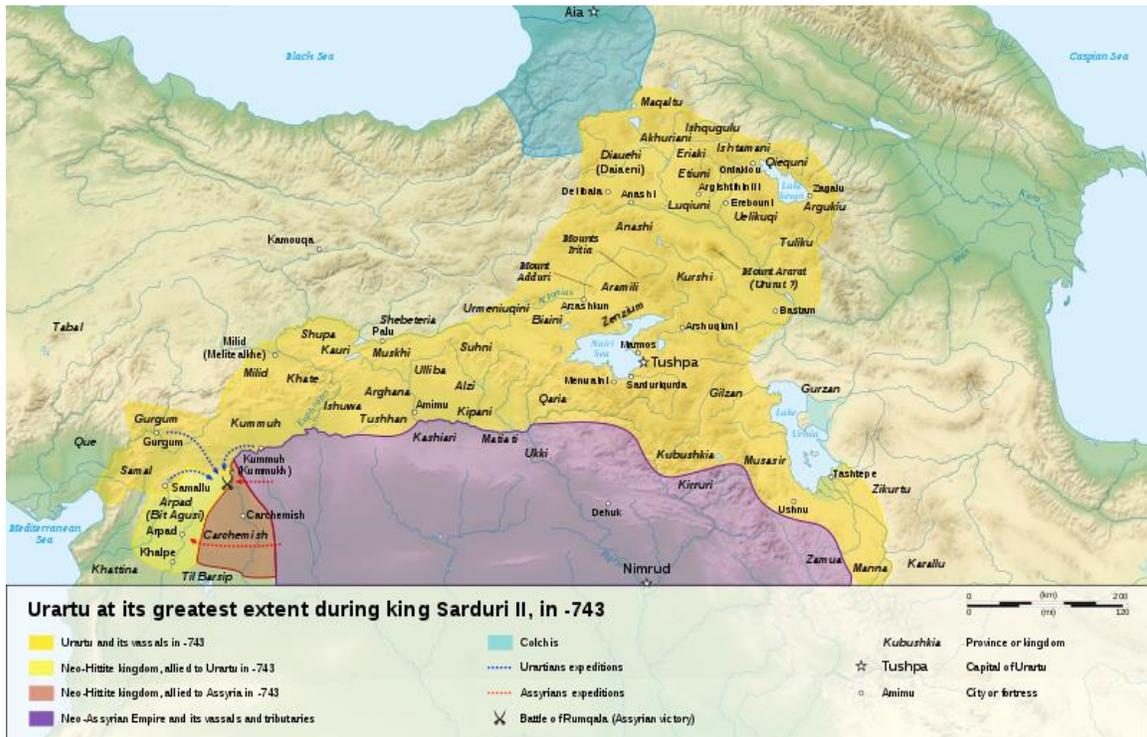
Three waves of Greek migrants established port city-states on the Aegean coast of western Anatolia between 1000 and 800 BCE. Ionians settled the center (Ephesus), Dorians the south (Rhodes), and Aeolians the north (Mytilene). By the 7<sup>th</sup> century BCE, those city-states had amassed substantial trading wealth, and thereafter they set up colony ports in the Sea of Marmara and Black Sea regions.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Asia\\_Minor\\_in\\_the\\_Greco-Roman\\_period\\_-\\_general\\_map\\_-\\_regions\\_and\\_main\\_settlements.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Asia_Minor_in_the_Greco-Roman_period_-_general_map_-_regions_and_main_settlements.jpg)

*Anatolia in the Greco-Roman Era –  
11<sup>th</sup> century BCE-4<sup>th</sup> century CE*

In eastern Anatolia and the Caucasus, an Anatolian dynasty ruled the Kingdom of Urartu for much of the 11<sup>th</sup>-7<sup>th</sup> centuries BCE. The Urartians created impressive wealth from their extensive natural resources – timber, metals (silver, iron, and copper), rivers (irrigated grain and grapes, especially on the Plain of Van), and pastures (horses).



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Urartu\\_743-en.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Urartu_743-en.svg)

*The Kingdom of Urartu At Its Greatest Territorial Extent,  
c. 743 BCE*

Urartu was looted by the Assyrians in the late 8<sup>th</sup> century BCE and destroyed by the Scythians (from north of the Black Sea) and the Medes (from Iran) in the late 7<sup>th</sup> century BCE.

The Mermnad dynasty ruled the Kingdom of Lydia in western Anatolia from its capital at Sardis in the 7<sup>th</sup>-6<sup>th</sup> centuries BCE. Lydia produced enormous wealth from gold mining, agriculture, trade, and tribute from the subordinated Greek city-states. Herodotus claimed that Lydia minted the world's first gold coins. King Cyrus of Achaemenid Persia defeated the last Lydian ruler, King Croesus, in 546 BCE and completed his conquest of Anatolia. Croesus, the most powerful Greek king in Anatolia, had earlier funded the colossal temple of Artemis in the Ionian city of Ephesus in western Anatolia, which became one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World.

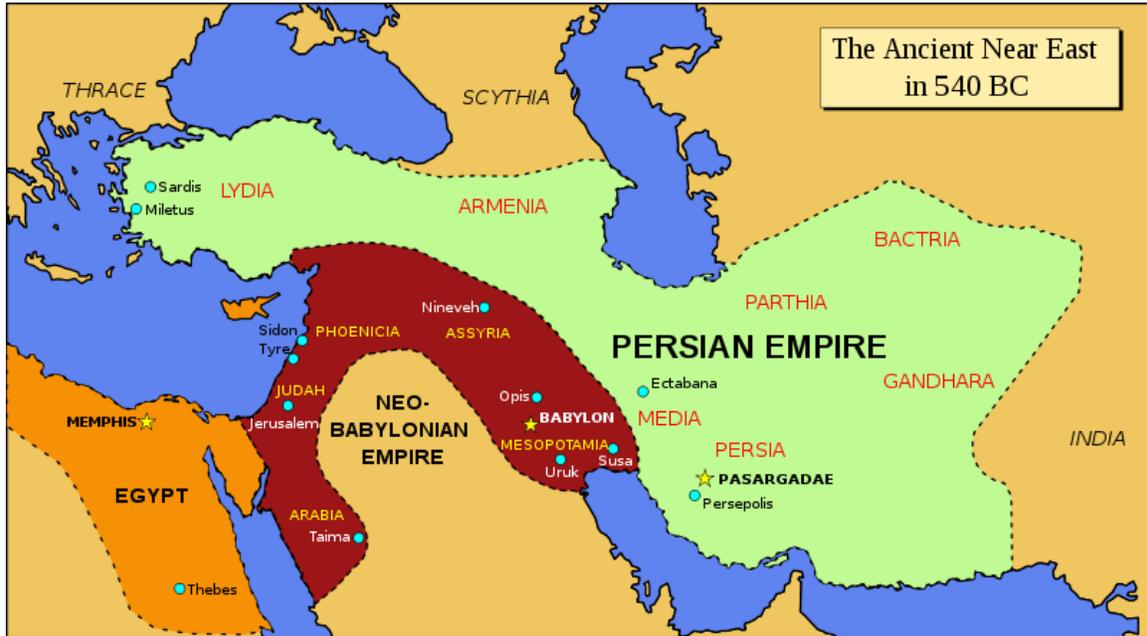


Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Temple\\_of\\_Artemis\\_Sardis\\_Turkey4.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Temple_of_Artemis_Sardis_Turkey4.jpg)>

*Site of the Temple of Artemis, Sardis –  
Capital of Kingdom of Lydia (700-546 BCE)*

**Persian and Seleucid Anatolia (547-130 BCE).** Cyrus the Great created the Achaemenid Persian Empire by uniting the Persians and Medes in 559, taking Anatolia in 546, and conquering Chaldean Babylon in 539. The Persians were benevolent despots. They encouraged free peasants to develop agricultural wealth, but their provincial governors (satraps) taxed heavily. In Anatolia, the

Persians placed their capital in Sardis and permitted local rulers to run the wealthy Greek ports.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ancient\\_near\\_east\\_540\\_bc.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ancient_near_east_540_bc.svg)

*The Achaemenid Persian Empire (Light Green)  
and Chaldean Babylonia (Dark Red), 540 BCE*

Nevertheless, in the Ionian Revolt of the early 5<sup>th</sup> century BCE the Greek cities rebelled against Persian rule. But the rebellion failed due to political disunity. After Athens and Sparta united to defeat Persia at Marathon (490) and Salamis and Platea (480-479), the Anatolian Greek cities aligned with Athens and became independent of Persian rule.



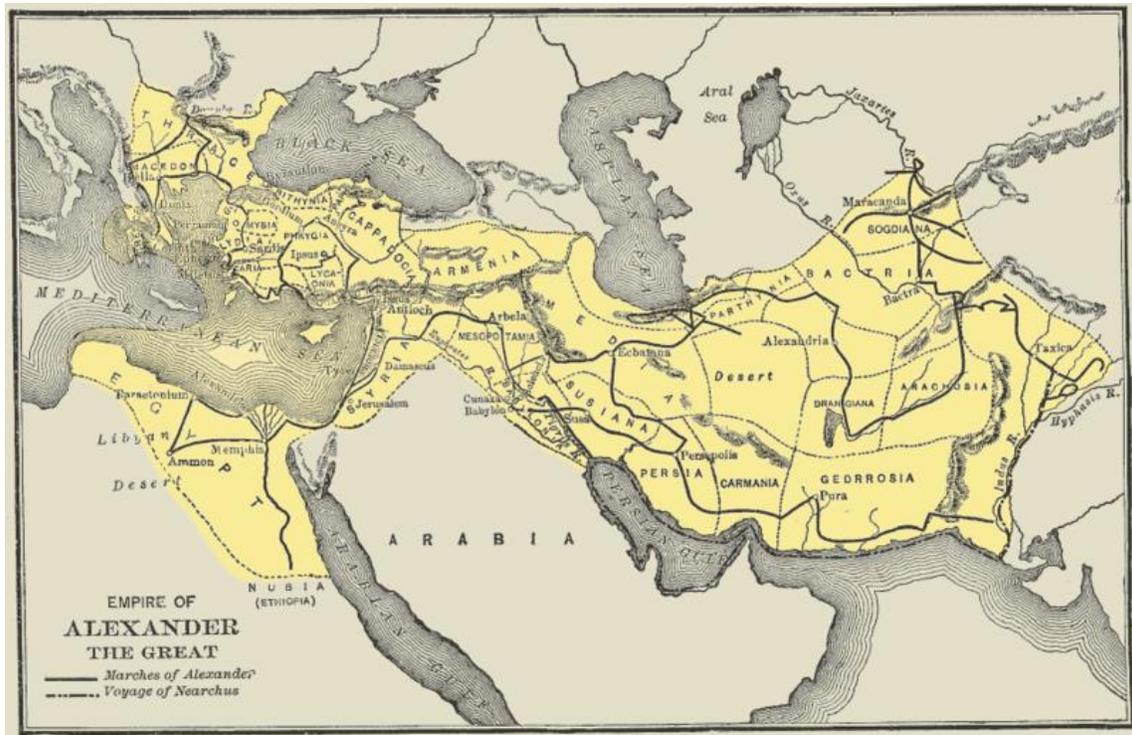
Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map\\_Greco-Persian\\_Wars-en.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map_Greco-Persian_Wars-en.svg)

### *The Boundary between the Achaemenid Persian Empire and the Greek City-States – Before the Battle of Marathon, 490 BCE*

In 334, Alexander the Great of Macedonia began his attack on the Persian Empire by winning the Battle of Granicus River in northwestern Anatolia (Marmara). He then swept through Anatolia, easily defeating pockets of Persian resistance. A year later, Darius III of Persia brought 250,000 Persian troops to

southeastern Anatolia (Cilicia) to stop Alexander's advance.

Despite having only 35,000 men, Alexander won the epic Battle of Issus with superior cavalry and strategy.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map-alexander-empire.png>>

*Alexander the Great's Empire –  
After Defeating Achaemenid Persia, 334-323 BCE*



*Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at*  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Alexander\\_the\\_Great,\\_from\\_Alexandria,\\_Egypt,\\_3rd\\_cent.\\_BCE,\\_Ny\\_Carlsberg\\_Glyptotek,\\_Copenhagen\\_\(5\)\\_36375553176.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Alexander_the_Great,_from_Alexandria,_Egypt,_3rd_cent._BCE,_Ny_Carlsberg_Glyptotek,_Copenhagen_(5)_36375553176.jpg)>

*Alexander the Great – Ny Carlsberg Glyptotek, Copenhagen*

After Alexander died (perhaps from malaria) in 323, his generals divided his conquests into three Hellenistic kingdoms – Macedonian (centered in Greece), Seleucid (Syria), and Ptolemaic (Egypt). Until 195 BCE, the Ptolemies controlled the coasts of western and southern Anatolia and the Seleucids governed the plateau. Thereafter, the Seleucids had most of Anatolia, including the three richest cities – the Greek ports of Miletus, Ephesus, and Smyrna – until the Roman Empire intervened in 130 BCE.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Diadochi.png?>

*The Hellenistic (Seleucid, Antigonid, and Ptolemaic) Kingdoms,  
2<sup>nd</sup> century BCE*



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ephesus\\_Great\\_Theatre.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ephesus_Great_Theatre.jpg)>

*Greek Theatre, Ephesus, Controlled by the Seleucid Kingdom –  
195-130 BCE*

## **Roman and Byzantine Anatolia (130 BCE-1300 CE)**

**Roman Conquest of Anatolia (130-15 BCE).** The Roman Empire first became involved in Anatolia in 190 BCE. The Kingdom of Pergamum in western Anatolia was fighting to maintain its independence from Seleucid control. King Eumenes II appealed to Rome for military assistance, and Rome helped

Pergamum crush the Seleucid King Antiochus at Magnesia. Thereafter, under Roman protection Pergamum expanded its territory and the city of Pergamum became the richest entrepôt in Anatolia. When the childless King Attalus III died in 133, he bequeathed Pergamum to the Roman Empire and it became the Roman Province of Asia in 130. Rome added the Province of Cilicia (in southeastern Anatolia) in 101.

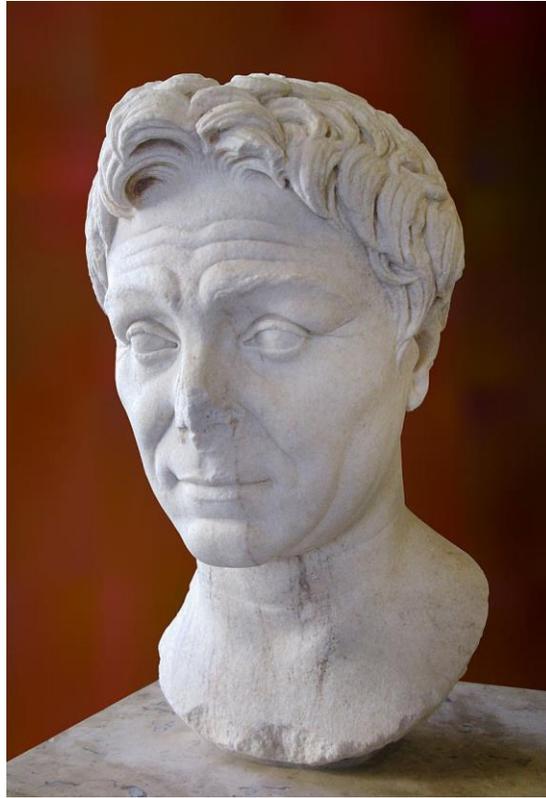


Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Acropolis - Bergama \(Pergamon\) - Turkey - 10 \(5747249729\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Acropolis_-_Bergama_(Pergamon)_-Turkey_-_10_(5747249729).jpg)>

*Acropolis, Pergamum – Hellenistic Kingdom Ruled by Rome as the Province of Asia after 130 BCE*

Mithridates Eupator (ruled 110-66), the King of Pontus (in northern Anatolia), expanded his kingdom to the Caucasus and Crimea, amassed an army of 250,000 men, and in 88 drove the Romans out of Anatolia and Greece. Rome defeated Mithridates in 85 and regained its territory, but allowed him to continue ruling in Pontus. Mithridates rebuilt his army, but Gnaeus Pompeius Magnus (Pompey the Great) finally ended the threat of the Pontic warrior at the Battle of Nicopolis in 66.

After disposing of Mithridates, Pompey subjugated the Kingdom of Armenia. In 64, he destroyed the Seleucid Kingdom and incorporated Syria as a Roman province and Judea as a Roman dependency. He then ruled the Roman Empire with Julius Caesar and Marcus Licinius Crassus between 62 and 50. Rome completed its conquest of Anatolia by claiming the Gallic Kingdom of Galatia (and its capital, Ankara) in 25 and Cappadocia in 15 BCE.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Pompey\\_the\\_Great.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Pompey_the_Great.jpg)>

*Marble Bust of Gnaeus Pompeius Magnus (Pompey the Great), Roman Conqueror of Anatolia, Armenia, and Syria – Louvre, Paris*

**Roman Rule of Anatolia (15 BCE-330 CE).** The backbone of Roman imperialism was a militaristic ethos. The expanding Roman state established military discipline by placing career citizen soldiers in its legions and paying them well. Military strength led to political stability.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Galea\\_\(helmet\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Galea_(helmet))>

*Militaristic Ethos in Roman Administration –  
Decorated Roman Officer's Helmet (Galea)*

The *Pax Romana* endured for most of the first two centuries CE.

Rome's territorial expansion created booty and tribute. Roman governments then maintained law and order and collected taxes.

The central bureaucracy was small, about one-twentieth that of contemporary Han China. The state did not directly control production or trade and built no state factories.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Roman\\_provinces\\_trajan.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Roman_provinces_trajan.svg)

*The Roman Empire At Its Peak, c. 110 CE –  
 Population About 60 Million*

Imperial Rome followed three different models in governing, developing, and taxing its new territories. In the eastern Mediterranean, including Anatolia, Rome sought to pacify the areas formerly ruled by Hellenes, preserve the Greek culture, rule indirectly through existing local governments, and tax enough to pay provincial expenses.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ephesus\\_Terrace\\_Houses.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ephesus_Terrace_Houses.jpg)>

*Rome Pacified the Greek East – Roman Terrace Houses With Mosaic Floors in Ephesus, Ionian Coast of Western Anatolia*

In Egypt, Rome preserved the Egyptian culture, ruled the province as an imperial reserve, and taxed Nile agriculture highly to transfer wheat and funds to Rome. In the western Mediterranean and North Africa, Rome's strategy was to settle Roman ex- soldiers, introduce Roman culture and direct Roman rule, invest in irrigation to expand agriculture, and tax agriculture heavily to provide food and revenues for Rome.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Trajan%27s\\_market\\_Rome\\_\(14106226797\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Trajan%27s_market_Rome_(14106226797).jpg)>

*Rome Developed and Taxed the West –  
Pont du Gard, Roman Aqueduct Near Nîmes, Provence, France*

In the mid-3<sup>rd</sup> century CE, the Roman Empire slid into crisis. Sassanid Persia briefly conquered Syria in 260. Two Germanic confederations, the Alemanni and the Goths, invaded across the Rhine and Danube frontiers. The western provinces seceded and formed a separate Gallic Empire. Queen Zenobia of Palmyra in Syria, an extraordinary leader, revolted against Roman rule, and in 270-271 she conquered Syria, Egypt, and half of Asia Minor (to Ankara). Between 268 and 283, however, three Balkan soldier-emperors recaptured Gaul and Syria and averted the collapse of the Roman Empire.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map\\_of\\_Ancient\\_Rome\\_271\\_AD.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map_of_Ancient_Rome_271_AD.svg)>

*Rome's Mid-3<sup>rd</sup>-century Crisis – Secession of the Gallic Empire (Green Area) and the Palmyrene Empire (Yellow Area), 271 CE*



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Queen\\_Zenobia\\_Addressng\\_Her\\_Soldiers\\_c1080.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Queen_Zenobia_Addressng_Her_Soldiers_c1080.jpg)>

*Queen Zenobia, Leading Her Troops – Painting by Giambattista Tiepolo, National Gallery of Art, Washington, D. C.*

## **Creation of the Byzantine Empire (4<sup>th</sup>-6<sup>th</sup> centuries CE).**

Diocletian in 284 instituted the Tetrarchy, simultaneous rule by four emperors. In 307, Constantine I (The Great) became a co-emperor, and in 324 he ended the Tetrarchy, re-instituted hereditary succession, and served as sole Roman Emperor until his death in 337.

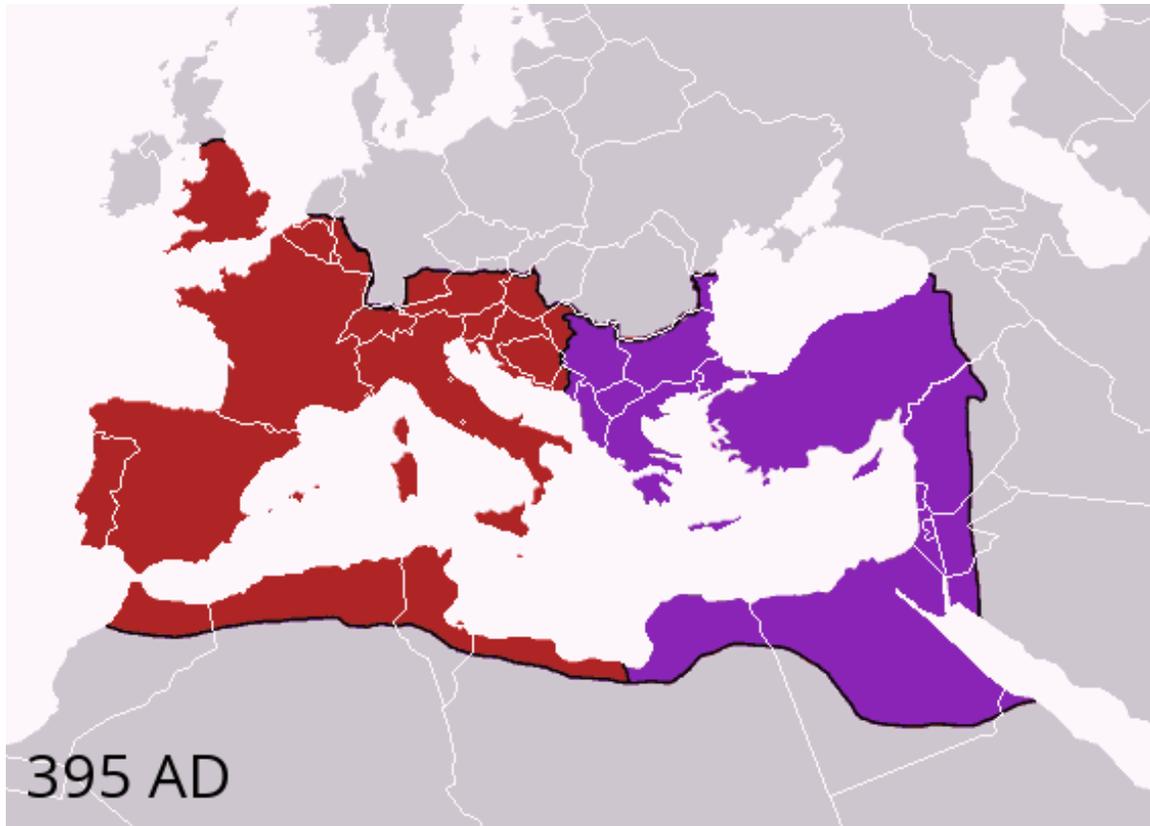


Source: *Wikimedia Commons*, available at  
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Rome-Capitole-StatueConstantin.jpg>>

*Roman Emperor Constantine the Great (Ruled 307-337),  
Founder of Constantinople – Capitoline Museum, Rome*

Although only about ten percent of his subjects were Christians, Constantine converted to Christianity and ended official persecution of Christians. Constantine later built an impregnable fortress in Constantinople (Byzantium) to control the Bosphorus straits and be closer to eastern trade routes and Rome's principal foe, Sasanid Persia. In 330, he transferred the capital of the Roman Empire to his new city.

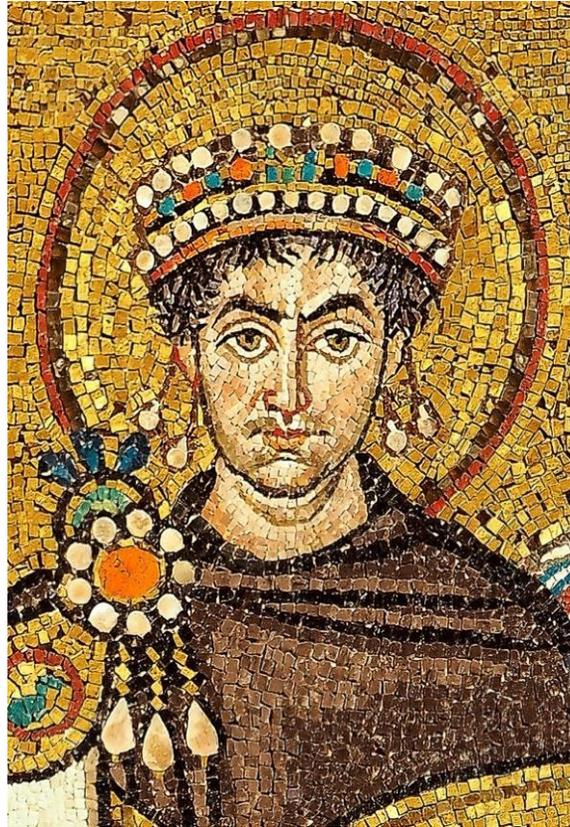
Theodosius (ruled 379-395) tried to improve imperial governance in 395 by dividing the empire permanently between Rome (the west) and Constantinople (the east). Anatolia then became a part of the Byzantine Empire, the Eastern Roman Empire.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Theodosius\\_I%27s\\_empire.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Theodosius_I%27s_empire.png)>

*The Roman Empire After Division by Theodosius I in 395 CE –  
Western Roman Empire (Red) and Byzantine Empire (Purple)*

After the Western Roman Empire, based in Rome, fell in 476, all Byzantine emperors hoped to reunite the former empire through conquest. Justinian I, who ruled Byzantium between 527 and 565, achieved that goal, but at a very high cost.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Mosaic\\_of\\_Justinianus\\_I\\_-\\_Basilica\\_San\\_Vitale\\_\(Ravenna\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Mosaic_of_Justinianus_I_-_Basilica_San_Vitale_(Ravenna).jpg)>

*Byzantine Emperor Justinian I (Ruled 527-565) – Contemporary Portrait Mosaic in the Basilica of San Vitale, Ravenna, Italy*

To protect his vulnerable eastern flank, Justinian secured peace with Sasanid Persia in 532 by promising a large annual tribute. He then dispatched his brilliant general, Belisarius, on a series of costly campaigns between 533 and 552 to conquer (and reconquer) North Africa (Carthage) from the Vandals and Sicily and Italy from the Goths.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
 <<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Justinian555AD.png>>

*The Byzantine Empire At Its Greatest Extent –  
 After Emperor Justinian’s Reconquest, 555*

Justinian was also an avid builder of fortresses, monuments, and churches, including St. Sophia and St. Eirene in Constantinople. He was a far-seeing promoter of the arts, Eastern trade, and silk production (using silkworms smuggled from China). But his warfare, tribute, and building projects drained the Byzantine economy, and his territorial gains were soon lost. Justinian looked west when he should have looked east.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Hagia\\_Sophia\\_Mars\\_2013.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Hagia_Sophia_Mars_2013.jpg)>*

*Hagia Sophia (St. Sophia), Constantinople (Now Istanbul) –  
The Largest Christian Church in the Byzantine Empire*

The costly wars to re-conquer the Mediterranean region ruined the Byzantine economy and led to the eventual loss of most conquered areas within a century. Byzantium's main trading relationships were with Persian and Turkic peoples to the east. But Byzantine emperors myopically looked westward, hoping to recreate the Roman Empire. After Justinian, that goal was thwarted militarily by Lombards in the west, Slavs in the north, and Arabs and Persians in the south and east.

**Sources of Byzantine Wealth.** Crop agriculture was the principal source of wealth for the government of Byzantium. Peasant farmers in the Byzantine Empire faced two concerns – feeding their families by diversifying their crop mix, and paying share rents to landowners and taxes to government. Their main crops – cereals (wheat, barley, millet), pulses (peas, lentils), and specialty crops (wine, olives, fruits) – originated in the Fertile Crescent.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Wheat\\_close-up.JPG](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Wheat_close-up.JPG)>

*Wheat (Triticum aestivum) – Food Staple in Anatolia Since  
Agriculture Began 10,500 Years Ago*

Most growth in agriculture arose from expansion of cropped area because technical change in farming was limited. The leading areas for grain exports were Thrace and Macedonia.

Livestock production was a secondary source of Byzantine wealth. Peasants kept animals for use in crop production – oxen for traction and donkeys for transportation. Large landowners on estates grazed horses and cattle extensively, using natural pastures. The state raised horses for the army's cavalry. Much of the extensive grazing of animals occurred on the Anatolian Plateau, which had low human population densities and good natural pastures. Herds had to be mobile to avoid predatory raids from nomadic peoples.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Byzantinischer Mosaizist des 5. Jahrhunderts\\_002.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Byzantinischer_Mosaizist_des_5._Jahrhunderts_002.jpg)>

*Byzantine Youth Feeding His Donkey –  
Mosaic, Great Palace of Constantinople, 5<sup>th</sup> century*

The Byzantine government also gained considerable wealth from foreign trade. It took advantage of the strategic location of Constantinople to tax the lucrative trade between the Aegean and Black Seas. Grain, meat, furs, and fish were exported from Russia and the Crimea while wine, olive oil, fruits, and luxury goods were imported into the Black Sea region. The government taxed those transshipments and Byzantine trade and monopolized commerce in

iron, silk, and arms. Foreign conquest was not an important source of wealth for Byzantium because the costs of Byzantine reconquests of Mediterranean regions exceeded the tribute or taxes collected.

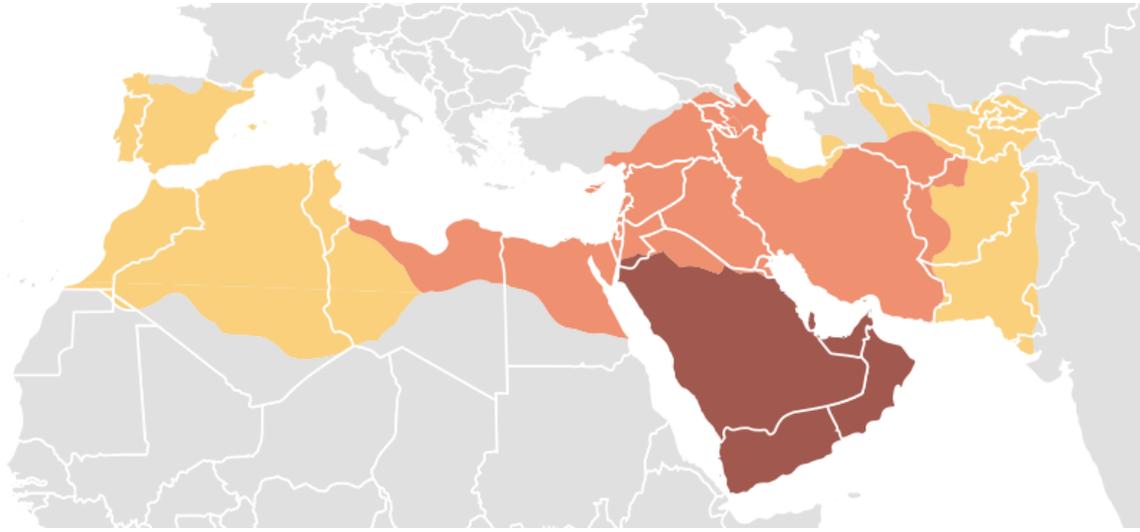


Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Morus\\_alba\\_-\\_Tehran.JPG](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Morus_alba_-_Tehran.JPG)>

*Mulberry Tree (Morus alba), Indigenous to North China,  
Is Fed To Silk Worms (Bombyx mori) –  
Both Introduced in the Byzantine Empire in the 6<sup>th</sup> century*

**Muslim Expansion and Christian Crusades.** Between the 7<sup>th</sup> and 13<sup>th</sup> centuries, the Byzantine Empire was gradually dismembered because of invasions by Muslim Arabs, European

Crusaders, and Seljuk Turks. The Arab Muslim diaspora began in 633, after the death of Muhammad, and within a century Islam spread to Spain in the west and India in the east.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map\\_of\\_expansion\\_of\\_Caliphate.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map_of_expansion_of_Caliphate.svg)

*The Muslim Arab Diaspora –  
622-632 (Dark Red), 632-661 (Light Red), 661-750 (Yellow)*

Byzantium was vulnerable to Arab invasion because of wars with Sasanian Persia, devastations from plague, and opposition in many provinces. The Arab invaders shrunk the Byzantine Empire by capturing Syria, Egypt, and North Africa. Arab invaders besieged Constantinople twice, in 674-679 and in 717-718, but the Byzantines won both series of battles. Muslim pressure against

Byzantium lessened in the mid-8<sup>th</sup> century when the Islamic caliphate shifted from Damascus to Baghdad.



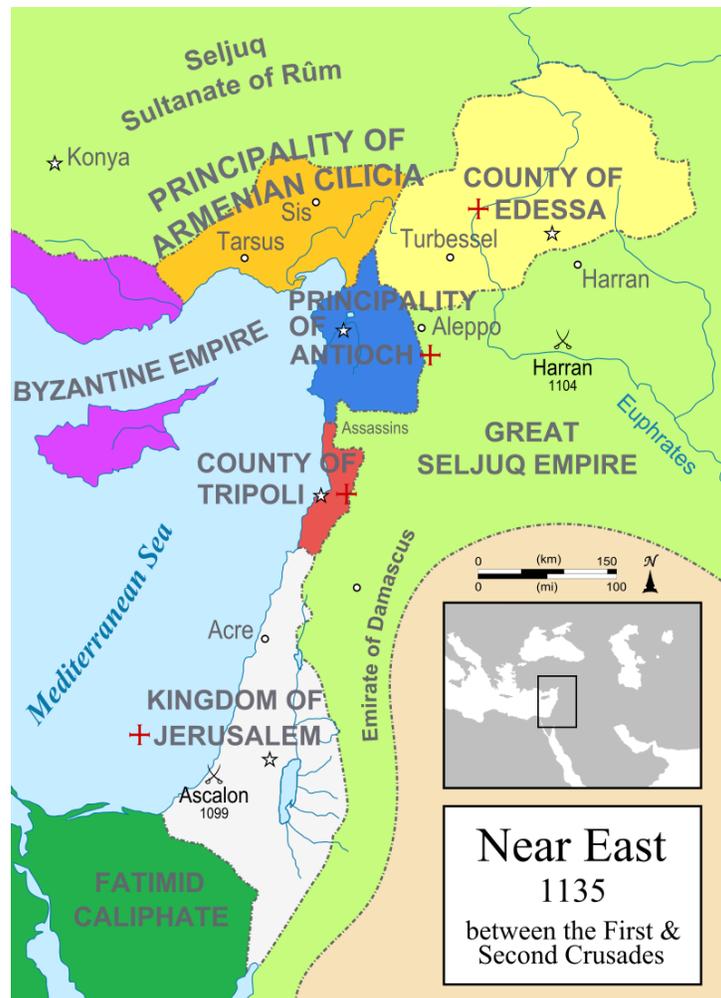
Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Abbasids850.png>>

*The Abbasid Caliphate At Its Peak , c. 850 – Arabs Retained Titular leadership, But Real Power Was Wielded by Non-Arabs*

For the next three centuries, the Byzantines usually controlled most of Anatolia, while the Muslims generally held Syria.

The Crusades, military expeditions by European Christians to control the Holy Land, were a disaster for Byzantium. En route to Jerusalem, the Crusaders ravaged crops, plundered villages, and

raped women in the Byzantine Empire. The First Crusade (1096-1099) was successful in capturing Jerusalem, but the Crusaders slaughtered the Muslim and Jewish residents of the Holy City.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map\\_Crusader\\_states\\_1135-en.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map_Crusader_states_1135-en.svg)

### *Crusader States in the Levant, 1135*

The Second Crusade (1147-1149) was a fiasco because Turkish armies annihilated the German Crusaders. The Third

Crusade (1190-1192) led to a small Crusader kingdom but it excluded Jerusalem. The Fourth Crusade (1202-1204) was an invasion of Constantinople to pay Venice for the fleet it had supplied to the Frankish Crusaders. The Franks and Venetians plundered the city, Venice claimed trading privileges along with ports and Crete, and the Byzantine Empire never recovered.



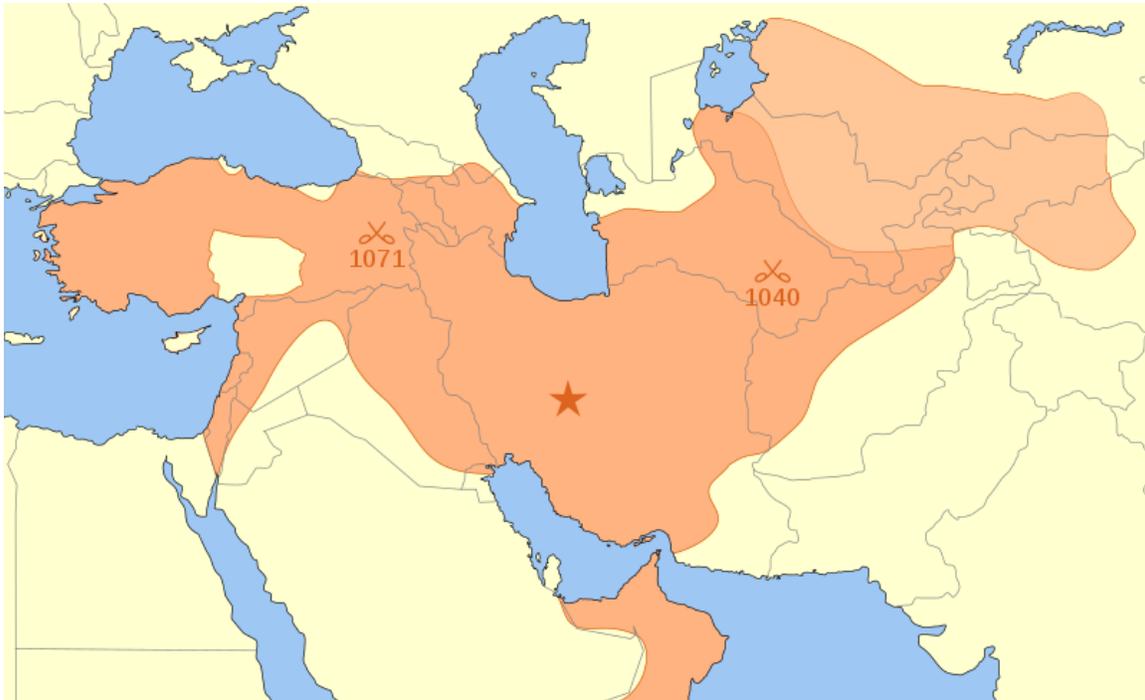
Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:PriseDeConstantinople1204PalmaLeJeune.JPG>  
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*Crusaders and Venetians Besieged Constantinople,  
Fourth Crusade, 1202-1204 –  
The Taking of Constantinople, By Palma Le Jeune*

**Seljuk Turkish Migrations and Byzantine Decline.** The migrations of Seljuk Turks into Anatolia in the 11<sup>th</sup>-13<sup>th</sup> centuries ultimately ensured the fall of the declining Byzantine Empire. The Seljuk Turks emigrated from their homeland in the Altai Mountains (in southern Siberia, eastern Kazakhstan, and western Mongolia) to Central Asia (Transoxiana) and converted to Islam in the 10<sup>th</sup> century. Their skill as horse-based warriors allowed the Seljuks to take control of the Abbasid Caliphate in Baghdad in 1055. The Seljuks' unrealized goal was to conquer Egypt and overthrow its heretical Fatimid (Shi'ite) rulers.

In 1064, Seljuk Sultan Alp Arslan invaded Anatolia, conquering Armenia and sacking Cappadocia. At the pivotal Battle of Manzikert in eastern Anatolia (1071), Alp Arslan annihilated the Byzantine army and captured the emperor, Romanus IV. In the peace settlement, the victorious Seljuks demanded only four eastern Byzantine cities and an annual tribute for the ransomed emperor. But the epic battle opened eastern

Anatolia to waves of Turkish migrations. The Seljuks set up the Sultanate of Rum in Anatolia in 1080. The territory and power of the Sultanate peaked under Alauddin Kaykubad (1219-1236).



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Seljuk\\_Empire\\_locator\\_map.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Seljuk_Empire_locator_map.svg)>

### *Seljuk Turkish Empire At Its Greatest Territorial Extent, 1092*

Invading Mongol warriors destroyed the Seljuk Sultanate in 1243. Hulegu, a grandson of Ghengis Khan, ended the Seljuk-run Abbasid Caliphate in Baghdad and created the Il-Khanate (1256-1335) to govern Persia and the Tigris- Euphrates region.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Hulagu\\_Khan.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Hulagu_Khan.jpg)>

*Hulegu Khan, Ghengis Khan's Grandson,  
After the Mongol Sack of Baghdad, 1258 –  
Painting By Rashid-al-Din Hamadani, early 14<sup>th</sup> century*

The Mongol incursions caused a second massive wave of Turkish migrations of refugees and soldiers into Anatolia.

By 1300, the Byzantine Empire was in severe decline. In Anatolia, the Byzantines controlled only Constantinople, a half-dozen major western cities, and a few Black Sea ports. The

remainder of Anatolia was inhabited by numerous Turkish tribes in small kingdoms, awaiting political re-organization.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Asia\\_in\\_1335.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Asia_in_1335.svg)

### *The Four Khanates of the Mongol Empire – Yuan Dynasty, Chagatai Khanate, Ilkhanate, and Golden Horde, 1335*

## **The Rise of the Ottoman Empire (1300-1600)**

**Ottoman Origins (14<sup>th</sup> century).** In 1300, the Ottoman *beylik* was one of several small Turkish Muslim kingdoms in Anatolia, nominally under the rule of a Seljuk sultan (in Konya) and a

Mongol Ilkhan (in Tabriz). Osman (ruled 1300-1326), a talented soldier and administrator, was the founding father of the Ottoman Empire. The keys to Ottoman success were the skilled use of *ghazi* warriors, seeking better pastures and fiefdoms, and religious tolerance for the Orthodox Christian Greek majority in western Anatolia.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ottoman\\_Sipahi,\\_Melchior\\_Lorch\\_\(1646\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ottoman_Sipahi,_Melchior_Lorch_(1646).jpg)  
>

*Ottoman Sipahi (Cavalry Warrior) –  
Woodcut Engraving By Melchior Lorch, 1646*

Sultan Orkhan (ruled 1326-1360) expanded the state that his father had founded. The Ottoman *beylik* abutted the shrunken Byzantine Empire. In the 1330s and 1340s, he conquered almost all of Byzantium, except Constantinople, and treated its Greek Orthodox residents well. In the 1350s, Orkhan expanded into Thrace, in nearby southeastern Europe, and resettled Anatolian Turks there. Orkhan thus created an Ottoman nation-state.

Sultan Murad I (ruled 1362-1389) built the Ottoman Empire in southeastern Europe through conquest and diplomacy. He established the first imperial province, Rumelia, and placed his capital at Edirne (in Thrace) in 1365. Murad next took advantage of rivalries among the Balkan fiefdoms to conquer Bulgaria, Macedonia, and Serbia and expand the Ottoman state into a Eurasian empire. In 1371, he forced Emperor John V Paleologos to pay tribute, making the Byzantine Empire a vassal state.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Murat\\_H%C3%BCdavidigar.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Murat_H%C3%BCdavidigar.jpg)>

*Sultan Murad I, 1362-1389 – Established the Important Ottoman Province of Rumelia in Southeastern Europe*

Murad defeated a Balkan coalition, led by Lazar of Serbia, at the Battle of Kosovo (on the “plain of the blackbirds”) in 1389 to cement Ottoman control. To help fight those battles, Murad recruited Balkan Christian warriors by guaranteeing their leaders tax exemptions and use of state lands.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:3\\_Murad\\_I\\_map.PNG](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:3_Murad_I_map.PNG)

*Early Ottoman Conquests, 1301-1389 –  
By 1361 (Dark Red), By 1389 (Red), Vassal States (Pink)*

Murad's son, Sultan Bayezid I (ruled 1389-1403), was called the Thunderbolt because of his unexpected pattern of conquest.

Bayezid routed an army of 100,000 Hungarian, French, German, and English Crusaders at the Battle of Nicopolis in 1396 to ensure Ottoman rule in southeastern Europe. He then went on to claim

much of central-eastern Anatolia and form the Ottoman province of Anatolia. At his death in 1403, the Ottoman Empire consisted of 267,000 square miles, two-thirds in Anatolia and one-third in Southeastern Europe.

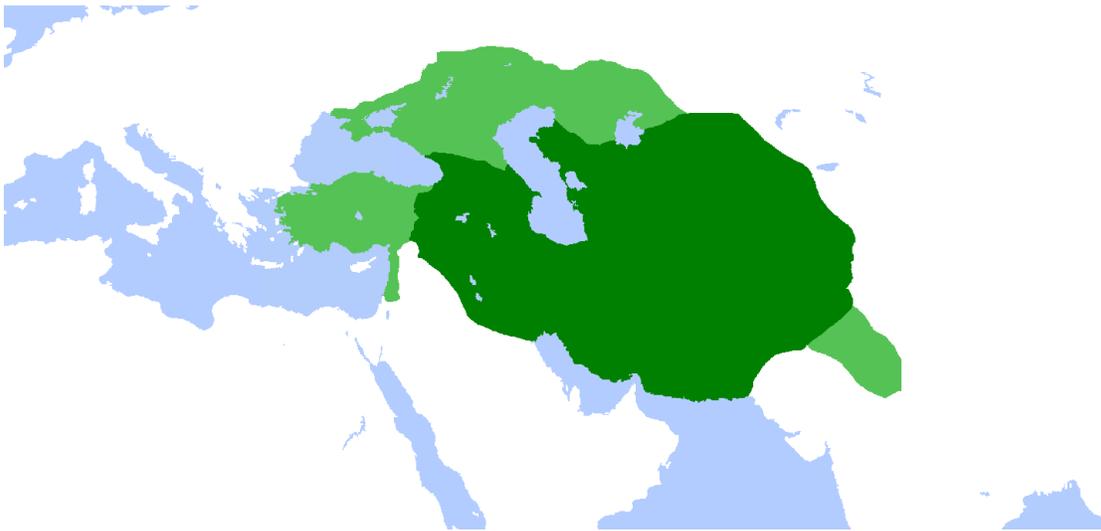
**Ottoman Expansion (15<sup>th</sup> century).** The fledgling Ottoman Empire nearly ended in the early 15<sup>th</sup> century. Bayezid had conquered large swaths of Anatolia but had failed to consolidate his control. Moreover, he taunted Timur of Samarkand, who had conquered much of Central Asia.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons available at*  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Timur\\_reconstruction03.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Timur_reconstruction03.jpg)>

*Sculpture of Timur, From Skull Found in His Grave –  
by M. M. Gerasimov*

Timur rose to Bayezid's challenge, destroyed the Turkish army at the Battle of Ankara in 1402, and captured and later killed Bayezid. Timur died in 1405, while planning an assault on China, and his empire quickly disintegrated.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
< [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Timurid\\_Empire\\_Map.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Timurid_Empire_Map.png) >

### *Timur's Empire – At His Death, 1405*

Sultan Murad II (ruled 1421-1451) then rebuilt the Ottoman state and expanded it by taking the key Macedonian port of Salonika from Venice in 1430. Murad's son, Sultan Mehmed II (The Conqueror, ruled 1451-1481), successfully besieged Constantinople in 1453, and its fall sounded the final death knell of

the Byzantine Empire. By then, Constantinople was a poor city of only 40,000 residents, and it had just 7,000 men to defend 14 miles of city walls. After a courageous defense, the city fell to Mehmed's 300,000 troops, who attacked by land and sea. No Christian European state aided the defense of Constantinople.

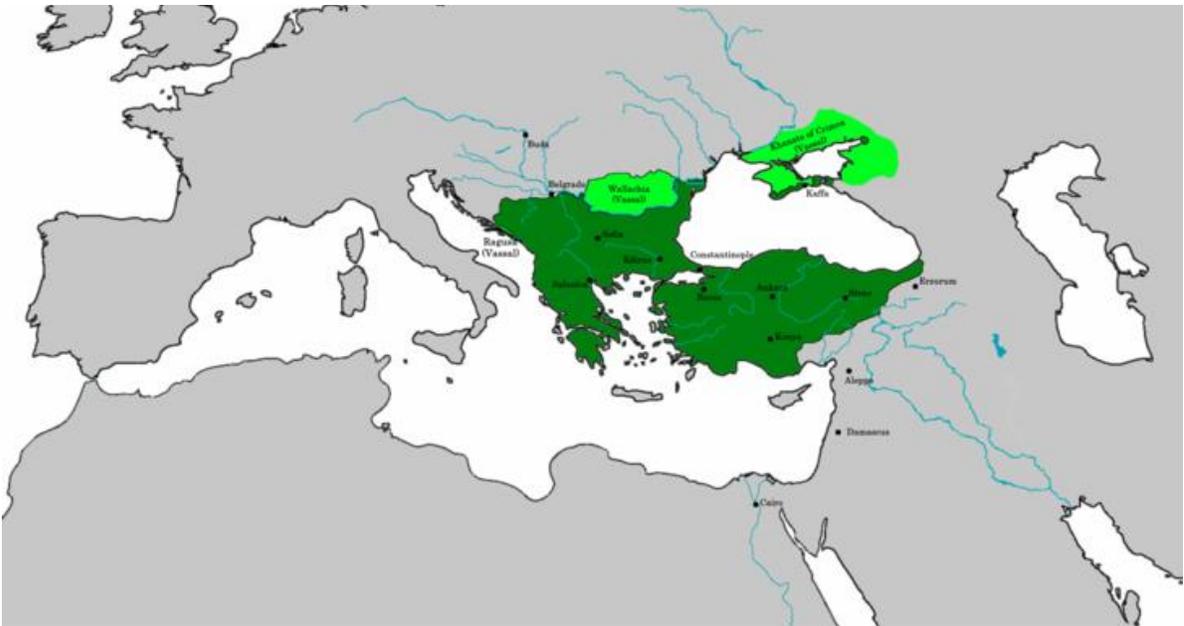


Source: *Wikimedia Commons*, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Walls\\_of\\_Constantinople.JPG](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Walls_of_Constantinople.JPG)>

*The Restored Land Walls of Istanbul –  
Re-built by Sultan Mehmed II, Late 15<sup>th</sup> century*

Mehmed styled himself as the Sovereign of Two Lands  
(Anatolia and Rumelia) and Two Seas (Mediterranean and Black).

He expanded Ottoman control in the Balkans in the 1460s by taking Serbia, Bosnia, Herzegovina, Albania, and Greece. In the 1470s, Mehmed ensured Ottoman control of the Black Sea region by conquering northern Anatolia (including the Byzantine state of Trebizond) and by subjugating the Crimean Tatars to vassalage.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:OttomanEmpire1481.png>>

*The Ottoman Empire in 1481 – Two Lands (Rumelia and Anatolia)  
and Two Seas (Black and Mediterranean)*

Mehmed's ruling strategy was to create a cosmopolitan empire. He rebuilt Istanbul (formerly Constantinople) as a new city of half a million multi-ethnic residents, only half of them

Turkish, with imperial control from the new Topkapi Palace.

Mehmed also was a devoted scholar, who spoke six languages (Turkish, Greek, Arabic, Latin, Persian, and Hebrew) fluently, had a deep interest in technology and astronomy, and was a patron of the humanities and arts. His invasion of southern Italy in 1480 ended unsuccessfully with his death in 1481.

**Ottoman Peak (16<sup>th</sup> century).** Selim I (The Grim, 1512-1520) was an efficient expansionist into Asia and Africa. He led the most powerful army in the region. In the Battle of Chaldiran, 1514, Selim bested Shah Ismail, the leader of Shi'ite Safavid Persia, and claimed Azerbaijan.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Battle\\_of\\_Chaldiran\\_\(1514\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Battle_of_Chaldiran_(1514).jpg)>

*Ottoman Turkish Cavalry, Defeating Ismail's Safavid Army, Battle of Chaldiran, 1514 – From Chehel Sotoun Palace, Isfahan, Iran*

Between 1516 and 1517, Selim incorporated Syria, Egypt, and Western Arabia into the Ottoman Empire, paving the way for further expansion across North Africa. Egypt and Syria were important for the Ottoman Empire because they provided critical tax revenues to the sultans in Istanbul. The Nile Valley and Delta of Egypt was the richest agricultural region of the empire and thus

a source of grain, cotton, flax, and tax revenues. Western Arabia included the Islamic holy cities of Mecca and Medina.

Subsequently, Ottoman sultans declared themselves to be caliphs – the leaders of all Muslim practitioners.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Yavuz\\_Sultan\\_I\\_Selim\\_Han.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Yavuz_Sultan_I_Selim_Han.jpg)

*Ottoman Sultan Selim I (The Grim, Ruled 1512-1520) – Conquered Syria (1516) and Egypt and Western Arabia (1517)*

Selim's son, Suleiman I (The Magnificent or The Legislator, 1520-1566) was the Ottoman Empire's greatest sultan. Born in

Trebizond on the Black Sea in 1494, Suleiman was a direct descendant of Genghis Khan. His mother, Hafsa Hatun, was the daughter of Mengli Giray, the khan of the Crimean Tartars, who was descended from Jochi, Genghis's oldest son. By the time he became sultan in 1520, Suleiman had already gained valuable administrative experience by spending ten years governing Ottoman provinces.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:EmperorSuleiman.jpg>>

*Suleiman I (The Magnificent or The Legislator, Ruled 1521-1566)  
– The Ottoman Empire's Greatest Sultan*

Following his father's conquest of Mecca and Medina, Suleiman was the first Ottoman leader to become the prestigious leader of all Sunni (orthodox) Muslims in the world – the Inheritor of the Great Caliphate and the Protector of the Sanctuary of the Two Revered Holy Cities.

During Suleiman's reign, the Ottoman Empire spread to control more of southeastern Europe (including Hungary), eastern Anatolia, and Mesopotamia (Iraq). Suleiman personally accompanied and led the Ottoman army in all of its expansionary campaigns. His army defeated Charles V, the Habsburg Emperor and King of Spain, in the critical Battle of Mohacs in 1526. With twice as many troops, Suleiman destroyed the Hungarian army of 30,000 by opening his ranks and then crushing the duped on-rushers. Hungary became an Ottoman vassal in 1543, and the Ottomans maintained control of Hungary for 150 years.



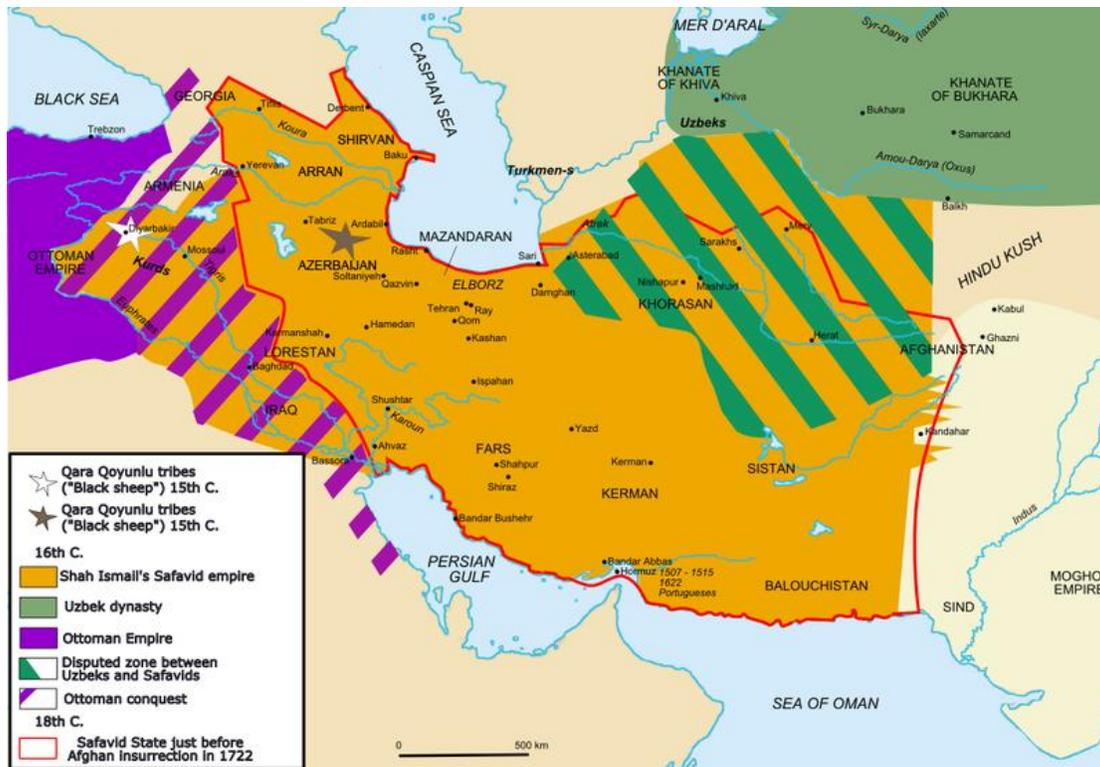
Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:1526-Suleiman\\_the\\_Magnificent\\_and\\_the\\_Battle\\_of\\_Mohacs-Hunername-large.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:1526-Suleiman_the_Magnificent_and_the_Battle_of_Mohacs-Hunername-large.jpg)>

*Suleiman Led Ottoman Troops to Victory in the Battle of Mohacs,  
1526 – Ottoman Miniature By Lokman, 1588*

In the Turco-French Treaty of 1536, Suleiman's Grand Vizier, Ibrahim Pasha, negotiated with Francis I of France a secret mutual defense pact against the Habsburgs,. Because the

Habsburgs controlled territories surrounding France (Spain and the Low Countries) as well as Austria, Francis needed its Ottoman ally in spite of their religious differences. Suleiman desired a strong France to divert Habsburg attention from Ottoman advances in southeastern Europe.

Suleiman personally led three campaigns against Safavid Persia, the Ottomans' arch-enemy on the eastern front, between 1534 and 1554, adding Mesopotamia, including Baghdad, to his empire. Suleiman held a personal grudge against Tahmasp, the Safavid Shah, who was attempting to spread his Shi'ite version of Islam into neighboring Ottoman regions and cause insurrections. In 1548-1549, Ahmed Pasha, the Second Vizier, and Suleiman led the Ottoman army to victory in eastern Anatolia, capturing 32 towns from the Safavids and incorporating the region into the Ottoman Empire. The Ottoman sultan hoped to inveigle his Safavid counterpart into a decisive final battle, but Tahmasp avoided that outcome and continued to rule Persia from Tabriz.

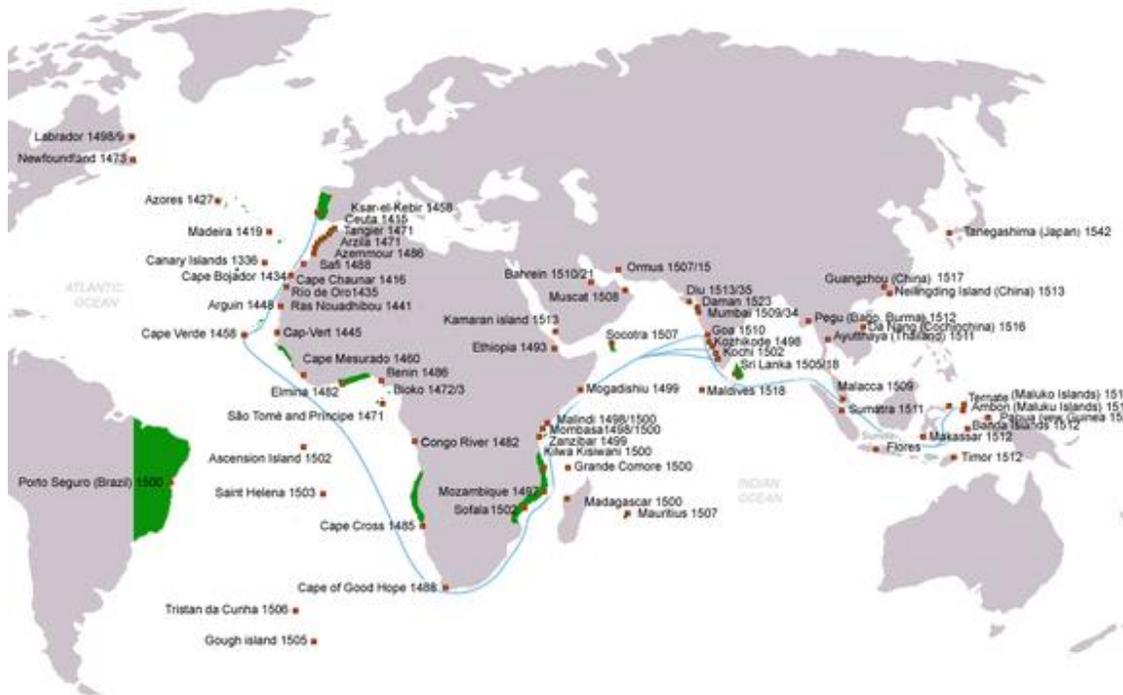


Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
 <[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map\\_Safavid\\_persia.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map_Safavid_persia.png)>

*The Safavid Persian Empire (1501-1722) –  
 Disputes with Ottomans (Purple) and Uzbeks (Green)*

Suleiman's interest in incorporating Mesopotamia into his empire also had a commercial rationale. His father, Selim I, had taken control of the trade routes through Egypt and the Red Sea in 1517. Suleiman wished to add ports on the Persian Gulf and control the trade routes through Mesopotamia in his new rivalry with Portugal to control trade on the Indian Ocean. By establishing their control over strategic ports, however, the

Portuguese successfully diverted most of the spice trade to their new route around southern Africa, avoiding the trade routes that the Ottomans controlled. By the end of Suleiman’s reign, the expansive Ottoman Empire had an estimated population of 15 million.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Portuguese\\_discoveries\\_and\\_explorationsV2\\_en.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Portuguese_discoveries_and_explorationsV2_en.png)

*Portuguese Trade Routes and Settlements – 16<sup>th</sup> century*

Suleiman The Legislator also oversaw a full codification of Sultanic and Quranic law, which clarified the rights, duties, and

codes of conduct for both Muslims and non-Muslims in the multicultural Ottoman Empire. During the first half of the 16<sup>th</sup> century, the empire had expanded widely. Suleiman and his jurists had to harmonize legislation, organize an administration, and collect taxes in widely differing cultural settings. They accomplished that immense task by drawing up separate law codes (*kanunnames*) for each Ottoman province (*sanjak*). The codes focused on fiscal arrangements (taxes and expenditures), individual property rights, and army regulations. Later on, those codes evolved continually, as precedents were established. Although historians from Europe typically refer to Suleiman as The Magnificent, those from Turkey generally honor him as The Lawgiver, because of his huge contributions to jurisprudence.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Modern.prayer.mat.jpg>>

*Islamic Prayer Rug, Depicting the Kaaba in Mecca*

Suleiman also was an enthusiastic patron of the arts and sciences, supporting at his court painters, poets, calligraphers, architects, theologians, jurists, historians, and scientists. He sponsored the leading Ottoman architect of the 16<sup>th</sup> century, Sinan, who designed the Suleimanye mosque in Istanbul and the Selimye mosque in Edirne. Suleiman also expanded the schools of higher learning (*medrese*), which taught languages (Turkish and Arabic), Islamic theology, Quranic law, philosophy, mathematics, and

astronomy. There were more than 100 *medrese* in Istanbul, and many more in smaller cities and towns. The *medrese* were the centers of intellectual life in the Ottoman Empire, providing a function similar to that of universities to 16<sup>th</sup>-century Europe.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at*  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:S%C3%BCleymaniye\\_Mosque\\_exterior\\_vie\\_w.JPG/](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:S%C3%BCleymaniye_Mosque_exterior_vie_w.JPG/)>

*Suleymaniye Mosque, Istanbul, Completed in 1557 –  
Designed by Suleiman’s Chief Architect, Mimar Sinan*

Not everything that Suleiman did was magnificent. He apparently was heavily influenced by his wife, Roxelane (Hurrem

Sultan). Following a fire in the Old Seraglio (palace), she convinced Suleiman to move the harem to Topkapi Palace and make it easier for her (and other courtiers) to interfere in Ottoman politics. With an earlier wife, Suleiman had a son, Mustafa, who was highly regarded within the court and army and was expected to become Suleiman's successor as sultan.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Tizian\\_123.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Tizian_123.jpg)>

*Roxelane (Hurrem Sultan), Conspiring Wife of Suleiman I –  
Portrait By Titian, Titled La Sultana Rossa, c. 1550*

Roxelane wanted one of her sons to be the heir and next ruler. The new Grand Vizier, Rustem Pasha, was her ally. In

1553, they convinced Suleiman that Mustafa was plotting against him. Suleiman ordered the arrest and executions of Mustafa and of his son, Murad, paving the way for Selim II, the son of Suleiman and Roxelane, to become heir apparent and the next sultan.

Suleiman's son, Selim II (The Sot, 1566-1574), was a weak leader and an enthusiast of wines, especially those from Cyprus. He was never the leader that Mustafa, his executed half-brother, might have been.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Sultan\\_Selim\\_II.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Sultan_Selim_II.jpg)>

*Sultan Selim II (The Sot, Ruled 1566-1574) –  
Admirer of Cypriot Wine*

In 1570-1571, Selim II invaded Cyprus, then owned by Venice, and precipitated the formation of a Holy League of Christian European states. Cyprus fell before the League's navy arrived. But the two navies met at the Battle of Lepanto (1571) in Greece's Gulf of Corinth. With 487 ships in battle, Lepanto was the largest sea battle ever waged on the Mediterranean. The Ottomans lost 200 ships and suffered their first major defeat. They rapidly rebuilt their naval strength to 250 ships by 1573, but both sides soon abandoned the costly sea battle to control the Mediterranean. Despite Lepanto, the Ottomans ended the 16<sup>th</sup> century with the strongest navy in the Mediterranean.

**Sources of Wealth – Agriculture.** Food agriculture was the primary source of wealth in the Ottoman Empire. During the Ottoman era, agriculture continued to be practiced much as it had been under the Roman and Byzantine Empires. The major crops were cereals (wheat and barley), olives, and grapes, and the principal animal products and services came from raising cattle,

horses, and sheep. The key agricultural regions in the Ottoman Empire were those that supported the largest rural populations – the Balkans, Hungary, the Anatolian valleys, and the Nile Valley of Egypt.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Oliven\\_V1.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Oliven_V1.jpg)>

*Olive Oil –  
Major Export from Turkey, Five Centuries Ago and Today*

Farm structure in the Ottoman heartland (Anatolia and the Balkans) was small (12-40 acres), reflecting the state-sponsored feudal organization. The state owned the land (*miri*). The

government allocated the land to peasant (*raya*) households who farmed it and received rights of perpetual tenancy (which passed through the male line). The government allocated rights to collect certain taxes (*timars*) to military officers (*sipahis*) who retained a portion of the tax revenues in return for their military service. The profit per acre farmed did not change much because there was little new agricultural technology.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Battle\\_of\\_Vienna.Sipahis.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Battle_of_Vienna.Sipahis.jpg)>

*Ottoman Light Cavalrymen (Sipahis) Collected Taxes (Timars)*

To broaden the tax base, the government had to expand farmed area through resettlement or reclamation schemes. Survey registers indicate that both land under production and tax revenue peaked in the 16<sup>th</sup> century when the government was aggressively expanding farmed area. Farmers paid taxes equal to 10 percent of the expected value of farm output. The tax liability was calculated from cadastral surveys that registered crops, cropped area, and yields and from averages of recent regional prices. Farmers could earn tax exemptions if they farmed reclaimed land or if they gave gifts to tax-free Islamic foundations (*vakifs*). Charitable foundations controlled nearly one-third of the land in the Ottoman Empire and supported public architecture, mosques, hospitals, and mausoleums.

**Sources of Wealth – Foreign Trade.** The earnings from foreign trade provided an important supplementary source of wealth for the Ottoman Empire. Its principal exports were cloth – silk from Bursa, cotton from Anatolia, and mohair from Ankara –

carpets, furs, and bees' wax. The Ottomans imported grain and meat (from Russia), fine woolen cloth (Florence), raw silk (Iran), metals (Europe), and slaves (both Caucasians and Africans).

Although a few of the merchants were Turkish, most were Greeks and Jews, notably Marrano Jewish immigrants (exiles from Catholic Spain and Portugal).

Ottoman trade was centered in three cities in northwestern Anatolia – Bursa (14<sup>th</sup>-16<sup>th</sup> centuries), Istanbul (16<sup>th</sup>-19<sup>th</sup> centuries), and Izmir (Smyrna, 17<sup>th</sup>-19<sup>th</sup> centuries). Those three cities specialized in transit trade, transshipping goods made elsewhere along with products of the empire. Bursa and Izmir were the Ottoman entrepôts on the lucrative Asia-Europe trade routes in which Indian spices (especially pepper) and Iranian raw silk were exchanged for European fine woolen cloth. Istanbul was the nexus of the critical Black Sea trading system in which Russian and Danubian grain, meat, and furs moved south and Turkish silk, cotton, and woolen cloth moved north.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:UluCami,Bursa\\_-\\_panoramio.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:UluCami,Bursa_-_panoramio.jpg)>

*Grand Mosque (Ulu Cami), Bursa –  
First Ottoman Capital and Later Silk Production Center*

Ottoman government intervention in trade was limited, except for state monopolies on salt, soap, candle wax, and armaments. The government imposed trade taxes at a rate usually of 20 percent on both imports and exports and either auctioned the taxing rights to consortia of financiers (tax farmers) or appointed government tax collectors (*emins*). Through capitulation treaties with France (1534), England (1580), and the Netherlands (1612), the Ottoman government negotiated mutual trading privileges and extraterritoriality rights.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Islamic\\_Gunpowder\\_Empires.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Islamic_Gunpowder_Empires.jpg)

*The Ottoman (Red), Safavid (Purple), and Mughal (Orange) Empires, c. 1700*

**Sources of Wealth – Foreign Conquest.** Foreign conquest was a major source of Ottoman wealth. The Empire began with a military ethos – conquest in an Islamic jihad created Sultanic pride and personal prestige for warriors. But the main imperial motive was financial gain by collecting booty, tribute, or taxes. Between the 14<sup>th</sup> and 16<sup>th</sup> centuries, the Ottoman Empire had better discipline, training, military intelligence, and field mobility than its foes did.

The standing infantry consisted of *janisaries* – well-schooled products of a tribute system in which Christian families in the Balkans provided boys for training and conversion to Islam. The *janisaries* also manned the sultan’s elite, personal bodyguard. The light cavalry consisted of *sipahis* – Turkish Muslims who often received feudal *timar* grants to collect land taxes as their pay. The Turkish artillery had cutting-edge heavy cannons. Attacks in the field were led by masses of irregulars who played the unenviable role of cannon fodder.

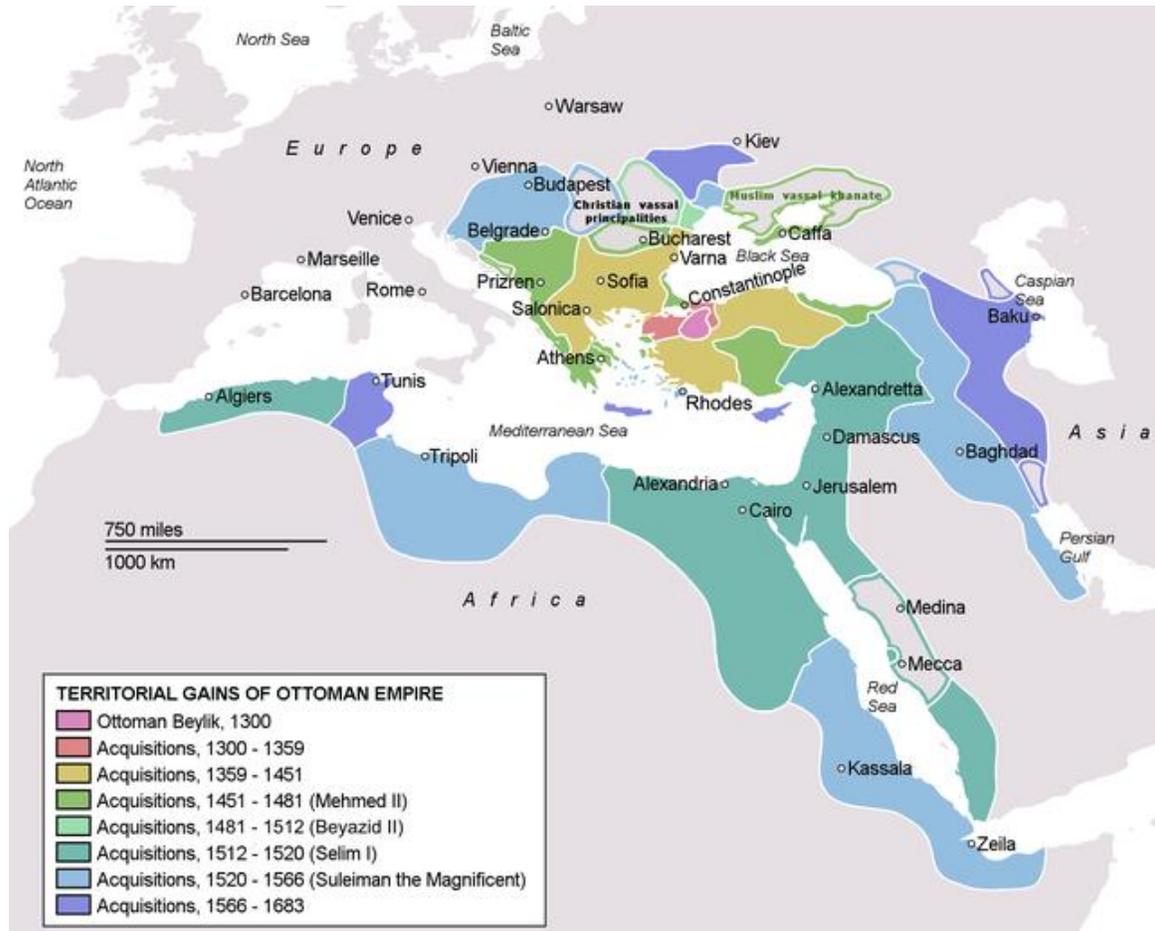


*Source: Wikimedia Commons available at*  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ottoman\\_armour\\_1480-1500.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ottoman_armour_1480-1500.jpg)>

*The Armor of a Sipahi, Turkish Light Cavalryman, c. 1500*

Ottoman conquest occurred in two phases – of the heartland (Southeastern Europe and Anatolia) in the 14<sup>th</sup> and 15<sup>th</sup> centuries, and of Syria, Egypt, Arabia, North Africa, and Mesopotamia in the 16<sup>th</sup> century. The Ottomans could not conquer Austria and Persia because their lines of supply and communication were

overextended while fighting in regions over 700 miles distant from Istanbul.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at <https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:OttomanEmpireIn1683.png>

### *Expansion of the Ottoman Empire, 1300-1683*

The pragmatic Ottoman rulers employed different modes of governance and taxation in their two areas of conquest. In the heartland, they settled Turks, organized ethnic *millet*s (self-

governing units), assimilated diverse cultures, and taxed heavily. But in Asia and Africa, they sought to pacify existing Islamic cultures, rule indirectly (using Ottoman governors and local administrations), and effect only moderate tax transfers to Istanbul. That complex system of control began to unravel during the end of the 16<sup>th</sup> century when the Empire experienced poor leadership.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ottoman\\_Mamluk\\_horseman\\_circa\\_1550.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ottoman_Mamluk_horseman_circa_1550.jpg)

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*Ottoman Mamluk Horseman, c. 1550 – Mamluk Officers  
Controlled the Military and Bureaucracy in Ottoman Egypt*

## The Decline of the Ottoman Empire (1600-1920)

**Ottoman Hubris (17<sup>th</sup> century).** The Ottomans and the Austrians fought an exhausting Thirteen-Year War (1593-1606) that ended in a stalemate.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:The Battle of Lepanto by Paolo Veronese.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:The_Battle_of_Lepanto_by_Paolo_Veronese.jpg)>

*Battle of Lepanto, 1571, The Holy League  
of Christian European States Defeated the Ottoman Empire –  
Painting By Paolo Veronese, 1571*

During the next six decades, the two archenemies contested intermittent wars in which the Ottomans were supported by King Louis XIV of France who was expanding into Habsburg territory in Western Europe. In the second half of the century, Ottoman organization revived under the leadership of the Koprulu family from Albania, who formed a dynasty of Grand Viziers that provided brutal but effective guidance. The Koprulus suppressed revolts by the *sipahis* and by Anatolian dissidents, killing 50,000 opponents, and balanced the government budget by reviving tax collection and limiting expenditures. With the Koprulus wielding full power, the Empire fought successful wars to take Crete from Venice in 1669 and claim Ukrainian Podolia from Poland in 1676. Those successes sparked Ottoman hubris.

In 1683, 300,000 Ottoman troops encamped outside Vienna to lay siege to its fortress. But a coalition of German and Polish armies routed the Ottomans, and in a critical battle, the Turks lost 10,000 men, fled in disarray, and abandoned 100,000 oxen and

enough coffee to supply Vienna's first coffeehouse. The Battle of Vienna was the Ottoman Empire's first loss of territory to Christian foes.

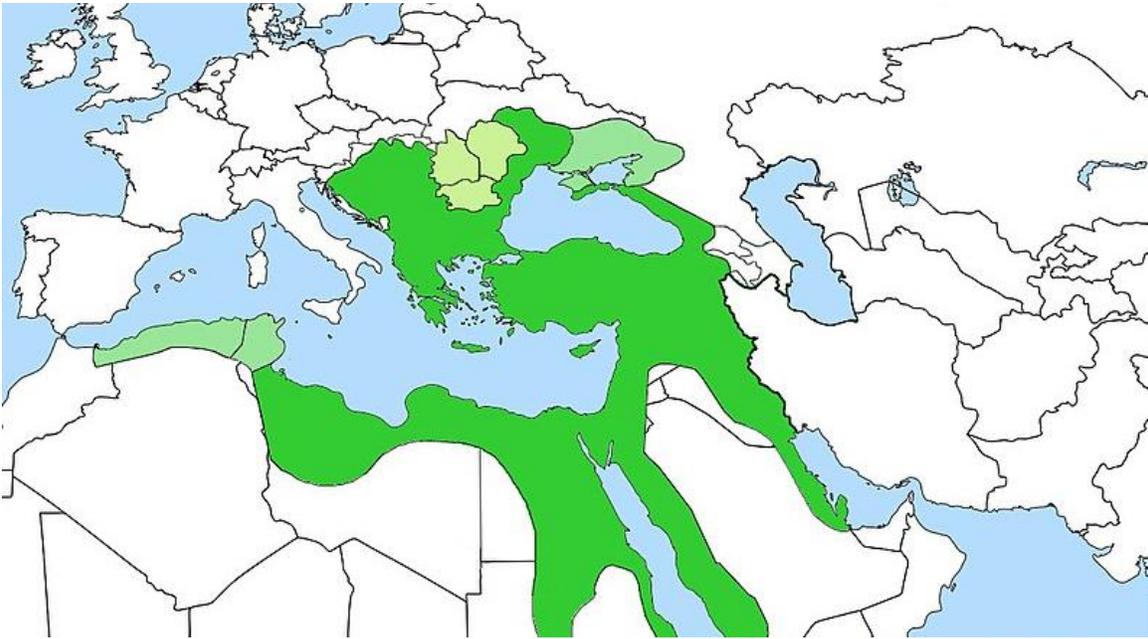


Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Battle\\_of\\_Vienna\\_1683\\_11.PNG](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Battle_of_Vienna_1683_11.PNG)>

*Ottoman Army Losing the Battle of Vienna, 1683 – Ottoman Military Strategy Remained Unchanged Until the 19<sup>th</sup> century*

The Pope then engineered a Holy League (Austria, Poland, and Venice) that, along with Russia, administered a series of humiliating defeats on the Ottomans. In the Treaty of Karlowitz, 1699, Austria re-took Hungary and Transylvania, Poland regained

Podolia, Venice re-claimed much of Greece and parts of Dalmatia, and Russia got the Sea of Azov area on the Black Sea. Thereafter, the Ottoman Empire was on the defensive.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Territorial\\_changes\\_of\\_the\\_Ottoman\\_Empire\\_1683.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Territorial_changes_of_the_Ottoman_Empire_1683.jpg)>

*Shrinkage of the Ottoman Empire, After the Treaty of Karlowitz (1699) – Hungary, Transylvania, and Podolia (Light Green Areas)*

**Ottoman Decline (18<sup>th</sup> century).** The 18<sup>th</sup> century began well for the Ottoman Empire. The Ottomans decisively defeated Peter the Great of Russia at the Battle of Prut, 1709, regained the Azov region, and turned Peter's attention toward the Baltic.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Jean-Marc\\_Nattier,\\_Pierre\\_Ier\\_\(1717\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Jean-Marc_Nattier,_Pierre_Ier_(1717).jpg)>

*Tsar Peter the Great, Defeated by the Ottomans at the Battle of Prut, 1709 – Portrait By Jean-Marc Nattier, 1717*

In 1718, the Ottomans ended Venice's long run as an imperial power in the eastern Mediterranean and re-claimed the parts of Greece and Dalmatia that they had lost two decades earlier. Then weak leadership was reflected in a series of military setbacks, and the Ottoman Empire grew increasingly dependent on foreign desires to keep it alive.

In the Treaty of Belgrade, 1739, the Ottomans recouped earlier territorial losses only because powerful France intervened on their behalf and mediated favorable terms. Austria was forced to cede back to the Ottoman Empire the territorial gains in Serbia, Bosnia, and Wallachia that it had received in the Treaty of Passarowitz in 1718. Russia reluctantly gave back key parts of the Crimea and Moldavia, although it was permitted to regain the Azov area and have access to the Black Sea.

In 1790, after the French Revolution, England, Prussia, and Holland formed a triple alliance to prop up the Ottoman Empire and preserve its territorial integrity. Despite Ottoman losses in battles, in the Treaty of Sistova, 1790, Austria agreed to restore all of its conquests to the pre-war status. Similarly, in the Treaty of Jassy, 1791, Catherine the Great of Russia set her border with the Ottoman Empire at the Dniester River, ceding conquests west of it but retaining control of the north coast of the Black Sea.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Catherine\\_II\\_by\\_J.B.Lampi\\_\(1780s,\\_Kunsthistorisches\\_Museum\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Catherine_II_by_J.B.Lampi_(1780s,_Kunsthistorisches_Museum).jpg)>

*Empress Catherine the Great, Russian Expansionist –  
Gained Territory on the Black Sea from the Ottoman Empire*

Sultan Selim III (1793-1808) introduced The New Order of reforms that stressed more military training and less power for the *ulemas*. The reforms failed because they did not change state institutions. Selim was overthrown and executed. The population of the declining Ottoman Empire in 1800 was 26 million.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Joseph\\_Warnia-Zarzecki -  
Sultan Selim III - Google Art Project.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Joseph_Warnia-Zarzecki_-_Sultan_Selim_III_-_Google_Art_Project.jpg)>

*Sultan Selim III (1789-1807) –  
Posthumous Portrait By Joseph Warnia-Zarzecki, 1850*

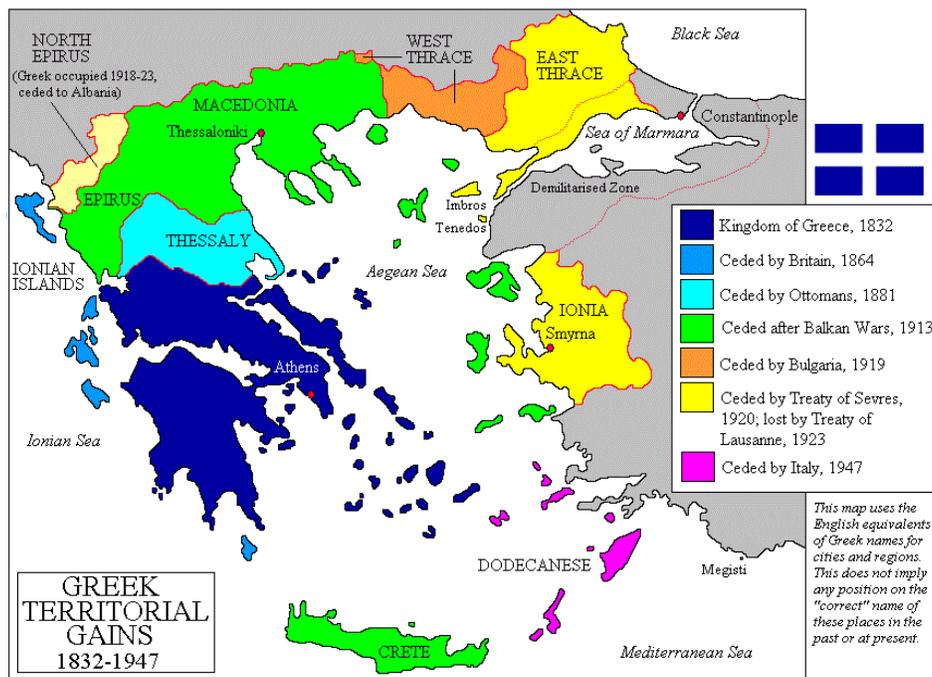
### **Ottoman Dismemberment (19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> centuries).**

In the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the Ottomans introduced broad political, social, and economic reforms known as the Tanzimat (reorganization).

Sultan Mahmud II (1808-1839) paved the way for institutional reform in 1826 by destroying the Janissary corps and neutralizing the urban guilds. The Rose Garden Decree (1839), the reformist charter, promised equal rights to all citizens and fair public trials,

and it abolished tax farming and the *timar* system. But rural opposition and the autocratic policies of Sultan Abdul Hamid (1876-1909) undercut the reforms and ended the Tanzimat era.

The dismemberment of the Empire in Europe began in 1830 with the independence of Greece. Greek rebels had started their fight for independence in 1822, and they were aided by Russia's invasion of eastern Anatolia and Thrace in 1829.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Territorial\\_Expansion\\_of\\_Greece\\_from\\_1832%E2%80%931947.gif](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Territorial_Expansion_of_Greece_from_1832%E2%80%931947.gif)

*Independent Kingdom of Greece (Dark Blue Area) –  
 Following the Treaty of Constantinople (1832)*

Britain and France joined the Ottomans to defeat Russia in the Crimean War (1853-1856). Ottoman armies, led by British officers, did most of the fighting. The Treaty of Paris (1856) called for open navigation of the Danube and the Black Sea and for all Christian nations to preserve the territorial integrity of the Ottoman Empire.

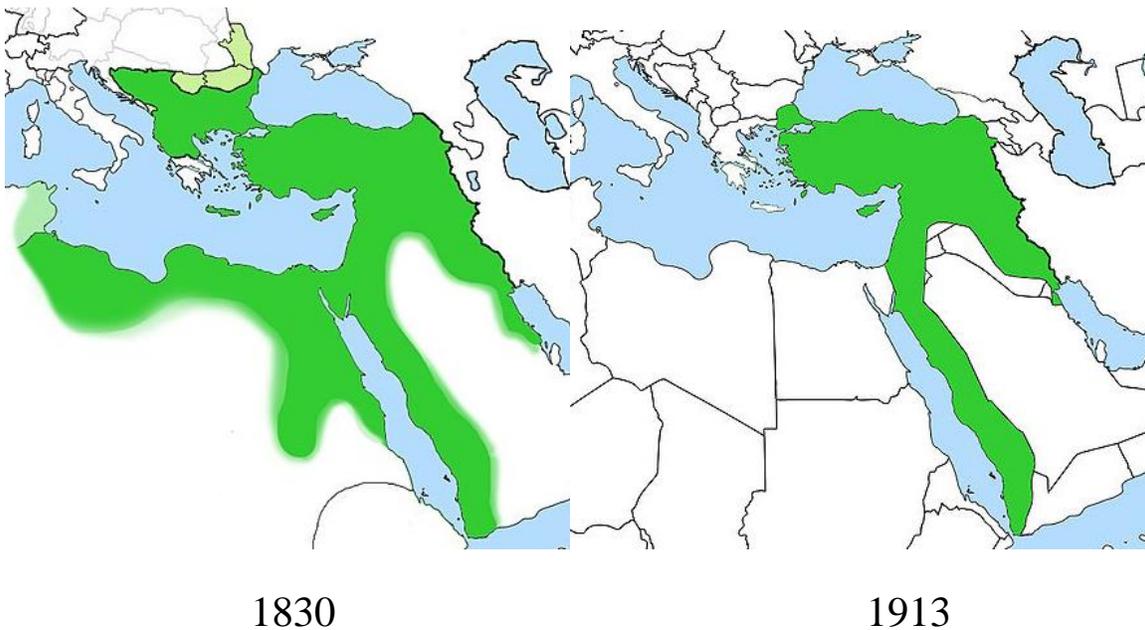


Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:%27One\\_of\\_the\\_wards\\_in\\_the\\_hospital\\_at\\_Scutari%27.Wellcome\\_M0007724\\_-\\_restoration,\\_cropped.jpg](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:%27One_of_the_wards_in_the_hospital_at_Scutari%27.Wellcome_M0007724_-_restoration,_cropped.jpg)

*The Ottoman Empire Gained a Reprieve,  
When Russia Lost the Crimean War, 1853-1856 –  
Florence Nightingale Nursed in the Selimye Barracks, Istanbul*

But dismemberment accelerated. The largest loss of Ottoman territory in Europe was sanctioned by the Treaty of Berlin (1878) –

Serbia, Romania, and Montenegro became independent, Bosnia-Herzegovina went to Austria-Hungary, Cyprus to Britain, and eastern Anatolia to Russia. Bulgaria received its independence in 1913, following the Balkan Wars.



Sources: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Territorial\\_changes\\_of\\_the\\_Ottoman\\_Empire\\_1830.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Territorial_changes_of_the_Ottoman_Empire_1830.jpg)> and  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Territorial\\_changes\\_of\\_the\\_Ottoman\\_Empire\\_1913b.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Territorial_changes_of_the_Ottoman_Empire_1913b.jpg)>

### *The Declining Ottoman Empire in 1830 and in 1913*

The Young Turk movement began as a rebellion of army officers in 1908, transformed into a political party in 1909, and took over the government in a coup in 1913. The Young Turks

(officially the Committee of Union and Progress) introduced significant reforms, anticipating later changes. But they also were responsible for the tragic massacre of at least one million Armenians in 1915-1916, ostensibly because of their support of Russia in World War I.

**Succession Crises and Military Conservatism.** After peaking in the 16<sup>th</sup> century, the Ottoman Empire experienced three centuries of declining power. Succession crises and military conservatism were key causes of Ottoman decline. The system of sultanic succession changed in the 17<sup>th</sup> century, creating political instability. The first ten sultans practiced fratricide to ensure the succession of their eldest sons, and their average reign was 27 years. Thereafter, starting in 1603, competing heirs to the throne were kept alive and placed in seclusion in the harem. Brutal succession disputes ensued. Seventeen of the 26 Ottoman sultans, who ruled after 1603, were deposed.

Military conservatism, an inability to adopt new technologies and strategies, was a key cause of Ottoman decline. The mode of warfare in Europe changed in the 17<sup>th</sup> century, when Austria and Russia adopted the French use of massive infantry and mobile field artillery, which required a strong bureaucracy and tax base. But the Ottomans continued to rely on *janissary* infantry, *sipahi* cavalry, and foraging in the field for military supplies.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Pauwel\\_Casteels\\_-\\_Battle\\_of\\_Vienna\\_-\\_Google\\_Art\\_Project.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Pauwel_Casteels_-_Battle_of_Vienna_-_Google_Art_Project.jpg)>

*Janissary Infantry and Sipahi Cavalry in the Siege of Vienna, 1683  
– The Ottomans Continued To Use Old-style Military Techniques*

Moreover, the Koprulu reforms in the 17<sup>th</sup> century created lifetime tax farms for *janissary* elites who became provincial warlords, threatening central control. Military obsolescence set in during the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries, as the old system proved unworkable. The *janissary* infantry declined, when the boy tribute system ended, and the *janissaries* evolved into an unpaid militia concerned with tax avoidance. The availability of *sipahi* cavalry fell, when land surveys were abandoned and the *timar* system collapsed, and the *sipahis* shifted to political intrigue.

In the 19<sup>th</sup> century, Ottoman military weakness permitted the defection of key provinces – Egypt (under Muhammad Ali), Arabia (under the Wahhabis), and North Africa (under local dynasts). Encouraged by French, British, and German military advisors, the Ottomans introduced significant military reforms in the 19<sup>th</sup> century – universal conscription, training in modern tactics, up-to-date weaponry, and employment of foreign officers in battle. But those changes came too late to preserve the empire.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:ModernEgypt, Muhammad Ali by Auguste Couder, BAP 17996.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:ModernEgypt,_Muhammad_Ali_by_Auguste_Couder,_BAP_17996.jpg)>

*Muhammad Ali Pasha (Ruled Egypt, 1805-1848) –  
Portrait by Auguste Couder, 1841, Palace of Versailles, France*

**Economic Decline.** The once-strong Ottoman economy failed to keep pace with its competitors after the 16<sup>th</sup> century. Ottoman agriculture stagnated because of poor policy and corrupt administration. State-owned land (*miri*) was alienated corruptly to allow provincial warlords (*ayans*) and absentee landlords to accumulate large estates. Tenant shareholders, facing higher taxes, had little incentive to innovate, and there were few productivity

gains in agriculture. While agricultural revolutions took place in Western Europe, the traditional three-field system (one field planted and two lying fallow) continued in the Ottoman Empire.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Turkish\\_farmer\\_with\\_ax.jpg?](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Turkish_farmer_with_ax.jpg?)*

*Ottoman Agriculture Stagnated – Turkish Farmers Continued  
Using the Three-Field System of Agricultural Rotations*

In the 19<sup>th</sup> century, Ottoman agriculture expanded but only due to increases in areas farmed. In 1900, four-fifths of the empire's population were small-scale farmers, agriculture contributed over half of national income, and the bulk of government revenue came from agricultural taxes.

Foreign trade declined in the 17<sup>th</sup>-18<sup>th</sup> centuries because the Ottomans lost much of the Asian transit trade to European competitors. The Empire participated in the rapid global growth of trade in the 19<sup>th</sup> century by reducing protection and state monopolies, and Ottoman foreign trade increased fivefold between 1830 and 1870.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:16th\\_century\\_Portuguese\\_Spanish\\_trade\\_routes.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:16th_century_Portuguese_Spanish_trade_routes.png)

*Global Trade Routes, 16<sup>th</sup>-19<sup>th</sup> centuries – Control of Asian-European Trade Shifted To European Competitors*

But Ottoman exports were mostly agricultural. The two most important export industries were carpet making and raw silk reeling. The leading Ottoman ports by 1900 were Izmir, Salonica,

Beirut, and Istanbul. Most Ottoman governments faced budget squeezes after the 16<sup>th</sup> century, because warfare was no longer self-financing. The need to pay for costly, losing wars led to the increased use of inefficient tax farming. Revenue problems were exacerbated in the 19<sup>th</sup> century after the loss of Ottoman territories in southeastern Europe and northern Africa.

Borrowing abroad to pay for the Crimean War ignited a burst of government loans from France, Britain, and Germany, which led to a default in 1875 and close foreign monitoring of government finances. Private capitalists, mostly French and German, invested in Ottoman railroads in the late 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> centuries. But by 1914, per capita income in the shrunken Ottoman Empire was only 5 percent of that in Britain and one-fifth of the levels in Bulgaria, Greece, and Serbia, former Ottoman possessions.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Bridge\\_and\\_Galata\\_Area,\\_Istanbul,\\_Turkey  
by Abdullah Fr%C3%A8res, ca. 1880-1893 \(LOC\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Bridge_and_Galata_Area,_Istanbul,_Turkey_by_Abdullah_Fr%C3%A8res,_ca._1880-1893_(LOC).jpg)>

*Port of Istanbul, Galata Area, Late 19<sup>th</sup> century – Increased Trade Taxes Could Not Offset Losses From Territorial Dismemberment*

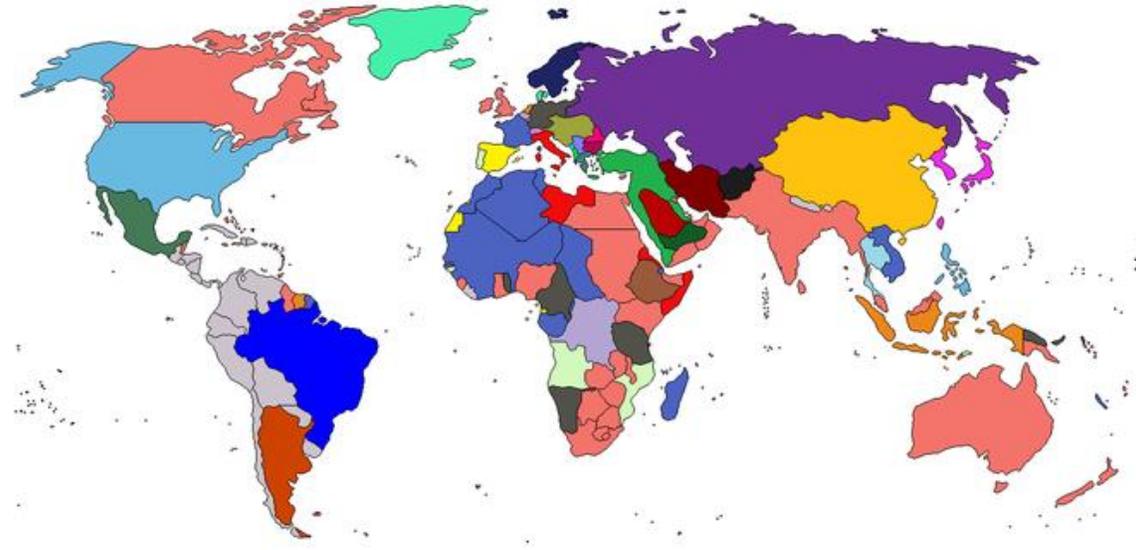
### **International Decline and the Rise of European Power.**

The decline of the Ottoman Empire was largely the result of poor military and economic leadership. But the Ottomans also failed to adjust to changing international realities. Three new European powers – Britain, Russia, and the Netherlands – arose in the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries. The British and the Dutch joined the erstwhile

French in vying for trade influence in the new Ottoman ports of Izmir and Salonica.

The Russians threatened Ottoman holdings in the Black Sea region and eastern Anatolia as the Austrians did in southeastern Europe. Russian expansionism into Ottoman areas accelerated in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Under the self-styled mantle of protecting all Orthodox Christians, Russia aided Greek independence in 1830. Ironically, the Ottomans were forced to seek Russian military aid when an Egyptian army, led by Muhammad Ali's son, threatened to invade Istanbul in 1833.

The survival of the Ottoman Empire depended on European balance-of-power politics. In a policy that became known as the Eastern Question, Britain and France aided the Empire to forestall Russian gains in the Black Sea region. The Crimean War (1853-1856) resulted from that policy. The locus of the Eastern Question shifted eastward to become the Great Game in Central Asia after the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:World\\_empires\\_and\\_colonies\\_around\\_World\\_War\\_I.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:World_empires_and_colonies_around_World_War_I.png)>

*World Empires, 1914 – Ottoman (Green), British (Light Red),  
French (Dark Blue), Russian (Purple)*

World War I (1914-1918) was the product of two entangling alliances – the Triple Entente (Britain, France, and Russia) versus the Triple Alliance (Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy). The Young Turks governing the Ottoman Empire in 1914 signed a secret pact with Germany after Britain and France, preferring Russia as an ally, rebuffed Ottoman overtures to join the Entente. The loss of the First World War sounded the final death knell for the Ottoman Empire.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Map\\_Europe\\_alliances\\_1914-en.svg](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Map_Europe_alliances_1914-en.svg)

*Triple Entente and Triple Alliance (Central Powers) in World War One – The Ottoman Empire Later Joined the Triple Alliance*

**Modern Turkey (1919-present)**

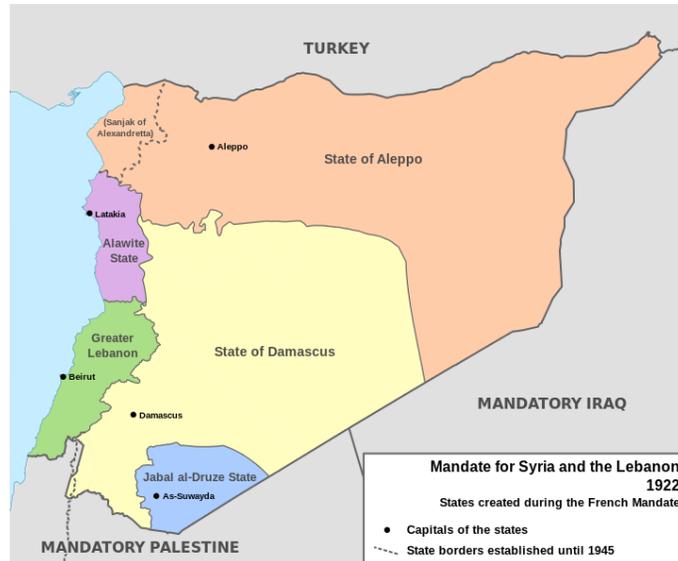
**War of Independence (1919-1923).** Britain and France completed the dismemberment of the Ottoman Empire after World War I. Under the Treaty of Sèvres (1920), Turkey was to be a rump state, consisting only of northern Anatolia. Greece was to take Thrace and western Anatolia, and the remainder of Anatolia was to be divided among Italy (southwest), France (south), and the new states of Armenia (east) and Kurdistan (southeast).



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Treaty\\_of\\_S%C3%A8vres\\_map\\_partitioning\\_Anatolia.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Treaty_of_S%C3%A8vres_map_partitioning_Anatolia.png)

### *Division of Turkey under the Treaty of Sèvres (1920) – Proposed But Not Implemented*

Turkey lost the former Ottoman-controlled territories located outside of Anatolia or Thrace. League of Nations mandates were provided to France for Syria and Lebanon (in 1922) and to Britain for Palestine, Transjordan, and Iraq (in 1923).



Source: *Wikimedia Commons*, available at  
 <[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:French\\_Mandate\\_for\\_Syria\\_and\\_the\\_Lebanon\\_map\\_en.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:French_Mandate_for_Syria_and_the_Lebanon_map_en.svg)>

*League of Nations Mandates, 1922 –  
 French Mandates for Syria and Lebanon*



Source: *Wikimedia Commons*, available at  
 <<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:PalestineAndTransjordan.png>>

*League of Nations Mandates, 1923 –  
 British Mandates for Palestine and Transjordan*

In opposition to the Treaty of Sèvres, Mustafa Kemal, the brilliant nationalist leader, revived the Turkish army and led regional congresses to create nationalist support. Soviet Russia provided limited but critical amounts of military equipment and economic aid. The Turkish nationalists successfully fought two wars – one with the Ottoman government, and the other with the Greek army, which had invaded Thrace and western Anatolia in 1919. The nationalists defeated the Greek invaders at Sakarya (1921) and Dumlupinar (1922) and drove Greece out of Anatolia.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Turkish\\_artillerymen\\_before\\_the\\_Great\\_Offensive.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Turkish_artillerymen_before_the_Great_Offensive.jpg)>

*Turkish Artillerymen After Winning the Decisive Battle of  
Dumlupinar (1922) Over Greece*

With a superior strategy, a stronger cavalry, and better heavy guns, the Turkish nationalists won the Turkish War of Independence. In the Treaty of Lausanne (1923), Turkey gained sovereignty over Anatolia and eastern Thrace and declared a political amnesty. The treaty contained no provisions for allocating land in Anatolia to Armenia or creating an independent Kurdistan. The Dardanelles Straits were demilitarized under international control.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Turkey-Greece-Bulgaria\\_on\\_Treaty\\_of\\_Lausanne.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Turkey-Greece-Bulgaria_on_Treaty_of_Lausanne.png)

*Mustafa Kemal's Republic of Turkey (Light Tan Area) – After the Treaty of Lausanne, 1923*

Turkey and Greece agreed to a compulsory exchange of populations (1.1 million Orthodox Christians moved to Greece, whereas 400,000 Muslims moved to Turkey). Turkey agreed to pay two-thirds of the Ottoman foreign debt and to freeze its tariff for six years, while the Allies agreed that Turkey would not have to pay reparations for World War I and could end the Ottoman system of foreign concessions (capitulations). Lausanne was a remarkable victory for the new Republic of Turkey.

**Atatürk's Reforms (1923-1938).** Mustafa Kemal (who took the surname Atatürk, father of the Turks, in 1934) was a talented military commander, an astute politician/statesman, and an ardent secularist reformer. He was born in Salonica in 1881 to a middle-class Muslim Turkish family, had blue eyes and fair hair, and completed thirteen years of military education at the Istanbul War College in 1904. During the First World War, Mustafa Kemal was decorated for his outstanding leadership at Gallipoli and served with distinction in eastern Anatolia and Syria. At the end of the

war at age 37, Mustafa Kemal, was in charge of the longest front still controlled by Ottoman forces (in Syria), and he had gained the respect and admiration of most of his officer colleagues.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at*  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Mustafa\\_Kemal\\_November\\_1918.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Mustafa_Kemal_November_1918.png)>

*Mustafa Kemal Atatürk (1881-1938), Hero of Gallipoli and Founder of the Secular Republic of Turkey – Pictured in 1918*

Atatürk was convinced that modernization was essential for Turkey's survival as an independent state. Upon gaining political power in 1923, he moved quickly to modernize Turkey. To

overcome the political threat of conservative Islamists, Atatürk abolished the Ottoman sultanate and the caliphate, thereby ending Turkey's claim to leadership of the Islamic world. Atatürk and his reformist colleagues then created a secular, parliamentary democracy. They ended the practice of Islamic law (*sharia*) in Turkey and adopted new civil and penal codes based on Swiss and Italian law.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Sultanvahideddin.jpg>>

*Departure From Istanbul of Mehmed VI, Last Sultan of the Ottoman Empire, 1922 – Ending the Ottoman Islamic Caliphate*

Later, Atatürk led a movement to idealize Turkish history, making the erroneous claim that all ethnic groups who had inhabited Anatolia throughout history were of Turkic origin, and forced the teaching of that self-serving theory in Turkish schools.

Numerous cultural reforms buttressed the political changes. The public wearing of symbolic Islamic dress (the fez and headscarves) was prohibited, and Dervish lodges and religious shrines were closed. Atatürk legislated use of the Gregorian calendar, the Roman script, a new Turkish alphabet, and surnames. He replaced Islamic *medreses* with secular education and gave women the right to vote (in 1930), inherit equally, and participate in divorce. Atatürk's Turkey, which contained 14 million, largely illiterate people in 1927, was changed beyond recognition.



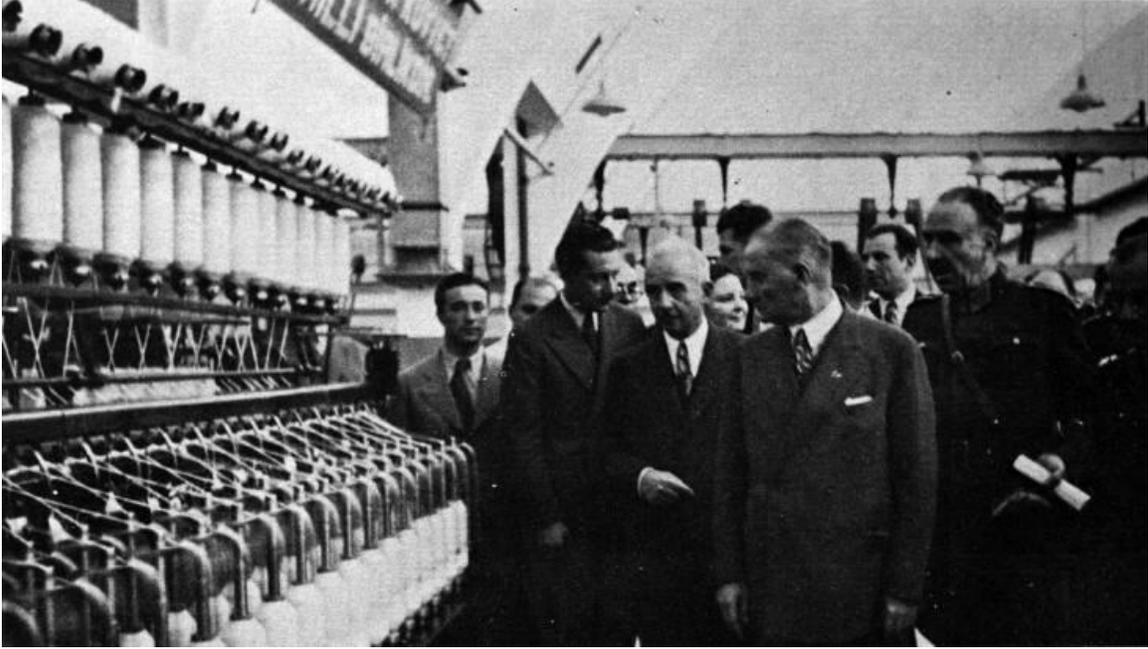
Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:First\\_female\\_MPs\\_of\\_the\\_Turkish\\_Parliament\\_\(1935\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:First_female_MPs_of_the_Turkish_Parliament_(1935).jpg)

*Eighteen Women Members of the Turkish Parliament, 1935 –  
None Wearing a Headscarf*

**Kemalist Étatism (1923-1950).** Mustafa Kemal Atatürk served as president from 1923 until his death (from cirrhosis of the liver) in 1938, and İsmet İnönü (1884-1973) was his loyal prime minister. In 1924, the constitution was amended to give the president wide executive and legislative powers. Atatürk took

advantage of a Kurdish rebellion in 1925 and an assassination plot in 1926 to introduce draconian controls over organizations and the press. In 1931, his Republican People's Party became the only legal party in the one-party state. Atatürk (and later İnönü) promoted personality cults.

Political stability under Atatürk's presidency encouraged rapid economic recovery. During the 1920s, the government followed free market policies. After the onset of the Great Depression, in 1929-1931 Atatürk and İnönü legislated high protectionism of industry by raising the average tariff level from 13 to 46 percent and imposing import quotas. In 1931, they introduced the policy of *étatisme*, or large government participation in the economy – transportation infrastructure, public development banks, state-owned enterprises, and five-year plans. The results were impressive – per capita income grew at 5 percent per year, doubling during Atatürk's presidency.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Nazilli\\_Cotton\\_Factory.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Nazilli_Cotton_Factory.jpg)>

*Étatism Included the Subsidization of Turkish Manufacturing – Atatürk (Center) and İnönü Visited the Nazilli Cotton Factory, 1937*

After Atatürk's death in 1938, İnönü served as president until 1950 and continued the policies of authoritarian étatism. During World War II, İnönü followed a policy of armed neutrality and successfully avoided Turkey's involvement until February 1945. İnönü negotiated alliances with the Soviet Union (1939), Great Britain and France (1939), Germany (1941), and the United States (1941) and used evasive tactics to keep Turkey out of the fighting. In 1946, Turkey permitted a two-party election, but İnönü rigged

the vote so that the opposition Democrat Party won only 64 seats compared with 395 for his Republican People's Party.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Inonu\\_Ismet.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Inonu_Ismet.jpg)>

*Ismet İnönü (1884-1973), Turkey's Second President (1938-1950)  
– Pictured in 1938*

**Democracy, Coups, and Protectionism (1950-1980).** The Democrat Party won 408 parliamentary seats in the 1950 election, and İnönü gracefully yielded power. The Democrat government, led by Adnan Menderes, temporarily liberalized economic policy and then re-introduced étatism in 1954. Turkey provided 25,000

troops to the UN effort in the Korean War and joined NATO in 1952. A close alliance with the United States led to \$3 billion in military and economic aid during the 1950s. The Democrats used American Marshall-Plan aid to import tractors and build roads, and they distributed 2 million hectares of farmland to assist their rural constituents. Per capita income grew at a modest annual rate of 2.2 percent in the 1950s.



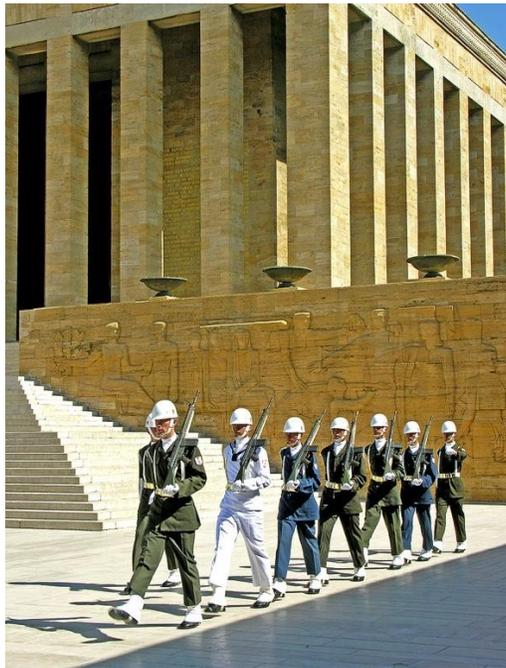
Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
< <https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:US-MarshallPlanAid-Logo.svg> >

*Turkey Received \$3 Billion of US Marshall-Plan  
and Military Assistance During the 1950s*

The first military coup, engineered by General Cemal Gursel in 1960, aimed to stabilize the economy. During the 1960s, that pattern was repeated. The Justice Party, led by Suleyman Demirel, won over half the vote in the 1965 election. Demirel continued close ties to the United States, oversaw impressive growth of agriculture (based on yield improvements) and industry, but suffered growing civil unrest (Turks versus Kurds, Sunni versus Alevi (Shi'ite) Muslims).

In the “coup by memorandum”, the military took power in 1971 and ruled harshly for two years to contain civil unrest. Thirteen weak coalition governments ruled Turkey between 1973 and 1980. Key participants were the populist Demirel, the secularist Bulent Ecevit (Republican People's Party), and the Islamist Necmettin Erbakan (National Salvation Party). The pattern of democratic government followed by a military coup was repeated for a third time.

The bloodless and American-supported “coup of velvet boots” in 1980 was intended both to stabilize the economy and to contain civilian unrest. During the era of the three military coups (1960-1983), Turkey’s per capita income (GDP per capita, estimated by the World Bank in constant 2010 dollars) expanded at a modest annual average rate of 2.5 percent.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at*  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Turkey-1658\\_\(2215850337\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Turkey-1658_(2215850337).jpg)>

*Soldiers at the Ataturk Mausoleum (Anitkabir), Ankara –  
The Military Carried Out Three Coups To Restore Kemalism*

**Democracy, Intervention, and Liberalism (1980-present).**

Military rule lasted from 1980 until 1983. Turgut Özal and his

new Motherland Party won the 1983 and 1987 elections and ruled until 1993. The economy improved under Özal's stable governments. Özal, Turkey's strongest leader since Atatürk, ended the étatist policy in place since 1931. His new policy of economic liberalization emphasized export promotion, construction of infrastructure, and private enterprise. The annual rate of growth of per capita income increased to 3 percent between 1983 and 1991.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Bush\\_ozal\\_bos.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Bush_ozal_bos.jpg)>

*Turgut Özal (Left), Prime Minister of Turkey (1983-1993) and US President George H. W. Bush – On the Bosphorus In Istanbul, 1991*

During the 1990s, Turkey had a series of weak coalition governments. The military received a free hand to put down the Kurdish rebellion in southeastern Turkey, which ended in 1999. Liberalization continued, but per capita income growth slowed to an annual average of 1.7 percent (1991-2002). In 1996, secularist Turkey elected its first Islamist prime minister, Necmettin Erbakan, after Tansu Çiller (who had been the country's first female prime minister) formed a coalition with Erbakan in return for his agreement to drop a parliamentary investigation into her personal finances.

The Justice and Development Party (AKP), a moderate Islamist group led by Recep Tayyip Erdogan, won the 2002 election (34 percent of the votes cast) and was re-elected with rising voting shares in 2007 (47 percent), 2011 (49 percent), and 2015 (50 percent). Erdogan served as Turkey's Prime Minister and head of government from 2003 until August 2014, when he was elected President. Ahmet Davutoglu of the AKP then became

Prime Minister and served for two years. The popularity of the AKP has rested on their success in creating rapid growth of per capita income and building grassroots political organizations.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at*  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Recep\\_Tayyip\\_Erdo%C4%9Fan\\_2019\\_\(cropped\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Recep_Tayyip_Erdo%C4%9Fan_2019_(cropped).jpg)>

*Recep Tayyip Erdoğan, Prime Minister (2003-2014), President (2014- present) – Pictured in 2018*

In July 2016, a faction of the military attempted a coup d'état against the AKP government, by deploying troops and tanks in Istanbul and Ankara. The coup attempt faltered quickly because it was poorly planned, lacked the support of much of the military and

the public, and encountered widespread public resistance. The Erdogan government blamed the coup attempt on the transnational Hizmet movement, which was led by Fethullah Gulen (from his exile in Pennsylvania). The government subsequently dismissed from government service more than 130,000 military personnel, civil servants, judges, academics, and journalists because of their alleged affiliation with the Gulenist movement.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Anti-Coup\\_Demokrasi\\_N%C3%B6beti\\_K%C4%B1z%C4%B1lay\\_Square.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Anti-Coup_Demokrasi_N%C3%B6beti_K%C4%B1z%C4%B1lay_Square.jpg)>*

*Mass Demonstration Supporting the AKP Government, After the Military Coup Attempt – Kizilay Square, Ankara, July 2016*

Binali Yildirim served as the AKP Prime Minister from May 2016 to July 2018, when the office was abolished following a

narrowly-passed, constitutional referendum in 2017. That referendum also gave the president of Turkey the authority to form and regulate ministries, select a cabinet, draft the budget, and declare a state of emergency for up to six months. Erdogan won the presidential election of June 2018 with an absolute majority (53 percent) and assumed those substantial new powers. Erdogan’s critics accuse him of attempting to create an authoritarian “new sultanate” and of threatening to destroy Turkey’s secular democracy by centralizing power and silencing opponents.



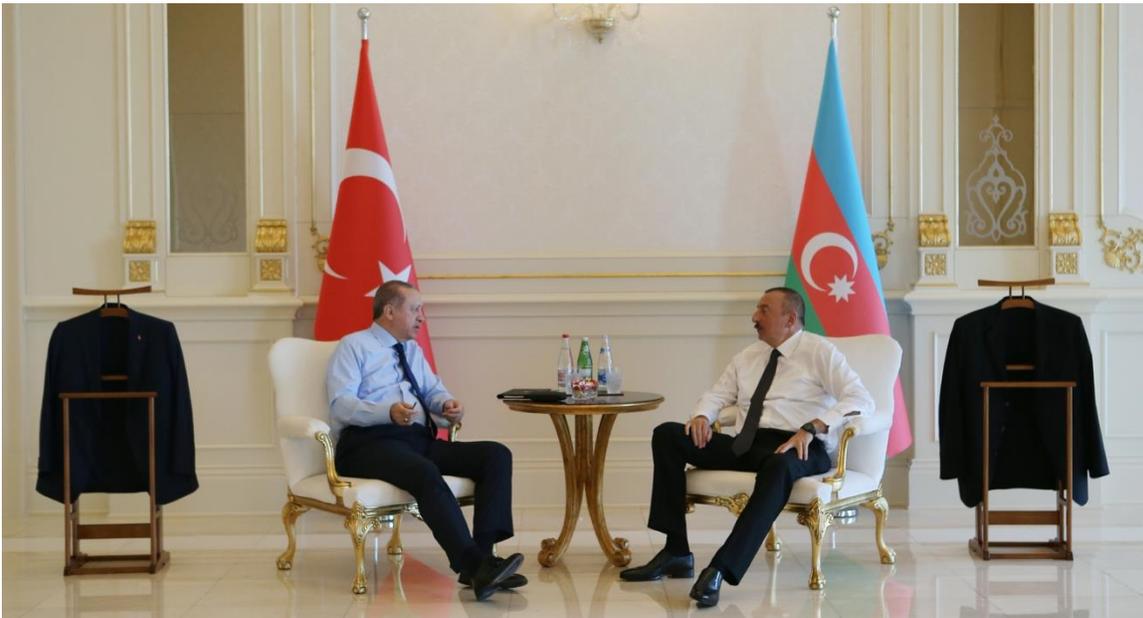
*Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ak\\_Saray -  
Presidential\\_Palace\\_Ankara\\_2014\\_002.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ak_Saray_-_Presidential_Palace_Ankara_2014_002.jpg)>*

*Recep Tayyip Erdogan’s Presidential Palace (Ak Saray), Ankara –  
1,000 Rooms, \$250 Million Cost, 50 Acres – Heavy Criticism*

President Erdogan also has carried out an aggressive foreign policy toward Turkey's neighbors in the Middle East and North Africa. In 2018, Turkey intervened militarily in northwestern Syria, seizing large areas from Syrian Kurdish control and opposing the Russian-backed Syrian government of Bashar al-Asad. Turkish troops have established a buffer zone along much of the border between Turkey and Syria. In January 2020, Turkey sent troops to Libya to repel rebel militias opposing the UN-backed Libyan government in Tripoli. A few months earlier, Turkey and Libya had signed a maritime agreement under which Libya would support Turkey's right to block an undersea pipeline to transport natural gas from Israel to Greece via Cyprus if Turkey would provide military assistance to the Libyan government.

In September 2020, Turkey offered strong military support for Azerbaijan, its Turkic-speaking ally, during the resumption of warfare between Azerbaijan and Armenia in the century-long conflict over Nagorno-Karabakh, a self-governing region in the

South Caucasus that is ethnically mostly Armenian but officially part of Azerbaijan. Azerbaijan won the war and re-gained territory after Russia brokered a truce in November 2020. Turkey and Azerbaijan are jointly constructing a pipeline to transport natural gas from the Azerbaijan's Caspian Sea gas-fields to Turkey and Europe. In Syria, Libya, and the South Caucasus, Erdogan's aggressive policies are exacerbating deep-seated regional conflicts and threatening wider warfare.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Recep\\_Tayyip\\_Erdo%C4%9Fan\\_meet\\_with\\_Ilham\\_Aliyev.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Recep_Tayyip_Erdo%C4%9Fan_meet_with_Ilham_Aliyev.jpg)>

*Recep Tayyip Erdogan (Left). President of Turkey (2014 –) and Ilham Aliyev, President of Azerbaijan (2003 –) – Baku, 2014*

Between 2002 and 2007, Turkish per capita income (GDP per capita Purchasing Power Parity, estimated by the World Bank in constant 2017 dollars) grew at the world-class annual rate of 5.9 percent. During the global recession of 2008-2009, per capita income in Turkey declined by 6.4 percent. The Turkish economy then regained an upward trajectory and per capita income grew at an annual rate of 5.1 percent between 2009-2017, before stagnating in 2018 and 2019.

In 2019, Turkey had a price-adjusted per capita income of \$28,134, 43 percent of the US level and 60 percent of the EU average. Turkey ranked in the top third of the World Bank's listing of per capita incomes (52<sup>nd</sup> of 186 countries). Life expectancy in Turkey was 77 years (2018), and the rate of adult literacy was 96 percent (2017). Turkey's ranking in the UNDP's Human Development Index – the gold standard of quality-of-life indicators because it incorporates income, health, and education data – was 54<sup>th</sup> of 189 countries (between Belarus and Uruguay).

Seventy-four percent of the Turkish population use the Internet (2018).



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:View\\_of\\_Levent\\_financial\\_district\\_from\\_Istanbul\\_Sapphire.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:View_of_Levent_financial_district_from_Istanbul_Sapphire.jpg)>

*Levent Financial and Business District, Istanbul –  
The Heart of Turkey’s Economy*

Because of reforms that greatly reduced administrative inefficiencies and bureaucratic controls, Turkey ranked an impressive 33<sup>rd</sup> of 190 countries in the World Bank’s Ease of Doing Business Index (2019). But corruption in Turkey was widespread. The country ranked only 91<sup>st</sup> of 198 countries in the

Corruption Perceptions Index compiled by Transparency

International (2019). Investors in Turkey thus faced mixed indicators. Foreign direct investment was only \$8.8 billion in 2019 – down substantially from a peak of \$22 billion in 2007 and from \$19.3 billion in 2015.

The Turkish economy depends heavily on export earnings (\$249.3 billion in 2019). Its leading export products are motor vehicles, machinery, iron and steel, textiles and clothing, fruits and vegetables, livestock products, and tobacco. Turkey also relies heavily on international tourism (\$37.1 billion from 45.8 million international-tourist arrivals in 2018). Minor contributions are made by personal remittances (\$0.8 billion in 2019) and foreign assistance (\$1.2 billion in 2018). The latest available study of poverty in Turkey, carried out by the World Bank in 2018, concluded that 14.4 percent of Turkey’s population had incomes beneath the poverty line. The Turkish government thus faces strong challenges in its attempt to return Turkey to a path of rapid economic growth.



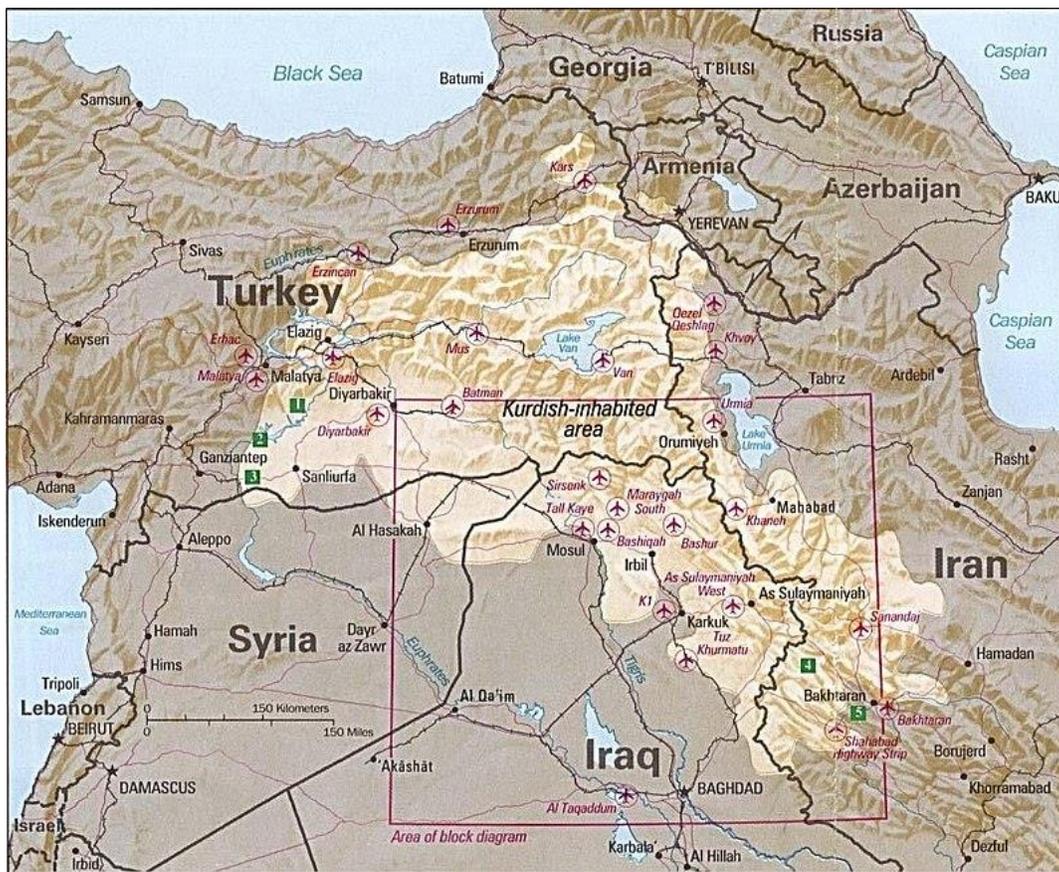
Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ferries,\\_%C4%B0stanbul\\_\(14240288801\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ferries,_%C4%B0stanbul_(14240288801).jpg)>

*Turkey's Economy Boomed – 52 Million Tourists Visited Turkey in 2019 and Many of Them Used Istanbul's Ferries*

**Enduring Issues.** Four overarching political issues – Islamism, Kurdish rights, Asian orientation, and European accession – endure in Turkey in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Turkey's current leaders advocate moderate Islamism, combining a secular government with a more Islamist culture. The country's Muslims are divided. About four-fifths of Turkey's 84 million people are Sunni Muslims, and many support moderate Islamism. But many

Turkish Sunnis and most of the 15-million Alevi (Shi'ite) minority are strongly secularist.

Turkey's largest ethnic minority are the Kurds, who constitute 19 percent of the population, speak an Indo-European language, and mostly practice Sunni Islam.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Kurdish-inhabited\\_area\\_by\\_CIA\\_\(1992\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Kurdish-inhabited_area_by_CIA_(1992).jpg)

*Kurdish Ethnic Areas in Turkey, Syria, Iraq, and Iran – Map By US Central Intelligence Agency, 1992*

Led by a Marxist radical, Abdullah Ocalan, the Kurdistan Workers' Party (PKK) fought a bloody rebellion (1984-1999) that was brutally suppressed by the Turkish military. The PKK was trained in Syria. After Ocalan's capture in 1999, remnant PKK forces moved to northern Iraq. Kurdish cultural rights, long abrogated under anti-terrorist laws, were improved in 2003. But the AK government's relations with the Kurdish minority deteriorated, and rebellion and suppression recurred in 2015. Full reconciliation remains elusive.

In Istanbul, the east bank of the Bosphorus is in Asia while the west bank is in Europe. Turkey vacillates between projecting an Asian or a European orientation. Some Turkish leaders advocate extending Turkey's growing influence in western Asia, among Turkic and Arab Muslims. Despite opposition from Syria and Iraq, Turkey spent \$32 billion on its Southeast Anatolian Project to construct 22 dams on the headwaters of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers for hydroelectricity and irrigation. Turkey also has invested

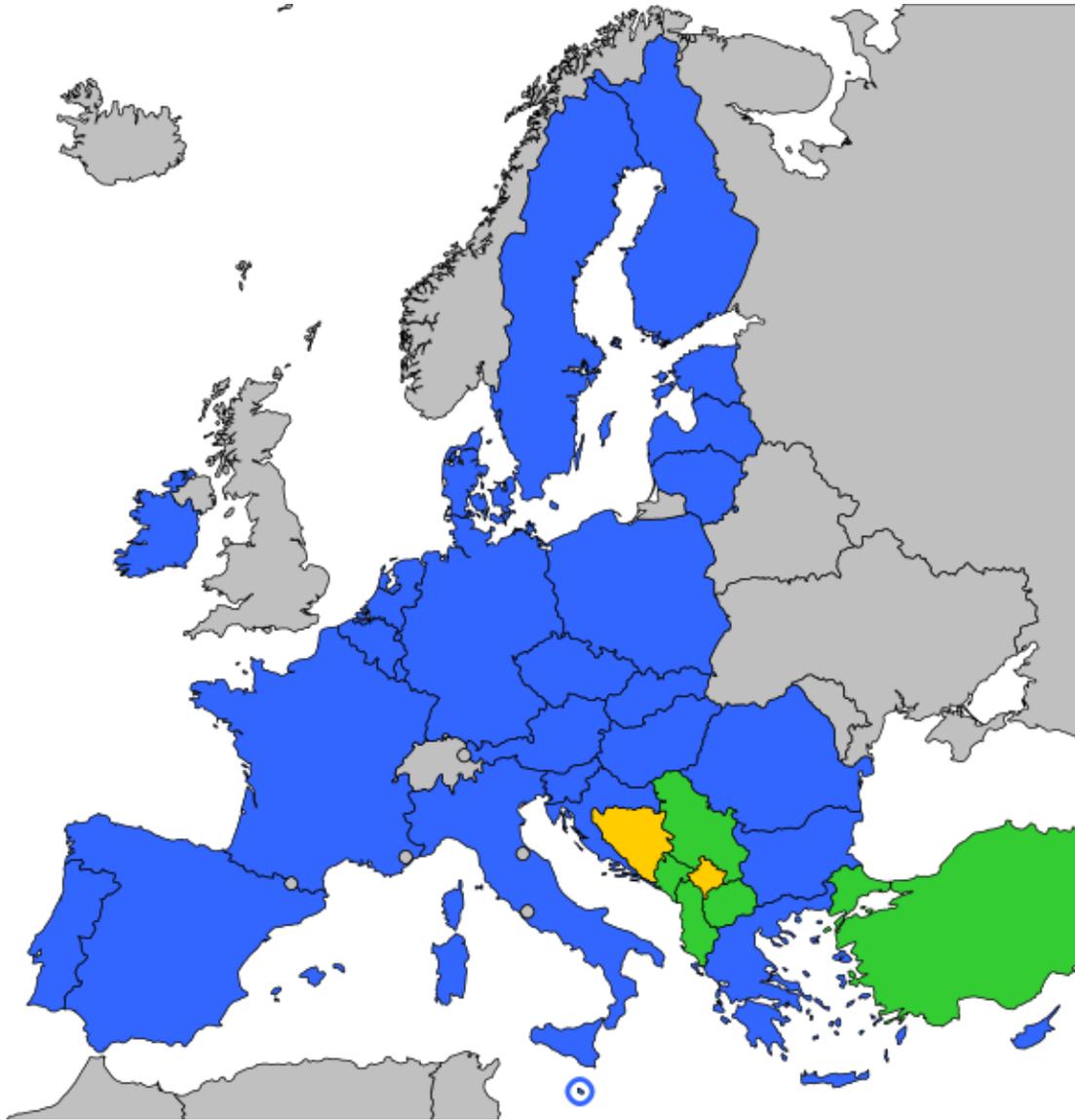
political and financial capital to promote a pan-Turkic movement in five new Turkic-speaking, former Soviet, oil-rich republics.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at*  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Atat%C3%BCrk\\_Dam.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Atat%C3%BCrk_Dam.jpg)>

*Ataturk Dam, Euphrates Basin, Completed 1990 –  
Largest Dam in the Southeast Anatolian Project*

Other Turks prefer that Turkey become more European. In an association agreement in 1963, Turkey was promised eventual accession to the European Economic Community (now European Union). Turkey filed an application for accession in 1987, but received only a promise for a customs union, which was agreed in 1996. Accession negotiations began in 2005 and are continuing.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at  
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:European\\_Union\\_Members.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:European_Union_Members.svg)>

*The European Union In 2020 – Members (Blue), Candidates (Green), Potential Candidates (Yellow)*

For future accession, the EU has demanded that Turkey ameliorate its democratic institutions and human rights and that it settle long-standing disputes over the division of Cyprus and Greek-Turkish

borders in the Aegean region. European opposition to Turkish accession combines concerns over EU budgetary costs and the future of Islamism in Turkey.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at <https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:TU-map.png>

### *Contemporary Turkey*

## **Lessons for Contemporary Powers**

What lessons for contemporary powers can be drawn from the experiences of the Ottoman Empire in Turkey and of predecessor rulers of Anatolia? The Byzantine Empire (395-1453) debilitated its strength and fell to invading Seljuk and Ottoman Turks in part because it focused its expansionist attentions in the

wrong direction. After the fall of Rome in 476, Byzantine leaders, who considered themselves eastern Roman emperors and thus legitimate successors of Rome, wanted to emulate the former Roman control of the entire Mediterranean region.

In the 6<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> centuries, Byzantine emperors expended enormous resources and bled their empire to re-conquer the Mediterranean area, only to lose control after short-lived victories. But the Mediterranean by then was largely sapped of wealth and thus not a profitable target for Byzantine conquest. The real economic opportunities – and military threats – for Byzantium lay with the Persians and Turks to the east and north. Byzantine fixation with the ex-Roman Mediterranean thus provides a classic example of imperial myopia – looking backward in time and westward in direction when the present and future were in the east.

Effective taxation, essential for the survival of early empires, offers a second lesson. Agriculture was the primary source of wealth and government revenue in the Ottoman Empire. Ottoman

officials astutely devised an agricultural taxation system (similar to that used in Mughal India). To prevent tax avoidance, the tax liabilities of farmers were based on cadastral surveys of crops, planted area, and yields plus averages of recent regional prices. The typical tax rate was ten percent of the value of farm output. Ottoman officials supplemented their revenue from agriculture by taxing both imports and exports, usually at a rate of 20 percent. In their Balkan-Anatolian heartland, the pragmatic Ottomans governed directly and taxed heavily, whereas elsewhere in Western Asia and North Africa they ruled indirectly and taxed moderately. For more than three centuries, the Ottomans taxed effectively.

Two lessons can be drawn from the decline of the Ottoman Empire. It is important to place a high priority on research for science and technology and on public investments in infrastructure. The military aristocracies that led the Ottoman Empire – and also the Safavid Persian and Mughal Indian Empires – lost sight of this key principle. At a time when European countries were benefiting

from commercial, agricultural, and industrial revolutions, the world's three leading Muslim empires gave inadequate attention to investments in science, technology, and public infrastructure.

Muslim states – Fatimid Egypt, Muslim Spain, and the early Ottoman Empire – had led the Western world in making advances in applications of science and technology between the 9<sup>th</sup> and 16<sup>th</sup> centuries. When the Muslim governments' attention shifted elsewhere, Christian European governments occupied the scientific vacuum and regained the lead held much earlier by Greece and Rome. The northern European states – Great Britain, France, and the Netherlands – began to ascend technically, politically, and economically. By the 19<sup>th</sup> century, those European nations had become imperialistic expansionists whereas the remaining Muslim empires – Ottoman and Mughal – were on the defensive and soon to disappear.

After peaking in the 16<sup>th</sup> century, the Ottoman Empire gradually deteriorated during the next three centuries. Military

conservatism, an inability to adopt new technologies and strategies, was a key cause of Ottoman decline. The mode of warfare in Europe changed in the 17<sup>th</sup> century toward greater use of massive infantry and mobile field artillery. But the Ottomans continued to rely on traditional infantry and cavalry and on foraging in the field for military supplies. Military obsolescence set in during the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries, as the old system proved unworkable. The Ottomans introduced military reforms in the 19<sup>th</sup> century – universal conscription, training in modern tactics, up-to-date weaponry, and employment of foreign officers in battle. But those changes were inadequate and too late. The loss of the First World War sounded the final death knell for the Ottoman Empire.

## **Time Line for Turkey and the Ottoman Empire**

### Ruling States in Anatolia

3rd millennium BCE	Kanesh and other Assyrian trading colonies in Anatolia
1700-1200 BCE	Hittite Kingdom in Anatolia, northern Syria, western Mesopotamia
11th-6th c. BCE	Greek city-states founded on Aegean and Black Sea coasts
11th-7th c. BCE	Kingdom of Urartu in eastern Anatolia
9th-7th c. BCE	Phrygian Kingdoms in western and central Anatolia
7th-6th c. BCE	Kingdom of Lydia in western Anatolia
547-333 BCE	Achaemenid Persian Empire rule in Anatolia
333-130 BCE	Seleucid and Ptolemaic Kingdoms rule in Anatolia
130 BCE-330 CE	Roman Empire rule in Anatolia
330-1453 CE	Byzantine Empire rule in Anatolia
1096-1204	Christian Crusaders harassed Byzantine Empire
1080-1258	Seljuk Sultanate of Rum in Anatolia

1241-1258	Mongol invasions of Anatolia
1300-1923	Ottoman Empire in Anatolia, Balkans, Middle East, North Africa
1923-2020	Republic of Turkey

### Key Dates in Anatolia/Turkey

From 8500 BCE	origins of agriculture – Fertile Crescent, including southeastern Anatolia
6500 BCE	Founding of Çatal Huyuk, Neolithic agricultural village
1350-1322 BCE	Suppliliuma I, greatest Hittite king, re-conquered eastern Anatolia
1321-1295 BCE	Mursili II, Hittite king, expelled Assyrians from Carchemish
1274 BCE	Battle of Kadesh – Muwatalli II, Hittite king, fought draw with Ramesses II of Egypt
547 BCE	Cyrus of Achaemenid Persia defeated Lydian King Croesus
333 BCE	Battle of Issus – Alexander the Great of Macedonia defeated Darius III of Persia
66 BCE	Battle of Nicopolis – Pompey the Great of Rome defeated Mithridates of Pontus

64 BCE	Pompey the Great of Rome destroyed Seleucid Kingdom, conquered Syria, Judea
330 CE	Roman Emperor Constantine I built Constantinople and divided Roman Empire
395	Roman Emperor Theodosius permanently divided Roman Empire, created Byzantine (Eastern Roman) Empire
476	Western Roman Empire fell
527-565	Justinian I ruled Byzantine Empire – reconquered North Africa and Italy
1071	Battle of Manzikert – Seljuk Turk Sultan Alp Arslan defeated Byzantine Emperor Romanus IV, opened Anatolia to migrations
1204	Fourth Crusade plundered Constantinople
1243	Mongol warriors defeated Byzantines at Battle of Kose Dagh
1300-1326	Osman founded Ottoman Empire
1360-1389	Murad I formed Ottoman province of Rumelia in the Balkans
1402	Battle of Ankara – Timur of Samarkand defeated, killed Ottoman Sultan Bayezid I
1451-1481	Mehmed II conquered Black Sea region

- 1453 Mehmed II captured Constantinople from Byzantines and re-built the city as Istanbul
- 1511-1521 Selim I conquered Syria, Egypt, and Western Arabia
- 1521-1566 Suleiman I conquered Hungary and Mesopotamia, codified Ottoman laws
- 1526 Battle of Mohacs – Suleiman I defeated Habsburg Emperor Charles V
- 1571 Battle of Lepanto – Holy League of Christian States defeated Ottoman navy
- 1593-1606 Thirteen-Year War – Ottoman Empire and Austria battled to stalemate
- 1683 Battle of Vienna – German/Polish army defeated Ottoman army, stopped advance
- 1699 Treaty of Karlowitz – Ottoman Empire lost Hungary, Transylvania, much of Greece
- 1709 Battle of Prut – Ottomans defeated Peter the Great of Russia, stopped Russian advance
- 1790 Austria and Russia restored conquests to Ottoman Empire in Treaty of Sistova
- 1826 Mahmud II destroyed rebellious Janissary corps, began reforms
- 1830 Greece gained independence from Ottoman Empire, beginning dismemberment

1839	Rose Garden Decree initiated the Tanzimat reforms, equal rights to all citizens
1853-1856	Britain, France, and Ottoman Empire defeated Russia in the Crimean War
1875	Ottoman government defaulted on foreign debt payments – foreign monitoring began
1878	Treaty of Berlin – Ottoman Empire lost Romania, Serbia, Bosnia, Cyprus
1908	Young Turks Revolution began
1913	Bulgaria gained independence after the Balkan Wars of 1912 and 1913
1914-1918	World War I – Ottoman Empire fought with Germany, Austria-Hungary – defeated
1915-1916	Young Turks carried out Armenian massacres
1919-1922	Turkish Nationalists defeated Greece in War of Independence, drove Greek army out of Anatolia
1920	Treaty of Sevres – Turkey a rump state in northern Anatolia – rest of Anatolia to Greece, France, Italy, Armenia, Kurdistan
1923	Treaty of Lausanne – Republic of Turkey included all of Anatolia and eastern Thrace

1923-1938	Presidency of Mustafa Kemal Atatürk
1924	Constitution banned Ottoman sultanate, Islamic caliphate
1931	formation of one-party state – Atatürk’s Republican People’s Party only legal party
1938-1950	Presidency of Ismet İnönü
1939-1945	World War II – Turkey neutral – joined Allies in February 1945
1950-2020	Democratically elected governments (and interim military governments) in Turkey
1952	Turkey joined NATO
1960-1961	First military government, after coup – suppressed unrest, restored democracy
1964	Turkey signed association agreement with European Economic Community (now European Union) – promised later accession
1971-1973	Second military government, after coup – suppressed unrest, restored democracy
1980-1983	Third military government, after coup – suppressed unrest, restored democracy
1983-1991	Motherland Party, led by Turgut Özal, won parliamentary elections and governed

1984-1999	Kurdish rebellion led by Abdullah Ocalan, PKK leader – Ocalan imprisoned in 1999
1996	Turkey signed a customs union with the European Union
2002, 2007, 2011, 2015	Justice and Development Party (AKP), led by Recep Tayyip Erdogan, won parliamentary elections and governed
2005	Turkey began negotiations with the European Union for accession to full membership
2014	Recep Tayyip Erdogan elected President
2016	unsuccessful military coup attempt – poorly planned, weakly supported, publicly resisted
2016	AKP government post-coup crackdown – dismissed 130,000 military personnel, civil servants, judges, academics, and journalists
2017	constitutional referendum – abolished post of prime minister – gave president authority to form ministries, select the cabinet, draft the budget, declare state of emergency
2018	Recep Tayyip Erdogan re-elected President
2018	Turkey intervened in Syrian Civil War – seized areas from Syrian Kurds – opposed the al-Asad government – set up buffer zone
2020	Turkey intervened in Libyan Civil War – repelled rebel militias opposing the UN-backed Libyan government in Tripoli

2020

Turkey provided military support to  
Azerbaijan – resumption of fighting against  
Armenia – control of Nagorno-Karabakh

## **Bibliography**

I am offering below annotations on selected books that I found particularly helpful in understanding Turkey's political and economic history. I have divided my recommendations into five categories – books on ancient Anatolian history, books on Roman and Byzantine Anatolian history, books on the rise of the Ottoman Empire, books on the decline of the Ottoman Empire, and books on modern Turkish history and culture. In each category, I list two highly suggested readings and two supplementary readings.

### **Books on Ancient Anatolian History**

#### Highly Suggested Readings

1. Trevor Bryce, *The Kingdom of the Hittites*, Oxford, United Kingdom: Oxford University Press, 2005. Bryce is a professor of ancient Near Eastern history at the University of Queensland, Australia and a renowned authority on the Hittite Kingdom. He has authored ten books on ancient Anatolian kingdoms. In this classic study, he explains how the land-locked Hittites expanded under Hattusili, revived under Suppiluliuma, and collapsed when waves of migrants swept across Anatolia about 1200 BCE.
2. Seton Lloyd, *Ancient Turkey, A Traveller's History*, Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1989. The late Seton Lloyd was a British archaeologist who conducted excavations in Egypt, Iraq, and Turkey and published more than a dozen books explaining his teams' findings. In this book, his last publication, Lloyd summarizes his two decades of research in ancient Anatolia. He explains the archeological importance of Çatal Huyuk and why differing Greek communities settled coastal western Anatolia.

#### Supplementary Readings

1. A. Bernard Knapp, *The History and Culture of Ancient Western Asia and Egypt*, Chicago: The Dorsey Press, 1988. This marvelously insightful book analyzes the rise and fall of dynasties in early Mesopotamia, dynastic Egypt, Anatolia, Achaemenid Persia, and the ancient Levant. Written by an anthropologist, the book adroitly weaves together the cultural, political, and economic dimensions of the cultures from which Western civilization stemmed. Copies usually can be found on used-book websites.

2. Bill Manley, *The Penguin Historical Atlas of Ancient Egypt*, London: Penguin Books, 1996. Readers who, like me, can best learn their history through maps will want to read this wonderful little historical atlas. The maps are superb in detail and coloring, the accompanying photos are more than adequate, and the text is refreshingly informative given its brevity. This book is an excellent reference work for locations and information. It explains the conflict and truce between the Hittites and the Egyptians.

### **Books on Roman and Byzantine Anatolian History**

#### Highly Suggested Readings

1. Chris Scarre, *The Penguin Historical Atlas of Ancient Rome*, London: Penguin Books Ltd, 1995. This short atlas is a well-presented compilation of essential history, amply illustrated with colored maps. This very useful little book cuts to the core to explain why the Roman Empire rose, expanded, declined, and fell during a turbulent millennium of ancient history. Busy readers can focus on the Roman expansion across Anatolia, beginning in Pergamum (130 BCE) and ending in Cappadocia (15 BCE).

2. John Julius Norwich, *A Short History of Byzantium*, New York: Vintage Books, 1997. Norwich is an historian, former diplomat, television personality, and member of the British House of Lords. He has authored multi-volume studies of Byzantium, Sicily, and Venice. This short history summarizes in 380 pages his three

classic volumes on Byzantine history. It explains the gradual decline of Byzantium, after the Seljuk Turkish victory at Manzikert (1071) and the Crusaders' sack of Constantinople (1204).

### Supplementary Readings

1. Peter Garnsey and Richard Saller, *The Roman Empire, Economy, Society and Culture*, Oakland: University of California Press, 2015. This stimulating short book contains insightful analyses of how the economy of the Roman Empire worked and how Rome's social hierarchy and culture underpinned imperial rule. The authors investigate how the small Roman bureaucracy organized and controlled the vast, multi-national empire. Although the argument and writing are dense, this book is very informative.

2. Alan Harvey, *Economic Expansion in the Byzantine Empire, 900-1200*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1989. Harvey is an economic historian who has carried out path-breaking research on the Byzantine Empire. His analysis demonstrates that the Byzantine economy progressed even while the empire's political power declined. This insightful book examines the structure of Byzantine agriculture and foreign trade and shows economic change comparable to that in medieval Western Europe.

### **Books on the Rise of the Ottoman Empire**

#### Highly Suggested Readings

1. Albert Hourani, *A History of the Arab Peoples*, Cambridge, Massachusetts: Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 2010. It is rare that a detailed history book enjoys a lengthy stay on the New York Times bestseller list. This book fully deserves all of the acclaim that it has received. It gives an insightful analysis of the rise and spread of Islam and of its impact on the Arab peoples and the Middle East. This superb book places the history of Turkey during the past fourteen centuries in a broad regional context.

2. André Clot, *Suleiman the Magnificent*, London: Saqi Books, 2005. Clot was a French historian, essayist, and journalist who spent most of his career in Turkey and other parts of the Middle East. In addition to Ottoman Turkey, Clot has written on Muslim Spain and Mamluk Egypt. This book was originally written in French in 1983. In it, Clot explains why Suleiman was the greatest Ottoman sultan. He examines Suleiman as a conqueror, a harmonizer of laws, a patron of the arts, and a murderer of his son.

### Supplementary Readings

1. Halil Inalcik, *An Economic and Social History of the Ottoman Empire, Volume One, 1300-1600*, Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press, 1997. Inalcik is a renowned authority on Ottoman social and economic history. He taught at the University of Chicago for two decades before returning to Turkey where he continues to teach and publish as he approaches age 100. This acclaimed study explains how the Ottomans used land surveys to tax agriculture and why Bursa silk was the key industry.

2. Stephen Turnbull, *The Ottoman Empire, 1326-1699*, New York: Routledge, 2003. Turnbull is a British professor at the University of Leeds who specializes in military history. He has written widely on Japan and Mongolia as well as on the Ottoman Empire. In this short book (95 pages), Turnbull shows how the Ottoman leaders built the world's most powerful army. He also explains why the Ottomans lost the land Battle of Ankara (1402) to Timur and the sea Battle of Lepanto (1571) to a European coalition.

### **Books on the Decline of the Ottoman Empire**

#### Highly Suggested Readings

1. Douglas A. Howard, *The History of Turkey*, Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Press, 2001. Howard, an American historian, wrote this 200-page book for the series, The Greenwood

Histories of the Modern Nations. This well-crafted essay is the best short summary of Turkey's history. The two chapters on the decline of the Ottoman Empire are especially insightful. Howard shows how succession struggles, military stagnation, and European technical advances overcame earlier Ottoman advantages.

2. Lord Kinross, *The Ottoman Centuries, The Rise and Fall of the Turkish Empire*, New York: Morrow Quill Paperbacks, 1977. Kinross was a Scottish historian who published widely on Turkey, Egypt, and Greece. This monumental book (620 pages) remains a classic study of the Ottoman Empire. Kinross is equally adept in interpreting political, economic, and diplomatic history. His writing is clear and entertaining. The book is particularly good in weaving together the many related causes of Ottoman decline.

### Supplementary Readings

1. Suraiya Faroqhi, Bruce McGowan, Donald Quataert, and Sevket Pamuk, *An Economic and Social History of the Ottoman Empire, Volume Two, 1600-1914*, Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press, 1997. This extraordinary, 1000-page book is the definitive study of the economy of the later Ottoman Empire – population and society, agriculture and land tenure, trade and transport, manufacturing and policy. The book is full of useful information and insights, but the writing is scholarly and dense.

2. Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Horizon, A History of the Ottoman Empire*, New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1998. Goodwin is an award-winning British travel writer and novelist who occasionally writes books on history. This book is recommended for those who prefer to read picaresque history, studded with colorful anecdotes. Goodwin is especially effective in describing historical turning points, such as the Ottoman defeat at the Battle of Vienna (1683), and shifts in military technology and tactics.

### **Books on Modern Turkish History and Culture**

## Highly Suggested Readings

1. Nicole Pope and Hugh Pope, *Turkey Unveiled, A History of Modern Turkey*, New York: The Overlook Press, 2011. The Popes are journalists who have reported from Turkey for two decades and authored several books on modern Turkey. This book is the best written and most comprehensive history of the Republic of Turkey. It offers penetrating insights into all of the key Turkish leaders – Atatürk, İnönü, Demirel, Özal, and Erdogan – and into the ongoing struggle to accommodate Turkey’s 15 million Kurds.

2. Andrew Finkel, *Turkey, What Everyone Needs To Know*, Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press, 2011, 189 pages. Finkel is an American journalist who has lived in Istanbul and reported on Turkey for three decades. In this brief account, he searches for historical antecedents – the Ottoman Empire, Atatürk’s revolution, post-World War II military coups – to explain Turkey’s rapid economic progress and its recent turn toward political Islamism. Finkel adroitly examines Turkish politics, economics, and culture.

## Supplementary Readings

1. Erik J. Zürcher, *Turkey, A Modern History*, London: I. B. Tauris, 2004. Zürcher teaches Turkish studies at the University of Leiden. This book is the third edition of his 340-page textbook on modern Turkey. It contains a valuable biographical section on the key figures in the past two centuries of Turkish history. Zürcher is especially good in interpreting Turkish events in an international context, such as overcoming the disastrous Treaty of Sevres (1920) and applying for accession to the European Union (1987).

2. Andrew Mango, *Atatürk, The Biography of the Founder of Modern Turkey*, Woodstock, New York: The Overlook Press, 1999. Mango was a British journalist with the BBC and an historian, who wrote numerous books on modern Turkey. His 540-page biography of Mustafa Kemal Atatürk is the classic work on

this monumental figure. Mango introduces readers to Atatürk's background, character, and military successes, and he carefully analyzes Atatürk's heavy-handed yet essential secularist reforms.

## **Sites Visited in Turkey**

### **Dalmatian Coast: An Adriatic Sea Adventure**

**Chief Executives Organization (CEO)**

**July 28-August 7, 2018**

**Ship-based aboard the *Le Lyrial***

### **Ephesus**

Ephesus is an archaeological site on the Ionian Coast of western Turkey. Ionians Greek migrants settled Ephesus as a port colony between 1000 and 800 BCE. The Romans gained control of Ephesus in 130 BCE and turned it into the Roman capital of Asia and one of the leading cities in the Roman Empire. At its peak in the 2<sup>nd</sup> century CE, Ephesus had 200,000 permanent residents. The city was a leading Aegean seaport, an administrative and artisanal center, a pilgrimage site for the cult of Artemis, and the heart of a fertile agricultural area. Ephesus declined in the 7<sup>th</sup> century, after the Cayster River silted its port and Arabs sacked the city, and it was abandoned in the 15<sup>th</sup> century. Archaeological excavations of Ephesus began in the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century, and today it is one of the finest extant representations of an ancient Roman city.

From the Turkish port of Kusadasi, we bussed to a small mountain to visit the House of the Virgin Mary, a Catholic shrine created in 1957 to commemorate the site where the Virgin Mary is believed to have lived during the last nine years of her life. We drove on to Ephesus and walked the standard tourist path down the two main roads of the city. Ephesus provides an incredibly rich introduction to Roman urban life in the 2<sup>nd</sup> century CE, because its ruins include a diverse range of buildings and amenities – a library, a theater (with 25,000 seats), four aqueducts, two Agoras (market places), an Odeon (small theater or meeting house), public baths, a public latrine, numerous temples, paved streets, and water and

sewage pipes. The Roman ruins at Ephesus offer a broad understanding of what opulent Roman life must have been like.

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**Macro Polo Expedition**  
**Stanford Travel/Study Program**  
**October 2-25, 2016**  
**Land-based and International and Domestic Flights**

**Istanbul**

Our first destination on the Marco Polo Expedition was Istanbul – the capital of the Byzantine Empire for 1,100 years (as Constantinople) and, after 1453, the capital of the Ottoman Empire for 470 years. Roman Emperor Constantine built Constantinople as an impregnable fortress, and the city withstood Arab and Persian sieges before finally falling to the Ottoman Turks in 1453. The Ottoman Empire had not begun when the Polos visited Constantinople in 1295, en route from Daidu (Beijing) to Venice. But at its peak, *c.* 1600, the Ottoman state was the most powerful in Europe and the Middle East. Today, Istanbul is a booming city of 15 million residents spreading across both sides of the Bosphorus in Europe and Asia.

Most of the Stanford group had previously visited this magnificent city. Hence, we saw less common sites during our brief stay in Istanbul. We explored modern Istanbul, and we visited the Sakip Sabanci Museum (a private, fine arts museum) and the Museum of Innocence (which Orhan Pamuk created in conjunction with his eponymous 2008 novel, using funds from his 2006 Nobel Prize in Literature). Like most tourists, we also enjoyed a delightful cruise on the Bosphorus, which offers a contrast of the European and Asian parts of the city. Despite the recent slowdown in Turkish

economic growth, we observed an endless urban forest of construction cranes on both continents.

### **Kars, Ani, and Dogubayazit**

Kars is a small city of 100,000 residents in the northeastern corner of Turkey, which served as the setting for Orhan Pamuk's novel, *Snow*. We were in search of evidence of the Armenia that the three Polos saw when they passed through eastern Anatolia in the early 1270s. When we visited the Archeological Museum in Kars, we found no mention of the Armenians who occupied the region for two millennia. Then we drove southward to Ani and walked through the incredible ruins of the former Armenian capital, which probably housed at least 100,000 people in the 10<sup>th</sup> century. The stonework in Ani's former Armenian Orthodox Cathedral was especially impressive. Ani was abandoned in the 16<sup>th</sup> century after trade on the Silk Road ceased.

We next drove southward on a road paralleling Turkey's closed border with Armenia and marveled at the beauty of Greater and Lesser Mts. Ararat, at 16,850 feet and 12,780 feet, respectively, Turkey's highest and best-known mountains. However, we saw no evidence of Noah's Ark resting on either Mt. Ararat. We continued on to Dogubayazit, a busy border town on Turkey's main commercial highway into Iran. Nearby, we toured the Ishak Pasha Fortress/Palace, a monumental stone structure of 300 rooms, constructed over a century after 1784 with funds diverted from Ottoman Sultans.

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**Budapest to Tehran by Train**  
**Stanford Travel/Study Program**  
**March 26-April 13, 2016**

## **Train, Aboard the *Golden Eagle Danube Express***

### **Istanbul**

We divided into four small groups to visit Istanbul's historical highlights – the 6<sup>th</sup>-century Hagia Sophia (built by Byzantine Emperor Justinian), the 14<sup>th</sup>-century Byzantine Church of St. Saviour (Chora), the 15<sup>th</sup>-century Topkapi Palace (begun by Ottoman Sultan Mehmet II), the 16<sup>th</sup>-century Suleimaniye Mosque (Ottoman Sultan Suleiman I), and the 17<sup>th</sup>-century Blue Mosque (Ottoman Sultan Ahmed I). We explored modern Istanbul, visited the Museum of Modern Art and the Pamuk Museum of Innocence, cruised the Bosphorus, and took a culinary tour to learn about and taste Turkey's varied cuisine. Despite the recent slowdown in Turkish economic growth, we saw endless construction cranes as we bussed from the train station in Tekirdag (west of Istanbul in European Turkey) to central Istanbul and later from the city center to the Izmit train station (east of Istanbul in Asian Turkey).

### **Cappadocia**

Our second stop in Turkey, Cappadocia, took us back in time. Cappadocia gives the physical appearance of medieval mysticism. Its eroded volcanic landscapes are among the most variegated in the world. Active volcanic eruptions in Cappadocia ended about 2 million years ago. Water and wind erosion then sculpted amazing rock formations. When the Roman Empire viciously persecuted Christians in the 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, and early 4<sup>th</sup> centuries, the Christian residents of Cappadocia expanded Hittite underground villages in the tufa (hardened volcanic ash) to escape. Kaymakli still features a four-story-deep, ancient underground city. Cappadocia remained a center of Christian settlement until the last Orthodox believers were relocated to Greece in the exchange of populations that accompanied the establishment of the Republic of Turkey in 1923. A few contemporary Turks still live in natural caves.

Our visit to Cappadocia featured a tour of the Goreme open-air museum, where we marveled at the exquisitely sculpted “fairy chimney” formations and entered six, cave-built Byzantine churches, constructed between the 9<sup>th</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup> centuries. The oldest, the Buckle Church, contains beautiful representations of Byzantine Orthodox Christian religious art. We also attended an evening ritual performance of six Sufi dancers (whirling dervishes) accompanied by four musicians.

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**Suitcase Seminar in Turkey**  
**Stanford Travel/Study Program**  
**May 19-June 6, 2007**  
**Land-based**

**Ankara**

Our group convened in Ankara, the capital of Turkey, located in the north-central part of the Anatolian plateau. We were surprised to observe the massive amount of privately-financed construction taking place there – and in almost all of the other key cities in western Turkey. In Ankara, we focused on two extremes in Turkish history – the ancient period, observable in the archaeological museum (the Museum of Anatolian Civilizations), and the twentieth century, highlighted by the magnificent mausoleum dedicated to Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, the founding father of the Republic of Turkey. A century ago, Ankara was a sleepy provincial town of 20,000 inhabitants. Today, it is a booming capital city of perhaps five million people. It is a great place to witness the remarkable changes and consequent conflicts that are engulfing modern Turkey.

**Konya**

Our bus tour across central-western Turkey then moved on to Konya, a city of stark contrasts. Konya has the reputation of being one of the most culturally conservative cities in Turkey. The city was the capital of the first Turkish kingdom in Anatolia – the Seljuk Sultanate of Rum – in the 12<sup>th</sup> and 13<sup>th</sup> centuries. Before entering Konya, we stopped at the Sultanhani Caravanserai, one of the many truck-stops that the Seljuks maintained to encourage trade across Anatolia. Konya’s residents have retained their strong belief in Sunni Islam, and Konya also houses the Mevlana Rumi Museum and Mausoleum to honor the 13<sup>th</sup>-century founder of Sufism, which we visited. But Konya today is also a booming manufacturing center. Outside the city is a huge Mercedes-Benz factory that makes trucks sold throughout the Middle East.

## **Antalya**

We motored south across the scenic Taurus Mountains to Antalya, on the Mediterranean coast of southern Turkey. Antalya, reminiscent of the French Riviera, is experiencing a boom in tourism, featuring visitors from Western Europe and Russia. But we did not go to Antalya to be among hordes of tourists. Instead, we drove outside of the city to observe nearby ruins from Greek, Persian, Hellenistic, Roman, Byzantine, Arabic, and Turkish civilizations that inhabited the Turquoise Coast during the past three millennia. One day, we hiked up to Termessos, the incredible fortress city built on the top of a mountain, now protected by a national park. On another, we walked through the extensive ruins of Perge, saw the well-preserved Roman aqueducts and theatre of Aspendos, and were in awe of the Perge statues in the Antalya archaeological museum.

## **Fethiye and Gulets**

En route from Antalya to the port of Fethiye, we stopped at the charming seaside town of Kas and had our best meal of the trip – an informal lunch at the Eris Restaurant. At Fethiye, we split the group and boarded three gulets, modest yet elegant Turkish motorized yachts. The next five days were magical. Gulet-cruising is the transportation mode of choice to visit coastal Turkey. We swam and kayaked in the Mediterranean and Aegean Seas, ate fresh meals prepared by our on-board chefs, played bridge, danced, and went ashore for a few hours each day to visit ancient ruins. We explored Byzantine churches on St. Nicholas Island (yes, the original Santa Claus came from southeastern Turkey), the Hellenistic (and later Roman) city of Kaunos, Lycian rock tombs, a Hellenistic fortress at Loryma, and the Dorian (and later Greco-Roman) city of Knidos.

## **Bodrum**

We disembarked our gulets in Bodrum. Bodrum was founded nearly 3,000 years ago as the Dorian city of Halicarnassus at a critically important site – the southwestern corner of Anatolia, where the Aegean and Mediterranean Seas meet. We visited the Nautical Archaeological Museum and saw incredible artifacts from a 3300-year-old shipwreck. In two consecutive days, we went to the sites of two of the seven wonders of the ancient world – the Mausoleum of Halicarnassus in Bodrum and the Temple of Artemis in Ephesus.

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