

## 1: Suleiman the Magnificent - Wikipedia

*The Ottoman Empire and its successors, Being a rev. and enl. ed. of The Ottoman Empire, Item Preview remove-circle Share or Embed This Item.*

Suleiman during the Siege of Rhodes in Upon succeeding his father, Suleiman began a series of military conquests, eventually suppressing a revolt led by the Ottoman-appointed governor of Damascus in Its capture was vital in removing the Hungarians and Croats who, following the defeats of the Albanians , Bosniaks , Bulgarians , Byzantines and the Serbs , remained the only formidable force who could block further Ottoman gains in Europe. Suleiman encircled Belgrade and began a series of heavy bombardments from an island in the Danube. Belgrade, with a garrison of only men, and receiving no aid from Hungary, fell in August As the ambassador of the Holy Roman Empire to Constantinople was to note, "The capture of Belgrade was at the origin of the dramatic events which engulfed Hungary. It led to the death of King Louis , the capture of Buda , the occupation of Transylvania , the ruin of a flourishing kingdom and the fear of neighboring nations that they would suffer the same fate In the summer of , taking advantage of the large navy he inherited from his father, Suleiman dispatched an armada of some ships towards Rhodes, while personally leading an army of , across Asia Minor to a point opposite the island itself. Following the brutal five-month Siege of Rhodes , Rhodes capitulated and Suleiman allowed the Knights of Rhodes to depart. In its wake, Hungarian resistance collapsed, and the Ottoman Empire became the preeminent power in Central Europe. Reacting in , Suleiman marched through the valley of the Danube and regained control of Buda; in the following autumn, his forces laid siege to Vienna. In both cases, the Ottoman army was plagued by bad weather, forcing them to leave behind essential siege equipment, and was hobbled by overstretched supply lines. In the Habsburgs attempted to lay siege to Buda but were repulsed, and more Habsburg fortresses were captured by the Ottomans in two consecutive campaigns in and as a result, [31] Ferdinand and Charles were forced to conclude a humiliating five-year treaty with Suleiman. Ferdinand renounced his claim to the Kingdom of Hungary and was forced to pay a fixed yearly sum to the Sultan for the Hungarian lands he continued to control. Two events in particular were to precipitate a recurrence of tensions. First, Shah Tahmasp had the Baghdad governor loyal to Suleiman killed and replaced with an adherent of the Shah, and second, the governor of Bitlis had defected and sworn allegiance to the Safavids. Having joined Ibrahim in , Suleiman made a push towards Persia, only to find the Shah sacrificing territory instead of facing a pitched battle, resorting to harassment of the Ottoman army as it proceeded along the harsh interior. As in the previous attempt, Tahmasp avoided confrontation with the Ottoman army and instead chose to retreat, using scorched earth tactics in the process and exposing the Ottoman army to the harsh winter of the Caucasus. Part of the treaty included and confirmed the return of Tabriz, but secured Baghdad, lower Mesopotamia , the mouths of the river Euphrates and Tigris , as well as part of the Persian Gulf. Ottoman ships had been sailing in the Indian Ocean since the year The Mughal Emperor Akbar himself is known to have exchanged six documents with Suleiman the Magnificent. Aden in Yemen was captured by the Ottomans in , in order to provide an Ottoman base for raids against Portuguese possessions on the western coast of India. After the first Ajuran-Portuguese war , the Ottoman Empire would in absorb the weakened Adal Sultanate into its domain. This expansion fathered Ottoman rule in Somalia and the Horn of Africa. This also increased its influence in the Indian Ocean to compete with the Portuguese Empire with its close ally the Ajuran Empire. As a result, an Ottoman expedition to Aceh was launched, which was able to provide extensive military support to the Acehnese. The Portuguese discovery of the Cape of Good Hope in initiated a series of Ottoman-Portuguese naval wars in the Indian Ocean throughout the 16th century. The Ajuran Sultanate allied with the Ottomans defied the Portuguese economic monopoly in the Indian Ocean by employing a new coinage which followed the Ottoman pattern, thus proclaiming an attitude of economic independence in regard to the Portuguese. Recognizing the need to reassert naval preeminence in the Mediterranean , Suleiman appointed an exceptional naval commander in the form of Khair ad Din , known to Europeans as Barbarossa. Once appointed admiral-in-chief, Barbarossa was charged with rebuilding the Ottoman fleet, to such an extent that the Ottoman navy equaled in number those of all other Mediterranean

countries put together. John [24] to victory against the Ottomans at Tunis , which together with the war against Venice the following year, led Suleiman to accept proposals from Francis I of France to form an alliance against Charles. The Siege of Malta in As a result, Suleiman dispatched galleys [49] under Barbarossa to assist the French in the western Mediterranean. Barbarossa attacked and captured Nice in As the historian Lord Kinross notes, "Not only was he a great military campaigner, a man of the sword, as his father and great-grandfather had been before him. He differed from them in the extent to which he was also a man of the pen. He was a great legislator, standing out in the eyes of his people as a high-minded sovereign and a magnanimous exponent of justice". After eliminating duplications and choosing between contradictory statements, he issued a single legal code, all the while being careful not to violate the basic laws of Islam. His Kanune Raya, or "Code of the Rayas", reformed the law governing levies and taxes to be paid by the rayas, raising their status above serfdom to the extent that Christian serfs would migrate to Turkish territories to benefit from the reforms. In the area of taxation, taxes were levied on various goods and produce, including animals, mines, profits of trade, and import-export duties. In addition to taxes, officials who had fallen into disrepute were likely to have their land and property confiscated by the Sultan. Schools attached to mosques and funded by religious foundations provided a largely free education to Muslim boys in advance of the Christian countries of the time. Educational centers were often one of many buildings surrounding the courtyards of mosques, others included libraries, baths, soup kitchens, residences and hospitals for the benefit of the public. After an apprenticeship, artists and craftsmen could advance in rank within their field and were paid commensurate wages in quarterly annual installments. When his young son Mehmed died in , he composed a moving chronogram to commemorate the year: Peerless among princes, my Sultan Mehmed. The literary historian Elias John Wilkinson Gibb observed that "at no time, even in Turkey, was greater encouragement given to poetry than during the reign of this Sultan". The people think of wealth and power as the greatest fate, But in this world a spell of health is the best state. What men call sovereignty is a worldly strife and constant war; Worship of God is the highest throne, the happiest of all estates. Suleiman also became renowned for sponsoring a series of monumental architectural developments within his empire. The Sultan sought to turn Constantinople into the center of Islamic civilization by a series of projects, including bridges, mosques, palaces and various charitable and social establishments. Suleiman also restored the Dome of the Rock in Jerusalem and the Walls of Jerusalem which are the current walls of the Old City of Jerusalem , renovated the Kaaba in Mecca , and constructed a complex in Damascus.

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The successive waves of Turkic migrations had driven unrelated individuals and groups across central Anatolia. The Ottoman state to The political, economic, and social institutions of the classical Islamic empires were amalgamated with those inherited from Byzantium and the great Turkish empires of Central Asia and were reestablished in new forms that were to characterize the area into modern times. Origins and expansion of the Ottoman state, c. Those nomads, migrating from Central Asia, established themselves as the Seljuq dynasty in Iran and Mesopotamia in the mid 11th century, overwhelmed Byzantium after the Battle of Manzikert, and occupied eastern and central Anatolia during the 12th century. The ghazis fought against the Byzantines and then the Mongols, who invaded Anatolia following the establishment of the Il-Khanid Ilhanid empire in Iran and Mesopotamia in the last half of the 13th century. With the disintegration of Seljuq power and its replacement by Mongol suzerainty, enforced by direct military occupation of much of eastern Anatolia, independent Turkmen principalities—one of which was led by Osman—emerged in the remainder of Anatolia. Osman and Orhan Following the final Mongol defeat of the Seljuqs in 1258, Osman emerged as prince bey of the border principality that took over Byzantine Bithynia in northwestern Anatolia around Bursa, commanding the ghazis against the Byzantines in that area. Hemmed in on the east by the more powerful Turkmen principality of Germiyan, Osman and his immediate successors concentrated their attacks on Byzantine territories bordering the Bosphorus and the Sea of Marmara to the west. The Ottomans, left as the major Muslim rivals of Byzantium, attracted masses of nomads and urban unemployed who were roaming through the Middle East searching for means to gain their livelihoods and seeking to fulfill their religious desire to expand the territory of Islam. The Ottomans were able to take advantage of the decay of the Byzantine frontier defense system and the rise of economic, religious, and social discontent in the Byzantine Empire and, beginning under Osman and continuing under his successors Orhan Orkhan, ruled 1281–1326 and Murad I 1326–1389, took over Byzantine territories, first in western Anatolia and then in southeastern Europe. It was only under Bayezid I 1389–1402 that the wealth and power gained by that initial expansion were used to assimilate the Anatolian Turkish principalities to the east. The Ottomans lacked effective siege equipment, however, and were unable to take the major cities of Bithynia. Orhan began the military policy, expanded by his successors, of employing Christian mercenary troops, thus lessening his dependence on the nomads. Orhan soon was able to capture the remaining Byzantine towns in northwestern Anatolia: He then moved against his major Turkmen neighbours to the south. The consequent entry of Ottoman troops into Europe gave them a direct opportunity to see the possibilities for conquest offered by Byzantine decadence. Ottoman raiding parties began to move regularly through Gallipoli into Thrace. Huge quantities of captured booty strengthened Ottoman power and attracted thousands from the uprooted Turkmen masses of Anatolia into Ottoman service. Cantacuzenus soon fell from power, at least partially because of his cooperation with the Turks, and Europe began to be aware of the extent of the Turkish danger. Constantinople itself was bypassed, despite the weakness and disorganization of its defenders, because its thick walls and well-placed defenses remained too strong for the nomadic Ottoman army, which continued to lack siege equipment. Renamed Edirne, the city became the new Ottoman capital, providing the Ottomans with a centre for the administrative and military control of Thrace. As the main fortress between Constantinople and the Danube River, it controlled the principal invasion road through the Balkan Mountains, assured Ottoman retention of their European conquests, and facilitated further expansion to the north. The Byzantine emperor John V Palaeologus tried to mobilize European assistance by uniting the churches of Constantinople and Rome, but that effort only further divided Byzantium without assuring any concrete help from the West. Murad next incorporated into the rapidly expanding empire many European vassals. He retained local native rulers, who in return accepted his suzerainty, paid annual tributes, and provided contingents for his army when required. That policy enabled the Ottomans generally to avoid local resistance by assuring rulers and subjects that their lives, properties,

traditions, and positions would be preserved if they peacefully accepted Ottoman rule. It also enabled the Ottomans to govern the newly conquered areas without building up a vast administrative system of their own or maintaining substantial occupation garrisons. South of the Danube only Walachia , Bosnia, Albania , Greece , and the Serbian fort of Belgrade remained outside Ottoman rule, and to the north Hungary alone was in a position to resist further Muslim advances. Bayezid I Murad was killed during the Battle of Kosovo. In fact, he was compelled to restore the defeated vassals and return to Anatolia. That return was precipitated by the rising threat of the Turkmen principality of Karaman , created on the ruins of the Seljuq empire of Anatolia with its capital at Konya. They had, however, expanded peacefully through marriage alliances and the purchase of territories. The acquisition of territory in central Anatolia from the emirates of Hamid and Germiyan had brought the Ottomans into direct contact with Karaman for the first time. Murad had been compelled to take some military action to prevent it from occupying his newly acquired Anatolian territories but then had turned back to Europe, leaving the unsolved problem to his successor son. Bayezid I, undated engraving. That opposition strengthened the Balkan Union that was routed by the Ottomans at Kosovo and stimulated a general revolt in Anatolia that Bayezid was forced to meet by an open attack as soon as he was able. By Bayezid had overwhelmed and annexed all the remaining Turkmen principalities in western Anatolia. He attacked and defeated Karaman in , annexed several Turkmen states in eastern Anatolia, and was preparing to complete his conquest in the area when he was forced to turn back to Europe to deal with a revolt of some of his Balkan vassals, encouraged and assisted by Hungary and Byzantium. Bayezid quickly smashed the rebels in 1393 , occupied Bulgaria and installed direct Ottoman administration for the first time, and besieged Constantinople. In response, Hungary organized a major European Crusade against the Ottomans. Turning back to Anatolia to complete the conquests aborted by his move against the Crusaders, Bayezid overran Karaman, the last Turkmen principality, in His advances, however, attracted the attention of Timur Tamerlane , who had been building a powerful Tatar empire in Central Asia, Iran, Afghanistan , and Mesopotamia and whose invasion of India in had been halted by his fear of the rising Ottoman power on his western flank. Left only with forces provided by his Christian vassals, Bayezid was decisively overwhelmed by Timur at the Battle of Ankara in Taken captive, Bayezid died within a year. He thus followed his victory by retiring from Anatolia after restoring to power the Turkmen princes who had joined him; evidently Timur assumed that a divided Anatolia would constitute no threat to his ambitions. At that time a strong European Crusade might have pushed the Ottomans out of Europe altogether, but weakness and division south of the Danube and diversion to other matters to the north left an opportunity for the Ottomans to restore what had been torn asunder without significant loss. The descendants of the Turkmen notables who had assisted the early Ottoman conquests in Europe supported the claims of Mehmed. Mehmed restored the vassal system in Bulgaria and Serbia , promising that he would not undertake new European adventures. Murad II was also compelled to devote most of the early years of his reign to internal problems, particularly to the efforts of the ghazi commanders and Balkan vassal princes in Europe , as well as the Turkmen vassals and princes in Anatolia, to retain the autonomy and independence that had been gained during the Interregnum. In 1423 Murad suppressed the Balkan resistance and put Constantinople under a new siege that ended only after the Byzantines provided him with huge amounts of tribute. The war was indecisive for some time. Venice was diverted by conflicts in Italy and in any case lacked the force to meet the Ottomans on land, while the Ottomans needed time to build a naval force sufficient to compete with that of the Venetians. In addition, Murad was diverted by an effort of Hungary to establish its rule in Walachia, between the Danube and the Transylvanian Alps , a move that inaugurated a series of Ottoman-Hungarian conflicts which were to occupy much of the remainder of his reign. Murad finally built a fleet strong enough to blockade Salonika and enable his army to conquer it in Murad, who had been put on the throne by Turkish notables who had joined the Ottoman state during the first century of its existence, soon began to resent the power they had gained in return; the power of those notables was also enhanced by the great new estates they had built up in the conquered areas of Europe and Anatolia. He took advantage of the death in of the Hungarian king Sigismund to reoccupy Serbia except Belgrade and to ravage much of Hungary. He then annexed Serbia in , beginning a policy of replacing the vassals with direct Ottoman rule throughout the empire. Hungarian control of Belgrade

became the primary obstacle to large-scale advances north of the Danube. By its terms Serbia regained its autonomy, Hungary kept Wallachia and Belgrade, and the Ottomans promised to end their raids north of the Danube. In 1444 Murad also made peace with his main Anatolian enemy, Karaman, and retired to a life of religious contemplation, voluntarily passing the throne to his young son Mehmed II. The Byzantines and Pope Eugenius IV sought to use the opportunity created by the rule of a youthful and inexperienced sultan to expel the Ottomans from Europe, organizing a new Crusade "joined by Hungary and Venice" after the pope assured them that they were not bound to honour the peace treaty they had signed with Muslim infidels. A Crusader army moved through Serbia across the Balkan Mountains to the Black Sea at Varna, Bulgaria, where it was to be supplied and transported to Constantinople by a Venetian fleet that would sail through the straits, while using its power to prevent Murad from returning from Anatolia with the bulk of the Ottoman army. Though the Crusaders reached Varna, they were left stranded by a Serbian decision to remain loyal to the sultan and by Venetian reluctance to fulfill its part of the agreement for fear of losing its trade position in the event of an Ottoman victory. Further quarrels among the Crusade leaders gave Murad time to return from Anatolia and organize a new army. The Turkish victory at the Battle of Varna on November 10, 1444, ended the last important European Crusading effort against the Ottomans. Only Albania was able to resist, because of the leadership of its national hero, Skanderbeg George Kastrioti, who finally was routed by the sultan at the second Battle of Kosovo. Constantinople became their first objective. To Mehmed and his supporters, the Ottoman dominions in Europe could never reach their full extent or be molded into a real empire as long as their natural administrative and cultural centre remained outside their hands. Mehmed built Rumeli Fortress on the European side of the Bosphorus, from which he conducted the siege April 6 "May 29, and conquest of Constantinople. The transformation of that city into the Ottoman capital of Istanbul marked an important new stage in Ottoman history. Moreover, the possession of Constantinople stimulated in Mehmed a desire to place under his dominion not merely the Islamic and Turkic worlds but also a re-created Byzantine Empire and, perhaps, the entire world of Christendom. To pursue those objectives, Mehmed II developed various bases of power. Domestically, his primary objective was to restore Istanbul, which he had spared from devastation during the conquest, as the political, economic, and social centre of the area that it formerly had dominated. He worked to repopulate the city not only with its former inhabitants but also with elements of all the conquered peoples of the empire, whose residence and intermingling there would provide a model for a powerful and integrated empire. While thousands of Christians and Muslims were brought to the city, Greeks and Armenians were disinclined to accept Muslim Ottoman rule and sought to secure new European Crusades. Mehmed thus gave special attention to attracting Jews from central and western Europe, where they were being subjected to increasing persecution. The loyalty of those Jews to the Ottomans was induced by that of their coreligionists in Byzantium, who had supported and assisted the Ottoman conquests after the long-standing persecution to which they had been subjected by the Greek Orthodox Church and its followers. Under Ottoman rule the major religious groups were allowed to establish their own self-governing communities, called millets, each retaining its own religious laws, traditions, and language under the general protection of the sultan. Millets were led by religious chiefs, who served as secular as well as religious leaders and thus had a substantial interest in the continuation of Ottoman rule. Mehmed used the conquering army to restore the physical structure of the city. Mehmed also devoted much time to expanding his dominions in Europe and Asia in order to establish his claim to world leadership. To that end he eliminated the last vassal princes who might have disputed his claims to be legitimate successor to the Byzantine and Seljuq dynasties, establishing direct Ottoman administration in most of the provinces throughout the empire. In addition, he extended Ottoman rule far beyond the territories inherited from Murad II. From 1452 he concentrated mainly on southeastern Europe, annexing Serbia "55 and conquering the Morea "60, in the process eliminating the last major claimants to the Byzantine throne. When Venice refused to surrender its important ports along the Aegean coast of the Morea, Mehmed inaugurated the second Ottoman-Venetian war " In 1478 he annexed Trebizond and the Genoese commercial colonies that had survived along the Black Sea coast of Anatolia, including Sinop and Kafa, and began the process by which the Crimean Tatar khans were compelled to accept Ottoman suzerainty. In 1481 he occupied and annexed Bosnia. When Albania continued to hold out, helped by

supplies sent by sea from Venice, Mehmed sent in large numbers of Turkmen irregulars, who in the process of conquering Albania settled there and formed the nucleus of a Muslim community that has remained to the present day. Mehmed, however, skillfully used dynastic divisions to conquer Karaman in 1402, thereby extending direct Ottoman rule in Anatolia to the Euphrates. Mehmed, however, was able to defeat each of those enemies. He then turned to Venice, initiating several naval raids along the Adriatic coast that finally led to a peace in 1479, whereby Venice surrendered its bases in Albania and the Morea and agreed to pay a regular annual tribute in return for restoration of its commercial privileges. Mehmed then used his new naval power to attack the island of Rhodes and to send a large force that landed at Otranto in southern Italy in 1480. Success appeared imminent, but his premature death in 1481 brought the effort to an end. Nevertheless, Mehmed had laid the foundations for Ottoman rule in Anatolia and southeastern Europe that was to survive for the next four centuries. In addition to conquering a large empire, Mehmed worked to consolidate it and to codify the political, administrative, religious, and legal institutions developed during the previous century by promulgating a series of secular laws *kanun* compiled by subject into law codes called *kanunnames*. The immensity of the task, however, and his diversion in numerous campaigns delayed the process to such an extent that it was completed only during the mid-15th century. Mehmed also had only limited success in building the economic and social bases of his empire. His most important problem was securing enough money to finance his military expeditions and the new apparatus of government and society. The tax systems inherited from his predecessors did not provide the required resources, particularly because most of the conquered lands were turned into estates *timars* whose taxes went entirely to their holders in return for military and administrative services.

## 3: List of sultans of the Ottoman Empire - Wikipedia

*Valentine Chirol; The Ottoman Empire and its Successors, , Journal of the British Institute of International Affairs, Volume 2, Issue 3, 1 May , We use cookies to enhance your experience on our website.*

The peak of Ottoman power, the Domination of southeastern Europe and the Middle East During the century that followed the reign of Mehmed II , the Ottoman Empire achieved the peak of its power and wealth. New conquests extended its domain well into central Europe and throughout the Arab portion of the old Islamic caliphate , and a new amalgam of political, religious, social, and economic organizations and traditions was institutionalized and developed into a living, working whole. Bayezid was installed on the throne by the Janissaries because of their military domination of the capital, while his more militant brother Cem fled to Anatolia , where he led a revolt initially supported by the Turkish notables. Cem remained in exile, first at the court of the Crusading Knights of Rhodes and then with the pope in Rome, until his death in European efforts to use him as the spearhead of a new Crusade to regain Istanbul were unsuccessful. In the meantime, however, the threat that Cem might lead a foreign attack compelled Bayezid to concentrate on internal consolidation. Most of the property confiscated by his father for military campaigns was restored to its original owners. Equal taxes were established around the empire so that all subjects could fulfill their obligations to the government without the kind of disruption and dissatisfaction that had characterized the previous regime. To that end, thousands of Jews expelled from Spain by the Inquisition during the summer of were encouraged to immigrate to the Ottoman Empire. Bayezid II completed the effort begun by Mehmed II to replace the vassals with direct Ottoman administration throughout the empire. For the first time the central government regularly operated under a balanced budget. Culturally, Bayezid stimulated a strong reaction against the Christianizing trends of the previous half century. The Turkish language and Muslim traditions were emphasized. In Europe he rounded off the empire south of the Danube and Sava rivers by taking Herzegovina , leaving only Belgrade outside Ottoman control. To the northeast the sultan pushed Ottoman territory north of the Danube, along the shores of the Black Sea , capturing in the ports of Kilia present-day Kiliya and Akkerman Bilhorod-Dnistrovskyy both in what is now Ukraine which controlled the mouths of the Danube and Dniester. Because those advances conflicted with the ambitions of Poland , in 1544 war ensued, until the diversion of Poland by the threat of Muscovy under Ivan III the Great left that front quiet also after Venice had been encouraging revolts against the sultan in the Morea Peloponnese and in Dalmatia and Albania , which it had ceded to the Ottomans in 1570. Bayezid also hoped to conquer the last Venetian ports in the Morea to establish bases for complete Ottoman naval control of the eastern Mediterranean. All those objectives, except control of Cyprus, were achieved in the war with Venice that followed in 1571. The Ottoman fleet emerged for the first time as a major Mediterranean naval power, and the Ottomans became an integral part of European diplomatic relations. Bayezid never was able to use that situation to make new conquests in Europe, because the rise of revolts in eastern Anatolia occupied much of his attention during the last years of his reign. There the old conflict resumed between the autonomous , uncivilized nomads and the stable, settled Middle Eastern civilization of the Ottomans. The Turkmen nomads resisted the efforts of the Ottomans to expand their administrative control to all parts of the empire. A series of revolts resulted, which Bayezid was unable or unwilling to suppress, because of his involvements in Europe and because his mystic preferences inclined him to sympathize with the religious message of the rebels. That action deprived potential opponents of alternative leaders around whom they could coalesce. A relative lack of booty and supplies compared with campaigns in Europe also weakened morale. Those acquisitions were of immense importance to the Ottomans. Under efficient administration the new conquests provided Istanbul with revenues that solved the financial problems left from the 15th century and made the empire one of the most powerful and wealthy states in the 16th century. Acquisition of the holy places of Islam cemented the position of the sultan as the most important Islamic ruler, though he and his successors declined to claim the position of caliph , religious leader of Islam, until the late 18th century. From the Arab world there came to Istanbul the leading Muslim intellectuals , artisans, administrators, and artists of the time, who penetrated every facet of Ottoman life and made the

empire much more of a traditional Islamic state than it ever had been before. It now remained for the Ottomans to restore the full prosperity of their Middle Eastern dominions by countering Portuguese naval activities in the Eastern seas that sought to prevent European shippers from using the old routes, a campaign that had some success well into the 16th century. Order and security finally were reestablished throughout the area, and the stability of Middle Eastern society was restored under the guidance and protection of powerful imperial orders. The Islamic world, however, was left permanently divided, with Iran and Transoxania southwestern Central Asia, once centres of the Islamic caliphates, separated from the Arab world. Anatolia and southeastern Europe were for the first time added to the Arab world as integral parts of the Middle East. The land war with the Habsburgs was centred in Hungary and was fought in three main stages. From the independent Hungarian kingdom bore the direct brunt of the Ottoman attack and acted as a buffer between the two great empires, but the weak king Louis II of Hungary and Bohemia and feudal anarchy and misrule made a united defense impossible. A split among Hungarian nobles over the question of accepting Habsburg rule, combined with social and national divisions stimulated by the Reformation, further weakened the opposition to Ottoman attack. The Habsburg prince Ferdinand later the Holy Roman emperor Ferdinand I, brother of the emperor Charles V, occupied the northern areas of Hungary with the support of the wealthier Hungarian nobles who desired Habsburg aid against the Turks. For all practical purposes he annexed them to Austria before undertaking to conquer the remainder of Hungary in 1526. Vienna thus stood as the principal European bulwark against further Muslim advance. Although the siege frightened the other states of Europe sufficiently for them to agree to a truce between Roman Catholics and Protestants, the result was only temporary, and Ferdinand never was certain of the support of the independent German princes and the other European rulers who promised help. Even Charles V was too preoccupied with the problems of the Reformation and with France to devote much attention to the Ottomans. That arrangement lasted until 1547, when John died and left his dominions to Ferdinand in defiance of his agreement with the sultan. Thus began the third and final period of Ottoman-Habsburg relations, characterized by continuous border conflict; diversions on both sides, however, prevented long periods of open warfare. Christian historians have accused Francis I of France of encouraging Ottoman expansion into central Europe to relieve Habsburg pressure on him. French and other merchants and travelers in the Ottoman Empire were allowed to remain under French laws and courts in cases concerning themselves and were granted special privileges in cases involving Ottoman subjects. Thus was established the foundation of the French predominance in the Levant region along the eastern Mediterranean, which remained until modern times. The stalemate between the Ottomans and Habsburgs in northern Hungary was characterized by centuries-long conflicts along the land frontier. Periodic Ottoman raids into central Europe and resulting European anti-Muslim propaganda led to Christian prejudice against Muslims in general and Turks in particular; many Europeans sympathized with the Christian minority subjects of the Turks, a sentiment that lasted into modern times. Organized military conflict shifted to the sea, with the Ottomans emerging for the first time as a major naval power. The decline of the Venetian navy led Charles V to seek complete control of the Mediterranean, enlisting as his naval commander the great Genoese seaman Andrea Doria and thus gaining the support of the powerful Genoese fleet. As part of the arrangement with Barbarossa, the Ottomans annexed Algiers to the empire as a special timar province permanently assigned to the grand admiral to support the fleet. Ottoman land troops were sent to defend Algiers against Habsburg attacks, which probably was the main reason Barbarossa agreed to join the sultan. Barbarossa built a powerful Ottoman fleet able to confront the Habsburgs on equal terms. In 1571 he launched a major attack on southern Italy, expecting a promised French attack in the north, with the objective of a joint conquest of Italy. But France, fearing a hostile European reaction to its alliance with the infidel, withheld the diversion. Venice then surrendered the Morea and Dalmatia, its last possessions in the Aegean Sea, thus assuring an Ottoman naval supremacy in the eastern Mediterranean that remained unbroken for three decades. Supply problems invariably compelled him to retire to Anatolia during the winter months, allowing the Persians to regain Azerbaijan with little difficulty. As a result, the old trade route regained some of its former volume in the 16th century. The Ottomans never were able to fully restore it, however, because Portugal, using a sea route, was still able to pay higher prices in the East and sell at lower prices in Europe, avoiding the duties and local charges levied on goods sent by land.

through Ottoman territory. It should be noted that, contrary to the myths maintained by many European historians, it was the Ottomans who fought to keep the old Middle Eastern trade route open; the route was closed only when the Cape route was taken over from the Portuguese by the much more powerful fleets of the English and Dutch. Classical Ottoman society and administration During the 16th century the institutions of society and government that had been evolving in the Ottoman dominions for two centuries reached the classical forms and patterns that were to persist into modern times. Three attributes were essential for membership in the Ottoman ruling class: Rayas able to acquire them could rise into the ruling class, and Ottomans who came to lack any of them became members of the subject class. As slaves, however, their properties, lives, and persons were entirely at his disposition. Their basic functions were to preserve the Islamic nature of the state and to rule and defend the empire. The function of enlarging, protecting, and exploiting that wealth for the benefit of the sultan and his state, therefore, was the main duty of the ruling class. The rayas produced the wealth by farming the land or engaging in trade and industry and then paying a portion of the resulting profits to the ruling class in the form of taxes. Organizations and hierarchies were developed by the ruling and subject classes to carry out their functions in Ottoman society. The ruling class divided itself into four functional institutions: To cover the areas of life not included within the scope of the ruling class of Ottomans, members of the subject class were allowed to organize themselves as they wished. As a natural manifestation of Middle Eastern society, their organization was determined largely by religious and occupational distinctions. The basic class divisions within the subject class were determined by religion, with each important group organizing into a relatively self-contained autonomous religious community usually called a millet also taife or cemaat , which operated under its own laws and customs and was directed by a religious leader responsible to the sultan for the fulfillment of the duties and responsibilities of the millet members, particularly those of paying taxes and security. In addition, each millet cared for the many social and administrative functions not assumed by the Ottoman ruling class, concerning such matters as marriage, divorce, birth and death, health, education, internal security, and justice. Within the millets, just as in Ottoman society as a whole, there was social mobility , with persons moving up and down the ladder according to ability and luck. Individuals could pass from one millet to another if they wished to convert, but, because all the millets were extremely antagonistic toward those who left them to convert to another religion, the state discouraged such action as much as possible to preserve social harmony and tranquility. The purpose of the millet system was to keep the different peoples of the empire separated in order to minimize conflict and preserve social order in a highly heterogeneous state. Those attacks intensified during the week preceding Easter , when Greeks and Armenians were driven into a frenzy by the old accusations, invented in ancient times by the Greek Orthodox Church , that Jews murdered Christian children in order to use their blood for religious rituals. The sultan intervened to provide protection for his Jewish subjects as much as possible, though the fact that many of his soldiers were Christians converted to Islam who retained the hatreds instilled in their childhoods made that intervention difficult. In addition to the religion-based millets, Ottoman subjects also organized themselves by economic function into guilds. Those guilds regulated economic activities, setting quality and pricing standards that guild members had to maintain in order to continue in their occupations. In most cases particular occupations were monopolized by members of one millet, but, in some trades practiced by members of different religions, guild membership cut across religious boundaries, joining members of different religions in common organizations based not on class, rank, or religion but on mutually shared values and beliefs, economic activities, and social needs. Through contact and cooperation in such guilds, members of the different groups of Ottoman society were cemented into a common whole, performing many of the social and economic functions outside the scope of the ruling class and the millets, particularly those functions associated with economic regulation and social security. In many cases guilds also were associated intimately with mystic religious orders, whichâ€”providing a more personal religious experience than that provided by the established Muslim and non-Muslim religious organizationsâ€”came to dominate Ottoman society in its centuries of decline. The timar, traditionally described as a fief, only superficially resembled European feudalism; it was part of a centralized system and did not involve the mutual rights and obligations that characterized feudalism in the West. In return for services to the state, the timar holder was

given the full profits of the source of revenue for his personal exploitation and profit; those profits were independent of, and in addition to, those connected with the exploitation of the timar itself. For many military and administrative positions, timars normally were given in lieu of salaries, thus relieving the treasury of the trouble and expense of collecting revenues and disbursing them to its employees as salaries. Almost all of the 14th- and 15th-century Ottoman conquests in southeastern Europe were distributed as timars to military officers, who in return assumed administrative responsibility in peacetime and provided soldiers and military leadership for the Ottoman army in war. Many of the officers of the central government also were rewarded with timars in place of, or in addition to, salaries paid by the treasury. In contrast to the timar holder, the *emin* turned all his proceeds over to the treasury and was compensated entirely by salary, thus being the closest Ottoman equivalent to the modern government official. Used primarily for urban customhouses and market police, *emanets* were closely supervised by the central government and its agents and did not need the profit motive in order to assure efficiency on the part of the holders. The tax farmer thus was given the inducement of profit to be as efficient as possible. The legal and customary bases of organization and action in Ottoman society depended on a dual system of law: It never was developed in detail in matters of public law, state organization, and administration. The sultan therefore was relatively free to issue secular laws to meet the needs of the time, a major factor in the long survival of the empire. It was only in the 19th century that Ottoman reformers centralized government and society on Western lines and restricted or ended the traditional autonomies that had done so much to decentralize power in the previous centuries.

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Can you see through these real-life optical illusions? The Ottoman Empire was a sprawling political and military entity that arose in the late Middle Ages and survived into the 20th Century. The achievements of the empire include excellence in art and culture, autocratic brilliance and a large handful of initial military victories, and eventual defeats toward the end of its reign. The Ottoman Turks were one small state to begin with, one of a handful of successors to the Seljuk Turks, who thrived in Asia Minor in the early Middle Ages. In the 15th Century, the Ottomans began to solidify their hold on Asia Minor. One of the first great accomplishments of the empire was the capture of Constantinople, in This victory has been called a monumental achievement by many world historians, and it certainly signaled the death knell of Western occupation of the former Byzantine capital. The following century saw the rise of the most famous ruler of the Ottoman Empire, Suleyman the Magnificent. His long reign was punctuated by a series of brilliant victories, giving the Ottomans control of much of Egypt and the Balkans territory, including Bosnia-Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Hungary, Moldava, Montenegro, Romania, and Serbia. It was Suleyman who installed a justice system that lasted until the fall of the empire. It was also during his reign that the great Ottoman tradition of beautiful art, architecture, and literature began its ascent. Ad The reign of Suleyman, however, was the high-water mark of the empire. Not long after his death, Ottoman forces were defeated in the great naval Battle of Lepanto by a combined Spanish and Venetian force. A progressive series of European victories followed, steadily carving up the territory into smaller and smaller pieces. An especially troublesome blow was the loss of Greece in the early 19th Century. Egypt gained its independence as well, as did Hungary, Moldava and a large chunk of Serbia. Various wars with Russia during this period included the Crimean War , which involved other major European powers as well. Bosnia-Herzegovina left the Ottoman Empire near the end of the 19th century. The rest of the Balkans territories followed, only to be swept up by the expanding Dual Monarchy of Austria-Hungary soon after the turn of the following century. The last of the European possessions disappeared in the Balkans Wars of The next year, World War I began. The one bright spot for the empire in this war was victory in the Gallipoli campaign. When the Central Powers were defeated and the war had ended, the Ottoman Empire was dissolved. The once proud, expansive empire had become a collection of separate countries, including Turkey.

## 5: Bulgarian Declaration of Independence - Wikipedia

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Although it was still technically under the suzerainty of the Sublime Porte, this was a legal fiction that Bulgaria only acknowledged in a formal way. It acted largely as a de facto independent state. In order to join an anti-Ottoman alliance and claim those territories by war, however, Bulgaria had to proclaim its independence first. The chaos that ensued in the Ottoman Empire following the Young Turk Revolution of 1908 provided suitable conditions for the Bulgarian proclamation of independence. Many of the Great Powers had also abandoned their support for the Ottomans, looking for territorial gains instead: In September at a meeting in Buchlov German: Towards the middle of September, the democratic government of Aleksandar Malinov had decided that the suitable moment was near. The delegation then took the train to Tarnovo, where the official proclamation would take place. As part of the proclamation, Ferdinand raised Bulgaria from a principality to a kingdom, increasing its international prestige. Ferdinand changed his title from knyaz prince to tsar king, and the country would be ready to join the Balkan League and fight the Ottoman Empire in the First Balkan War of 1912. The Ottoman Empire did not demand any financial compensation from Bulgaria, which took over the railways run by the Oriental Railway Company and the taxes in Eastern Rumelia. Russia cancelled forty years of payments the Ottomans owed on the indemnity for the war of 1877-1878. This amounted to 100,000,000 francs out of a total indemnity of 1,000,000,000 francs. In turn Bulgaria agreed to transfer its tribute payments of 850,000 francs over 85 years to Russia. On 22 September, Bulgaria celebrated the centenary of its independence. At the University Press. Retrieved 10 July 2012 via Internet Archive. Retrieved 22 September 2012 via Internet Archive. The Ottoman Empire and its Successors, 2nd ed. Frank Cass, 1965. Wikisource has original text related to this article: References[ edit ] Lawrence, T. The Principles of International Law 4th ed. Boston, New York, Chicago: Scelle, Georges January Translated by Fenwick, Charles G. The American Journal of International Law. Scelle, Georges April Scelle, Georges July Translated by Henckels, Theodore.

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