

TEACHING MODERN SOUTHEAST EUROPEAN HISTORY
Alternative Educational Materials

WORKBOOK I

The Ottoman Empire



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CDRSEE Rapporteur to the Board for the Joint History Project: Costa Carras
Executive Director: Nenad Sebek
Director of Programmes: Sheila Cannon
Project Co-ordinator: Maria Mylona
Project Administrator: Theano Savvaoglou
English Language Proofreader: Ruth Sutton
Graphic Designer: STEP Pbl.-MAMALAKIS IOANNHS. S.A. - Ethnikis Aminis 13 str., Thessaloniki
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Krispou 9, Ano Poli, 54634 Thessaloniki, Greece
tel.: +30 2310 960820-1, fax: +30 2310 960822
email: info@cdsee.org, web: www.cdsee.org

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WORKBOOK I
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Edited by HALIL BERKTAY and BOGDAN MURGESCU

Series Editor: CHRISTINA KOULOURI



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PREFACE

The Board of Directors of the Center for Democracy and Reconciliation in Southeast Europe (CDRSEE) would like to express deep gratitude to the many people whose hard work has made it possible for these History Workbooks to be completed.

An outstanding contribution has been made by Prof. Christina Koulouri (General Coordinator and Series Editor) without whose hard work, expertise, capacity for coordination and leadership, and personal compassion it would have been impossible to complete the project. The tireless efforts and dedication of the six Editors of the four Workbooks, Prof. Halil Berktaç and Prof. Bogdan Murgescu (The Ottoman Empire), Dr. Mirela Luminita Murgescu (Nations and States in Southeast Europe), Prof. Valery Kolev and Prof. Koulouri (The Balkan Wars), and Mr. Krešimir Erdelja (World War II), despite many obstacles over the last two and a half years, have resulted in the Workbooks that you now have before you. The Board is most grateful to all of them for their warm collaboration and tireless efforts.

Furthermore, we would like to acknowledge the contributors of the materials included in these workbooks - fourteen individuals from eleven Southeast European countries. We thank them warmly for the hours spent in their national archives, libraries and personal collections to deliver the texts and visuals included here. A great debt of thanks is also due to the history teachers who participated in the evaluation workshops to assess and criticise the Workbooks during their creation. We would like also to mention the members of the CDRSEE's History Education Committee who have been involved in the project since its initiation in 1998.

Prof. Robert Stradling, Prof. Maria Todorova, Prof. Peter Vodopivec and Ivan Vejvoda reviewed and commented extensively on the content of all four Workbooks as Readers, thus making an important contribution to their soundness and balance.

Last but not least, many thanks to the CDRSEE staff, who believed in, contributed to and supported the whole endeavour from its introduction to its realisation.

Costa Carras
Rapporteur to the Board of Directors for the Joint History Project

PREFACE

It was Costa Carras's inspiration that caused this project to come into being in the first place and it was his commitment and indefatigable energy that made this path-breaking work possible. We are truly indebted to him for overseeing the Project and acting as Reader on behalf of the Board.

The Center's This initiative, called the 'Teaching Modern Southeast European History' Project, has been generously supported by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the German Foreign Ministry, to both of which we owe gratitude for their crucial financial support. The individuals in these donor organisations with whom we cooperated were always willing to help and support us in a positive way. Also, we would like to mention the United Kingdom Foreign and Commonwealth Office, which first supported the Joint History Project, and prepared the ground for these history workbooks. We thank the Stability Pact, under the farsighted leadership of Dr Erhard Busek, for understanding the significance of this enterprise and giving us their support.

Special mention should also be given to our Corporate Sponsors, without whose faith in the Center, and generous financial support, our work would not be possible. These sponsors are: Coca-Cola HBC, the Hyatt Regency Thessaloniki, and Titan S.A. The support of our sponsors and funders has made the achievements of our staff and all those who have worked on the JHP possible.

Above all, credit must go to Costa Carras. It was his inspiration that caused this project to come into being in the first place and it was his commitment and indefatigable energy that enlisted those who made the contributions set forth above and thus made this path-breaking work possible. We are truly indebted to him.

Last but not least, many thanks to the CDRSEE staff, who believed in, contributed to and supported the whole endeavour from its introduction to its realisation.

Richard Schifter
Chairman of the Board of Directors

Presentation of the project

The development of alternative educational material for the teaching of history in Southeast Europe is an ambitious and challenging venture given that the interpretation of the collective past and the content of history as it is taught in schools cause heated disputes, not only between neighbouring countries but even within the same country.

Nevertheless, the need for such a publication has become patently obvious through all research projects which have attempted over the last decade to analyse the school textbooks and curricula, the views of educators and public opinion in the countries of Southeast Europe.

The History Education Committee of the CDRSEE began work on the Joint History Project in 1999. After organising two series of workshops and presenting two publications (*Teaching the History of Southeastern Europe* and *Clio in the Balkans. The Politics of History Education*), the Committee was able to identify the specific deficiencies in historical education, the differing characteristics of educational systems, the role of central administrations, educators' wishes and the scope for innovative initiatives.

The decision was then made to go beyond identifying problems and reviewing the current situation, and to formulate a positive proposal on the teaching of history, which would be a product of the collective knowledge not of a small group of historians, but of the broad network who had contributed to the first two phases of the Joint History Project. Apart from the co-ordinators, who were responsible for structuring each book and making the final choice of documentation, there were one or two contributors from each country who selected the documentation (texts and images) according to the guidelines decided upon in the initial planning of the books. Moreover, the books which are presented here in their final form were first reviewed and evaluated in draft form by educators at special meetings held last year, so as to assess the acceptance of the educational material by the history teachers themselves. Finally, the material was reviewed by five readers - Costa Carras, Robert Stradling, Maria Todorova, Peter Vodopivec, and Ivan Vejvoda. We obtained valuable input from the contributions they were able to provide on various aspects of the history of Southeast Europe and on educational issues.

The design of the project was based on the following factors:

- 1) the different curricula and the ethnocentric bias of the teaching of history which is common in all countries;
- 2) the fact that changes in history textbooks in most countries of Southeast Europe depend upon the ministries of education, which exercise a tight control over the content of school curricula and books;
- 3) the desire of educators to renew their teaching with aids to which they would have easy access;
- 4) the view that it is not possible to compile a uniform, homogenising history of Southeast Europe in a single textbook which could be used in all countries.

For all these reasons we thought it best to put together thematic books (workbooks) with textual and visual documentation, which would function as complements to the existing textbooks.

Hence these workbooks do not aim to replace the history textbooks currently used in the classroom nor do they aspire to provide a cohesive narrative of the history of Southeast Europe from the 14th century to date. They do however have cognitive and moral aims, and they suggest methods and tools for the teaching of history. They propose a rewriting of history through a lesson of method rather than content.

Aims and choices

The starting point for determining the general and specific aims of this educational material and the final choices of subjects and materials was a realistic assessment of the condition of history teaching and a visionary concept of innovation. Our proposals are based on recent scholarship in the field of history, and on similar projects for the reformation of history teaching, mainly in Europe.

Thus two major changes are proposed:

Change in the historiographical approach

- National history to be taught in the school should not be nationalistic history. Taking as a given fact that the dominant form of history in the school is national history and that the history of the neighbouring peoples is also taught from an ethnocentric viewpoint, we do not propose to replace national history but to change the way it is taught.
- The regional history of SE Europe cannot be seen as self-contained but as part of European and world history. This means also that the notion of the “peculiar” historical evolution of the Balkans is rejected from the outset as stereotypical and biased.
- The history of each nation separately and of the region as a whole is not treated as continuous, homogeneous and harmonious. The divisions, conflicts and different perspectives are highlighted as much as the common, unifying elements. Instead of trying to paint a false picture of harmony, we prefer to indicate ways to teach students about difference and conflict.

Change in the educational approach

- We are taught history in order to come to know and understand our past. If the collective subject of national history taught in the school is considered to be the nation, an attempt is made to make it understood that the nation should not be seen as the only possible identification. Students are called upon to go beyond the nation, identify with broader or narrower entities and acknowledge several identities which complement one another. Male or female identity, local identity, the identity of the fan of a football club or the European identity can be projected as examples of identities which can coexist –without, of course, being of equal importance for the individual who holds them. Students are thus invited to enhance their self-knowledge by opening up the horizons of the past beyond the boundaries of political geography.
- The development of critical thought is another major goal of history teaching. This goal can be achieved most effectively with the use of testimonies presenting different versions of the same event, their presence alone undermining the certainty of a unique and exclusive truth.
- Working with historical evidence aims to provide an insight into the historian’s work. It is important for students to realise that a historical document may be subject to different interpretations, but this does not mean that it is always deliberately distorted or misused.

■ Through the teaching of history, students must acquire the ability to evaluate human acts and **make moral judgements**. The development of critical thinking cannot stop merely at raising doubts; it must help to mould responsible citizens with moral values, able to resist any attempt to manipulate them.

A major consideration in the designing of this project was that all peoples of Southeast Europe should be able to recognise themselves in these workbooks. To this end, two requirements were necessary:

- a) the **compatibility** of the content of the workbooks with the current curricula and textbooks;
- b) the **balanced presence** and equal representation of all countries of Southeast Europe.

In the interests of compatibility, four subject areas of modern history were selected which are included in all school curricula in the region:

- The Ottoman Empire
- Nations and States
- Balkan Wars
- World War II

In order to achieve balance, we requested historical evidence from eleven countries without using the criterion of each country's 'contribution' to the history of the region, hence without applying any evaluative yardstick. Obviously, however, the relative presence of each country varies depending on the subject of the book. For instance, it was natural for Slovenia to feature more prominently in the book on World War II than in the book on the Balkan Wars. Other imbalances are also due to the readiness of those asked to search for sources for each country and to the degree to which historical research has been developed. Some countries have much better organised archives, systematic publications of documents and access to a much greater variety of sources. So there were obstacles which, despite our initial intentions, had an inevitable effect on the final balance of documents.

Four topics, one concept

If the geographical scope of the four books is Southeast Europe, from Slovenia to Cyprus, their chronological scope is the period from the Ottoman conquest of the Balkans to this day. The subjects we selected cover all this span and are complementary to each other. While there is a clear chronological sequence from each book to the next, there are some overlaps as well.

Workbook 1 –The Ottoman Empire and *Workbook 2 – Nations and States in Southeast Europe*, cover long periods of time from the 14th to the early 19th century and from the late 18th to the late 20th century, respectively. *Workbook 3 –The Balkan Wars* and *Workbook 4 –The Second World War*, cover shorter periods including two major armed conflicts in the region. In terms of scope, WB1 and WB3 are more about regional history whereas the other two, WB2 and WB4, belong mainly to European and world history, even if they focus again on Southeast Europe.

We have not excluded *political and diplomatic history*. On the contrary, two of the WBs have war as their main subject. This choice was based on the fact that wars constitute an important element of the teaching of history in all Balkan countries, and on our belief that keeping silent on past conflicts is not the most appropriate way to promote future peace. For the peoples of Southeast Europe wars make up a sizeable part of their joint historical experience, and it would be a mistake to leave them out of a project aimed at promoting their collective self-knowledge.

Whether in its true, tragic aspect or in its idealised, heroic image, war was indeed a core event

in the 20th century and haunted the memories of all generations. Monuments, ceremonies, anniversaries and cemeteries strengthen and perpetuate these memories. Its presence has been equally important in historiography. In traditional, event-based historiography, war both organises historical time and monopolises the narrative. Most turning points in history refer to either political or war events. Besides, the entire 20th century can be divided into periods through a string of wars –Balkan Wars, World War I, inter-war years, World War II, Post-war era and Cold War, the wars in Yugoslavia. Suppression was once seen by some as a suitable policy for a pacifist education: history would teach no wars and advance no heroic military models, focusing instead on everyday life and on economic, social and cultural history. But how can one teach about the 20th, or earlier centuries without referring to war? And could it be that the teaching of everyday life outside political events, ideological conflicts and social divisions ultimately aids the survival of the existing stereotypes? Indeed, the policy of teaching only about everyday life and culture leaves sensitive issues open to interpretations which students will seek –and find– outside the school. Yet history teaching is supposed to shield them against stereotypical interpretations of the past, which has largely to do with political and social conflicts.

The solution lies rather in a fresh approach. It is possible for war to be taught without being glorified and without tedious details, numbers and dates. War can be taught as part of a common human experience, in the trenches and behind the lines, through the eyes of children, through hunger, poverty, uprooting, survival strategies and moral dilemmas. It is this approach that we opted for in compiling these Workbooks.

At the same time we attempted to give a voice to history's silent participants, such as **women and children**, who are traditionally absent from school textbooks. If we did not reach the proportion we would like, it is because of the kind of sources that are dominant and accessible, in which both women and children have only a marginal place.

The **protagonists** in these workbooks are both the “great men”, those known even outside the context of their national history, and simple, anonymous people from every corner of Southeast Europe, those who are, after all, the “inhabitants of history”. If we were to remove the names of people and places from the texts, in some instances we would not be sure as to what country or what people they refer. Such a classroom exercise, would demonstrate the **commonality of many experiences** irrespective of national divisions and political borders.

We have attempted to show not just the negative but also the positive aspects of historical experience, the one found in human moments of friendship, solidarity and fun. Thus in WB3 and WB4 we included special chapters about acts of humanity and solidarity in times of war —in times of conflict, hatred and selfish self-preservation. At the same time, however, we have tried to **incorporate the negative aspects into the self-image** of the peoples of Southeast Europe. Indeed, perhaps the most difficult challenge is to reconcile ourselves with the negative, dark sides of our history.

The wars in Yugoslavia during the 90s brought back into Western accounts many negative stereotypes about the “Balkan peculiarity”. This series of Workbooks on the recent history of Southeast Europe provides a partial answer to such stereotypes. This answer, however, is not based on any attempt to prove the “value” of the region. We believe that the knowledge contained in these Workbooks is sufficient to shed light on the prejudices and contribute to a European self-awareness which will encompass, through a comparative reading, this part of the continent as well.

Finally, we opted for a ‘**traditional**’ printed edition. Also projecting a ‘**traditional**’ image is the predominance of text versus illustrations, which may make these books appear less attractive and somewhat cumbersome. Nevertheless, it is harder to read a text written in an unfamiliar language than it is to ‘read’ a picture from a country whose language one does not speak. In other words, the main communication problem between history teachers in Southeast European countries is linguis-

tic barriers. Translation abolishes these barriers and enables us to listen to the voice of the others. Moreover, the most important aspect of being conservative is not related to the medium. It is obvious that a CD-ROM may be used as traditionally as a printed book, while the Internet contains questionable information which distorts historical facts and reproduces stereotypes and facile simplifications.

Structure and usage

As already mentioned, the four books complement one another, although at the same time each of them is self-contained and can therefore be used on its own.

The general structure of the publication is as follows:

- **General Introduction**, written by the general co-ordinator, presenting the overall concept of the Workbooks and offering methodological instructions to teachers. The General Introduction is included only in WB1;
- **Chronology** (Table of events);
- **Introduction**, different for each WB, written by the respective co-ordinator(s) and presenting the specific theme of each WB (basic definition; points of debate; new perspectives);
- Four to six chapters (**thematic sections**) with a varying number of sub-chapters. Each chapter opens with a short introduction and comprises both texts and visuals, introduced or accompanied by explanatory notes while specific questions follow each text.
- **References**, which in fact constitute a selected bibliography common for all countries.
- **Maps**, two or three for each Workbook.

In selecting documentation, we adopted the principle that any relic of the past can be seen as a historical source. Hence we tried to include a wide variety of texts and visuals so as to cover economic, social, cultural and political aspects of historical experience and make possible multiple associations. We developed a **uniform model for the presentation of texts** in all WBs, according to which, each text has a title and is followed by an explanatory note and questions. Additionally, in several cases there are general questions at the end of each chapter. The questions are meant as an aid to history teachers, who can use them as they are or make up new ones. They can also select texts horizontally, from two or three WBs, as is sometimes indicated by questions which refer to other WBs.

In practice, it is difficult for history teachers in one country to contextualise evidence from another country, since this presupposes knowledge they did not receive during their formal training. This is why we tried to give as much information as possible for each text, but without substituting it for the teacher's initiative. Teachers can use the texts in two ways:

1. As insights into the **outlook of others** on an event which they themselves and their students know through an ethnocentric reading, and
2. As indications of the **common feelings and experiences** among people from different national or ethnic groups about a controversial issue.

The provision of knowledge per se is enough to undermine stereotypes. Prejudice and stereotypes are nurtured by ignorance, and this can be seen in the picture we have of neighbouring peoples or of whole periods of our history. Silence can prove to be the strongest ally of stereotypes. Hence one of the objectives of the workbooks is a cognitive one: to provide information about the

historical developments in SE Europe, and also to generate questions. The books are not closed and final; they aim to encourage further research, critique and dialogue.

The users of these workbooks can be mainly students in the higher grades of secondary education, 15-18 years old, for whom this educational material was designed, but also university students in both Southeast and Western Europe. As our work on the books went on we realised the interest such a publication would have for Western historians, who do not have the necessary tools to study the history of the region. A collection of sources from all countries of Southeast Europe in English would be useful to a Western academic public which knows the history of the Balkans almost exclusively from secondary bibliographical sources.

Four stops in the journey from the 14th century to date

We decided to devote the first Workbook to the **Ottoman Empire** because, while this period forms a major part of the common historical experience of the peoples of Southeast Europe, it has been rejected by its descendants as a piece of their collective past. Although it is taught in all countries, the perspective is always ethnocentric –from each narrator’s point of view. Thus knowledge of this great empire which dominated in Southeast Europe and the East Mediterranean for many centuries is erratic and biased. The views about the Ottoman Empire waver between progress and retrogression, multi-cultural heaven and oppression, liberation and disaster. These clashing interpretations are also reflected in Western historiography on the specific historical period.

Presenting the Ottoman Empire as a common historical background does not mean that we project it as a “golden era” of harmonious coexistence of the Balkan peoples. As we said before, the common historical experience includes both clash and coexistence. Moreover, the Ottoman Empire was not a static and uniform entity. As with other multi-ethnic and multi-religious empires, it was marked by internal contrasts and clashes and evolved over time, going through phases of advance and crisis. Finally, the deeper knowledge of this empire helps to subvert a widespread stereotype –in both Western and the Christian SE Europe– about its cultural “backwardness”.

Our starting point was the 14th century, when the Ottomans first appeared in the region and began to conquer the Balkans. We decided that Workbook 1 should end with the early 19th century. Although this is obviously not the end of the Ottoman Empire, it coincides with the manifestation of the national movements which led to the creation of the Balkan states in the 19th and 20th centuries. The gradual collapse of empires and the establishment of national states on their ruins is the subject of the next Workbook, which partly overlaps with the first one since it starts from the 18th century. Another part of the presentation of the Ottoman Empire is in the Workbook which covers the Balkan Wars. Thus we have encouraged users to make horizontal connections among the Workbooks.

Workbook 2, on “**Nations and States in Southeast Europe**”, deals with a highly sensitive and controversial issue. From the national movements against the Ottoman Empire to the wars in Yugoslavia, the conflicts among the nations in the region have been crucial to its historical evolution. Even today, news about more or less “hot” incidents, opinion polls but also some aspects of history teaching confirm the survival of national passions. Clearly a subject with such a central position in the modern history of the region could not be excluded. Another dilemma concerned the cut-off point: should we stop at the end of the Great War or go beyond World War II? There were strong arguments against including the 1990s in this book, but in the end we decided that it was necessary to include this recent phase of nationalist movements and conflicts so as to achieve a fuller understanding of our present. After all, some national states in the region were only created during this last phase.

Aside from individual thematic categories, Workbook 2 follows a mainly chronological approach so as not to end up as a theoretical exercise on nationalism and in order to demonstrate: 1) the evolution of the definition of a nation, 2) the geographic and chronological span of nationalist movements and hence the differences among them, and 3) the different phases in the formation of national states in Southeast Europe. More than all the other Workbooks, WB2 lends itself to multi-perspective teaching because it touches upon the essence of national self-definition and deconstructs the notion of national uniqueness and authenticity. The greatest contribution of WB2 is that it historicises the nation, clearing it from the unhistorical images of continuity and unity. At the same time it incorporates the history of Southeast Europe into European and world history, since the national state is central in modern and contemporary world history.

Workbook 3 (*Balkan Wars*) could be part of WB2 or even of WB1, since it presents a decisive moment in the formation of many of the national states in the Balkans and in the final collapse of the Ottoman Empire. At the same time it was a wholly “Balkan event” which, despite its outcome, was seen as proof of the Balkan peoples’ ability to determine their own destiny, without intervention from Europe’s “great powers”. It also demonstrated the relative significance of religion in nationalist conflicts: if in the 1st Balkan War there was a coalition of Christian states against the Muslim Ottoman Empire, in the second one the opponents were clearly not defined by religious faith.

Workbook 3 is the shortest of the four, since it deals with the events of just two years (although it includes a few documents from earlier and later times). It is, just as WB4, an example of short-time history in which we attempt to highlight, aside from political and military events (which are covered in the school textbooks in any case), the diverse facets of war as an experience. At the same time, it provides knowledge about an incident in regional history which was presented through Western eyes as confirmation of the region’s “peculiarity” as to the violence of its conflicts. It is no accident that this same view and the import of the term “Balkan Wars” were renewed with the wars in Yugoslavia during the 1990s. International public opinion was left with the impression that bloodshed and nationalist hatred are endemic to the Balkan Peninsula. For this reason it might be useful to make in the classroom a comparison with the Great War which followed immediately afterwards and which truly changed the definition of war.

The last book, WB4, covers a major event of world history thus (1) incorporating regional history into a global context, and (2) realising the moral objectives of history teaching. Indeed, if history is taught in order to mould democratic citizens, the *Second World War* provides some of the best lessons. Of course, the countries of Southeast Europe did not escape the dark side of this “total war,” as is shown in the documentation. At the same time, though, the history of this part of Europe gives us the opportunity to provide students with lessons in humanism and moral values through:

1. *The struggle against fascism.* We thought that we should emphasise, for educational reasons, the resistance to totalitarian ideology and the brutality of nazism, mainly through the resistance movements which were organised in Balkan countries on a more or less massive scale. The small stories of a collective vision amidst the greatest crisis of Western civilisation provide students with standards of behaviour and help them to morally evaluate human actions.

2. *Solidarity despite religious, political and national differences.* It is worth highlighting individual or collective acts of aiding fellow human beings during a war, at a time of harsh moral dilemmas and of a struggle for survival.

At the same time, although WWII represents a quite exceptional event, the experience of suffering in war became commonplace. The total devastation of cities and the slaughtering of civilians almost abolish the distinction between the front line and the rear. War becomes more familiar and accepted as a ‘natural’ part of political and social life. WB4 demonstrates the common experiences of Southeast, Central and Western Europe and puts in perspective the “peculiarity” of Balkan “brutality”.

On the other hand, the temporal proximity of the subject of WB4 increases the risk of divisive readings and interpretations. The time after WWII was equally painful for certain Southeast European countries, so that the interpretation of the War is tainted by post-war experience. Given the complexity and the international scope of subsequent developments, we opted to end WB4 at the time of Liberation –which was different for each country. In this way we retain the optimism from the collapse of the Nazi nightmare, without going into the direct and indirect consequences for post-war societies in West and East Europe alike. Moreover, in the Cold War era, countries in the region followed different courses and ended up belonging to both East and West Europe (in Cold-War terms).

Teaching methods

It is not obvious that these four WBs will be widely used in classrooms nor has this been taken for granted. There is a series of limitations which we took into account in preparing these books:

1. The limited time for history teaching in the curriculum, which restricts the teachers' potential for innovation,
2. Students' interest in the subject of history has been constantly declining in favour of other, more 'modern' and attractive knowledge such as new technologies, and
3. The inadequate in-service training for teachers to renew their knowledge and acquire the skills to use alternative educational material. As a result, it is hard to assess the extent to which the aims of history teaching as set out in the curricula are attained in educational practice.

The methods which history teachers can use for teaching these four books are many and varied, and some of them are obviously used already in day-to-day teaching. Questions like those included after each source and for most of the sub-chapters constitute the first step towards more advanced methods such as simulations, role playing, essays, active learning. Some subjects offer more opportunities for independent learning, such as WWII for which the teacher can combine the methods of oral history, films and documentaries. In every case the Workbooks provide the means for a critical approach to the school textbook and the potential for generating new knowledge through rational and critical research. The success of this venture depends almost entirely on the initiative, resourcefulness and methodical approach of educators.

However, the critical approach to the textbook should not be misunderstood. Textbooks vary in quality and are no less 'authentic' than a source book. It must be made clear from the outset that our decision to present a collection of documents rather than a historiographical work in no way suggests that we accept the objectivity or the authenticity of the sources; our aim is simply to demonstrate the variety of interpretations and viewpoints projected by the sources themselves. This is, in other words, an application of the comparative method and the multiperspective approach. Finally we are fully aware that our selection cannot be random: it reflects specific views and interpretations, as we have tried to make clear in the introductory texts.

These remarks apply to both texts and images. Images are obviously more attractive to young people, and help one to "imagine" the past more vividly. We do know, however, that images can lie, too, hence they should be approached as critically as texts. The 'reading' of images, just as that of texts, presupposes the knowledge of the context (social, cultural, etc.) in which they were produced. We have tried to give information about the images included in the Workbooks, although in most cases their interest lies in combination with the texts contained in the same chapter. Since the Workbooks cover seven centuries of history, the images we included are of widely different kinds and therefore require different methods of analysis. We tried to use a broad range of illustrations:

photographs, posters, caricatures, lithographs, paintings, manuscript illuminations, adverts, post-cards, stamps, bank notes, etc. Our criterion, aside from some inevitable aesthetic preferences, was to construct mental pictures using visual evidence. For instance, the images of social types in the Ottoman Empire help us to reconstruct or simply discover the “different”. Let us here recall that the “different” is not necessarily identified with the “other”; cultural difference, due to the passage of time or even between contemporaries, does not always mean conflict.

In conclusion

The books in this series are a synthesis of intense discussions and arguments but also of the pleasant surprise that a historian’s work can abolish boundaries. There is currently, in the Balkans, a critical mass of history teachers interested in their work and ready for change. Our initiative is addressed to these very teachers who seek means and guidance. These people can act as multipliers of a renewal in historical teaching, currently in an indisputable crisis in all European societies. The greatest adversary to this venture will be not political or ideological reaction but apathy and indifference.

Our challenge therefore is to awaken in students the interest in learning about the region in which their country lies, and to furnish the means to understand the complexity of the present. This project is not a mere scientific exercise; it has to do with the challenge faced by the countries of Southeast Europe in relation to their joint future.

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Introduction

The Ottoman Empire is one of the major political forces that has shaped the history of South Eastern Europe over a very long period of time. In fact, from the 14th century up to the beginning of the 20th century, the Ottoman state has been the largest political organisation in this region.

Yet, this is not the only reason for studying Ottoman history in South Eastern Europe. The Ottoman Empire is important in the collective self-definition of the South East European nations. The struggle against the Ottomans was an important asset in arguing for the affiliation of these nations to Christian Europe. Furthermore, the Ottoman domination was often considered to be responsible for the economic backwardness and political havoc which has plagued many South East European countries to this day. It is not our aim here to argue either in favour or against Ottoman responsibility for these phenomena. We think that getting a closer look at the various sources from the Ottoman period of our common history will help all of us to judge these matters independently, as well as many others.

There is also another reason for taking a fresh look at Ottoman history. Over the last few decades, Ottoman studies has been one of the most dynamic fields of historical scholarship, not only in Turkey and other South East European countries, but also in Western Europe, the United States and even Japan. Historians have recently had access to various new sources, about which they asked new questions with the help of old and new methods; thus, our image of Ottoman history is now richer, more detailed and better balanced. In addition to this, a lot of the facts previously taken for granted have been questioned and/or refuted by more recent studies.

It is often argued that the Ottoman Empire was a Turkish state. It is true, the founders of the Ottoman state and dynasty were of Turkish origin, but with conquests, the Ottoman state eventually encompassed a large number of peoples, speaking various languages and comprising different religions. Moreover, during most of its history, the Ottoman ruling class was ethnically very composite. In fact, from the “classical age” of Mehmed II and Süleyman up to the upsurge of nationalism in the 19th century, the members of the Ottoman ruling class regarded the label “Turks” as synonymous with the rude and illiterate peasants from Asia Minor, with whom they hoped to have as little in common as possible. Correspondingly, Ottoman officials and intellectuals never called their state “Turkish”; they named it just “devlet-i aliye” (“the high state”) or “devlet-i ali-Osman” (“the state of the house of Osman”). Loyalty to the dynasty was, as in most medieval and early modern states, more important than any ethnic affiliation.

“Ottoman despotism” has also been challenged in more recent historical research. The most serious argument brought against this concept was the fact that it doesn’t consider change, and in fact Ottoman society changed a lot during its long existence. It is true that, at least during the so-called “classical age”, the sultans exerted enormous powers, and pretended to control all of what happened throughout their dominions. Yet, such a huge empire, which extended itself over three continents, was never easy to control, and especially not with the limited technical means of the late medieval and early modern world. Even the celebrated *timar*-system, which allowed the sultans to control the most important part of their army, was in fact, just a particular form of a device, used virtually universally in mature agricultural societies of a significant area and population, in order to achieve on a local scale what cannot be done -given a low level of monetisation plus pre-industrial transport and communication technology- over the country as a whole: spreading the ruling elite over the face of the earth and over the backs of the peasants in their villages so as to maintain law

and order and to organise the transfer of surplus from the direct producers to themselves. Neither the sultan's control over the *timars*, nor their monopoly on firearms (the Ottoman Empire can be regarded as a “gunpowder empire” as can several other major states during the early modern era), lasted after the crisis of the late 16th century.

Furthermore, although the sultans claimed that their authority was absolute, like most other “absolute” rulers in Asia, Europe or other parts of the world, they had to consider the limitations derived from God's Sacred Law - in the Ottoman case, from the sharia. The sultans often overturned this limitation with the help of the *şeyh-ül-Islam*, but in fact their recourse to this procedure discloses the realisation that their might was not unlimited. To put it more bluntly, the “despotic” power of the Ottoman sultans depended theoretically upon God, and practically upon human circumstances.

The opposition between the societies and populations of South Eastern Europe and the conquering/oppressing Ottomans has been central in most of our national historical narratives. It is obvious that many moments of conflict and cruelty took place, both during the conquest, as well as during the long Ottoman rule. Yet, conflict does not make up the whole history of South Eastern Europe during the 14th-20th centuries. In fact, as in many other societies ruled by large supra-national and multi-confessional empires, people not only resisted, but also searched for ways to adjust to the historical situations, and to shape a better fate for themselves and for the communities to which they belonged. Sometimes, this involved “negotiating” with the rulers, even actively cooperating with them in order to obtain some individual or collective privileges. It could also mean submission to the authorities, or to the contrary, it could mean to choose one or another form of passive or active resistance. Yet, this also meant that everyday life was often more important than “political” issues. Recent research has provided significant insights into the practical aspects of human life in South Eastern Europe during the Ottoman rule, illuminating the patterns common with other regions during the same eras, the elements common to all South Eastern Europe, and the specific features of particular areas.

Under the comparative scrutiny of recent scholarship, the historical “exceptionalism” of South Eastern Europe under Ottoman rule gradually fades away: similarities with other regions and with our own society make it familiar to us. Of course, differences still persist, and are outlined by the insights of recent research, but they never reach the point of turning the history of South Eastern Europe under the Ottoman Empire into an exotic playground. These differences just help us to understand the complexity of past and present societies better, and this is, in fact, one of the central missions of historical knowledge, both here and everywhere.

This Workbook attempts to provide teachers, pupils and scholars, with an opportunity to take a fresh look into the history of South East Europe during the Ottoman rule. In order to avoid overlappings with the second Workbook of this project, which is devoted to Nations and States in South East Europe, the last century of the existence of the Ottoman Empire has not been included in this Workbook. For this reason, this Workbook finishes with the late 18th century, including only a few sources from the early 19th century. Even with this limitation, it was practically impossible to illustrate, in a restricted number of pages, all aspects and details of five centuries of late medieval and early modern South East European history. We had to set priorities and make choices. Some aspects, although important, had to be either omitted or just sketched briefly. In our selection of sources, we have relied on our contributors and tried to provide a balanced picture, both geographically and thematically. Nevertheless, we are conscious that some of those who will read and/or use this Workbook might feel that they would have liked to include also other texts or visuals; if it is so, we will have achieved one of our aims, which is to encourage teachers, pupils and also professional historians to perceive the diversity and to devote a fresh look to the complexities of South East European history during the rule of the Ottoman Empire.

Chronology

Ottoman Sultans	Political processes	Political and military events	Territorial changes	Society and Culture	Major events outside the Ottoman Empire
Osman I (1281-1324)	ca. 1300-1345 - initial Ottoman expansion in north-western Asia Minor, at the expense of the Byzantine Empire; during this period, the Ottoman emirate is in competition with other Turkish principalities in Asia Minor;	1302 – victory of Osman over the Byzantines at Bapheon			1307 –demise of the Seljukid Sultanate of Rum; the Turkish principalities of Asia Minor become direct vassals of the Mongol (Ilchanid) state in Persia
Orhan (1324-1362)	gradual co-opting of the Muslim scholars (<i>ulema</i>) into the Ottoman political system		1326 – conquest of Brusa (Bursa), followed by Nicaeea (Iznik, 1331) and Nicomedia (Izmit, 1337)	reshaping of Byzantine into Ottoman (predominantly Muslim) towns; the process is gradually extended into Asia Minor and the Balkans during the 14 th -15 th c.	1335 – dissolution of the Ilchanid Empire; the Ottoman principality (emirate) becomes independent
				1339 – Orhaniye, Bursa – first T-plan mosque	1337-1453 – Hundred Years War between France and England
		1345 – first Ottoman military involvement in Europe aiding the future Byzantine emperor (1347-1354) John VI Kantakuzenos	1345 – conquest of the emirate Karesi, including the eastern shore of the Dardanelles		1341-1354 – civil war in Byzantium
				1346-1347 - Black Death arrives in South East Europe from Caffa and affects large parts of the region	1345-1353 – huge plague epidemic (Black Death) in Asia, Europe and Northern Africa

	1354-1402 – Ottoman expansion in South East Europe; during this period, Turkish frontier warlords often act on their own behalf, being only gradually integrated into the Ottoman political system; the Ottomans combine various political mechanisms of expansion: agreements with existing South East European states (which are accepted as tributaries), marriage alliances, outright annexation and distribution of fiefs (timars) to their own warriors; colonisation of Turks from Asia Minor etc. In the 1390s Bayezid forces the pace of imperial integration, generating increasing resentment among the Turks of Asia Minor etc.		1354 – conquest of Gallipoli		1355 – death of Stefan Dushan (1331-1355); decline of Serbia
Murad I (1362-1389)			1361-1369 – conquest of Thrace, including Edirne		
		1371 – Ottoman victory at Chirmen over the Serbs	1370s-1380s - conquest of Macedonia and of parts of Greece and Albania	1378-1391 – Yezil Cami, Iznik	1370-1405 – rule of Timur Lenk
Bayezid I (1389-1402)		1389 - first battle of Kosovo; the Ottomans defeat a Balkan coalition lead by the Serbian prince Lazar; Serbia becomes tributary of the Ottoman state	1390-1391 – first Ottoman annexation of the Turkish principalities in south-western Asia Minor (Saruhan, Aydin, Menteşe etc.)		1385 – union between Poland and Lithuania
		1396 – battle of Nicopolis; Bayezid I defeats a crusader army lead by Sigismund of Luxemburg, king of Hungary	1396 – through the annexation of Vidin, the incorporation of Bulgaria into the Ottoman dominions is completed		
			1397-1398 – Bayezid I completes the conquest of most of Asia Minor		
1402-1413 Inter-reign civil war between the sons of Bayezid I		1402 – battle of Ankara; Bayezid I defeated and taken prisoner by Timur Lenk;	1402 – Timur reestablishes several Turkish principalities in Asia Minor	1403-1414 Eski Cami, Edirne	
Mehmed I (1413-1421)	careful recovery and rebuilding of the Ottoman state; renewed, but prudent expansion both in the Balkans and in Western Asia Minor	1419-1420 – Ottoman campaigns on the Lower Danube; Wallachia becomes tributary	1419-1420 – conquest of Dobrudja, Giurgiu and Turnu	1416 – rebellion of sheik Bedreddin; defeated by Mehmed I	

Murad II (1421-1451, with an interruption 1444-1446)			1425 – 1428 – final annexation of south-western Asia Minor (principalities of Aydın, Menteşe, Teke, Germiyan etc.)	1421-1437 Muradiye Complex in Bursa, decorated by potters from Tabriz	
			1430 – final Ottoman conquest of Thessaloniki		
			1439 – first Ottoman conquest of Serbia		1439 – at the council of Florence, the Byzantine emperor John VIII, agrees to the Union of the Orthodox Church with Rome, in exchange for an anti- Ottoman crusade
	under the impact of the Hungarian use of artillery, the Ottomans begin the eclectic adoption of firearms	1443 – Hungarian campaign into the Balkans; successful Albanian rebellion lead by Skanderbeg (George Kastrioti)	1443 – Ottomans surrender Serbia and Albania		
	1444 – new Hungarian campaign into the Balkans, defeated at Varna				
	1448 – second battle of Kosovo; Ottoman victory over the Hungarian army lead by Janos Hunyádi				
Mehmed II (1444-1446, 1451-1481)	full organisation of the Ottoman state as an		1453 – conquest of Constantinople	Constantinople is transformed into an Ottoman	1453 – end of the Hundred Years War; French victory

<p>empire ('the classical age'); establishment of the Palace structure and of a clear hierarchical social order; partial decapitation and disempowerment of the old, founding nobility, with the help of the <i>kapıkulu</i> (sultan's slaves, converts); registration of most of the land as state property, distributed as fiefs (timars); effective use of the first generation of firearms (the Ottoman Empire as 'gunpowder empire')</p>	<p>1456 – Ottoman defeat at Belgrade, against János Hunyádi</p>	<p>1455-1456 – Moldavia becomes tributary</p>	<p>capital – Istanbul; Hagia Sophia is transformed into a mosque; construction of the Topkapı Palace (until 1478), of the covered market (<i>bedestan</i>), and of several mosques (among which Fatih Cami – 1463-1470)</p>	<p>1455 – Gutenberg prints the Bible</p>
		<p>1459 – final annexation of Serbia</p>		
		<p>1460 – conquest of the Duchy of Athens as of the Despotate of Mistra and most of the Morea</p>		
		<p>1461 – conquest of the Byzantine Empire of Trebizond</p>	<p>1454 – Patriarch Gennadius establishes the Patriarchal Academy in Constantinople</p>	
	<p>1463-1479 – Ottoman -Venetian war</p>	<p>1463 – conquest of most of Bosnia</p>		<p>1462-1505 – rule of Ivan III in Muscovy; incorporation of various Russian principalities and independence of Russia from the Golden Horde (1480)</p>
		<p>1468 – conquest of Karaman (Asia Minor)</p>		
	<p>1473 – Ottoman victory over Uzun Hasan at Otlukbeli; consolidation of Ottoman rule in Anatolia</p>	<p>1470 – conquest of Negroponte (Euboea)</p>		
	<p>1475 – battle of Vaslui; Ottoman defeat against Stephen the Great, prince of Moldavia (1457-1504)</p>	<p>1475 – Ottoman conquest of Caffa (Genoese colony in Crimea); the Tatar Khanate of Crimea becomes vassal of the Ottoman Empire</p>	<p>1476 - the first Greek book printed in Milan (Constantinos Lascaris, <i>Επιτομή των οκτώ του λόγου μερών</i>)</p>	<p>1469-1492 – rule of Lorenzo di Medici in Florence; zenith of the Renaissance</p>
		<p>1479 – conquest of most of Albania</p>		
		<p>1480 – Ottoman conquest of Otranto (southern Italy); surrendered 1481</p>		

Bayezid II (1481-1512)	policy of appeasing the internal tensions caused by the 'despotism' of Mehmed II, while preserving the basic centralising achievements		1483 – conquest of Herzegovina		
			1484 – conquest of Chilia and Cetatea Albă (Akkerman); Moldavia loses access to the Black Sea	1492 – expulsion of Sephardi Jews from Spain; a large part of them are welcomed and settled in the Ottoman Empire;	1489 – Cyprus becomes a Venetian territory
		1499-1503 – Ottoman-Venetian war	conquest of Venetian strongholds in continental Greece and Albania	1493 – first Jewish printing press in Istanbul, established by Sephardi Jews coming from Spain;	1492 – Columbus discovers America
				1493 - first Slavonic printing press in South East Europe at Cetinje (under Venetian influence); in the 16 th century Slavonic printing spread to Wallachia (1508), Bosnia, Serbia and Transylvania, but most presses only functioned for short periods of time	1494 – French campaign into Italy; beginning of the Italian wars
			1499-1540 – conquest of Lika and parts of Dalmatia	1505 – mosque of Bayezid II in Istanbul	1502 – establishment of the Safavid dynasty in Persia; Persia becomes Shiite
Selim I (1512-1520)	energetic repression of internal pro-Persian subversion in Anatolia, and significant expansion in the Near East, which significantly increased the Muslim component of the Ottoman Empire	1514 – battle of Çaldıran; major Ottoman victory over Persia	1514-1515 – incorporation of eastern Asia Minor		
		1516 – battle of Mardj Dabik; major Ottoman victory over the Mamluks	1516-1517 – conquest of Syria, Palestine and Egypt; Ottoman protection over Mekka and Medina		1517 – “95 theses” of Martin Luther in Wittenberg, Germany; beginning of the Reformation

			1519 – Algiers recognises Ottoman suzerainty		1519 – Charles V is elected Roman-German emperor; having also been king of Spain since 1516, he combines his considerable powers and consolidates them under the Hapsburg dynasty, and becomes a major rival of the Ottomans
Süleyman I ‘the Lawgiver’ (1520-1566)	zenith of Ottoman power; expansion both in Europe and in Asia, combining military power with extensive diplomatic activity; systematisation of Ottoman law and administration		1521 – conquest of Belgrade	1526 – Piri Reis (1465-1554) writes <i>Kitab-i Bahriye (Book of the Sea)</i> , where he summarises the maritime experience of his age; in 1513 he had also produced a detailed maritime map, in which he had also included the Americas	1519-1522 – first voyage around the world, started by Magellan
			1522 – conquest of Rhodos		
		1526 – battle of Mohács; major victory over Hungary			1526 – beginning of the Mughal Empire in India
		1529 – beginning of Ottoman-Habsburg conflict in Hungary; first Ottoman siege of Vienna fails	1534-1535 – conquest of Iraq		
		1538 – successful Ottoman campaign in Moldavia	1538 – annexation of Bender (Tighina)	1538 – Sinan (better known as Mimar Sinan, 1490-1588) becomes imperial architect; zenith of Ottoman architecture	
		1541 – new campaign of Süleyman in Hungary	1541 – annexation of central Hungary (Buda province); Transylvania becomes a tributary principality		1543 – Copernicus publishes <i>De revolutionibus orbium coelestium</i>
				1545-1563 council of Trento; the Catholic Reformation	

			1551-1552 – annexation of the Banat	mid-16 th century – extension of the Reformation to Hungary and Transylvania; the Transylvanian Saxons adopt Lutheranism, while large numbers of Hungarians adopt Calvinism	1551-1556 – Russian annexation of the Tatar khanates of Kazan and Astrahan
		1555 – Ottoman- Persian peace at Amasya; the eastern frontier of the Ottoman Empire stabilises		1550-1557 – Suleymaniye mosque in Istanbul, built by Mimar Sinan	1555 – religious peace of Augsburg in the German Empire
				1555 – first book printed in the Albanian lan- guage (in Italy): <i>Meshari</i> [The Service Book] by Dom Gjon Buzuku	1556 – abdication of Charles V; division of the Habsburg domain between the Spanish and the Austrian lines
			1566 – Ottoman annexation of Chios	1557 – restoration of the Serbian Orthodox Patriarchate of Peć	1562-1598 – religious wars in France
Selim II (1566-1574) 'the Drunk'		1571 – the Ottoman fleet is defeated by a fleet of the Holy League at Lepanto	1570-1571 – conquest of Cyprus	1567 – first Armenian printing press in Istanbul 1569-1575 – Selimiye mosque in Edirne, designed by Mimar Sinan	1566 – beginning of the anti-Spanish revolution in the Low Countries
Murad III (1574- 1595)	financial crisis, devaluation of the <i>akçe</i> and inflation	1578-1590 – exhaustive war with Persia	conquest of Azerbaijan and of several Persian provinces	1580 – destruction of the astronomy observatory in Istanbul on the sultan's orders, following objec- tions by religious leaders	1587-1629 – rule of Abbas I in Persia; zenith of Safavid power

	severe internal crisis of the Ottoman Empire; the long wars with the Habsburgs and with Persia having caused financial difficulties and the decline of the traditional military organisation, especially of the sipahi troops; gradual shift of the Ottoman Empire towards the use of mercenaries (<i>levend</i>) and towards the extension of tax-farming (<i>iltizam</i>)	1593-1606 – exhaustive war with the Holy League led by the Austrian Habsburgs; anti-Ottoman rebellion of the Romanian Principalities (1594)		1583-1586 Muradiye complex in Manisa	1588 – defeat of the Spanish armada by the English fleet
Mehmed III (1595-1603)				1596-1609 – Jelali rebellions in Asia Minor	1598 – edict of Nantes, granting tolerance to the French Calvinists
Ahmed I (1603-1617)		1602-1612 – war with Persia	Ottomans lose the conquests of 1578-1590; first major territorial losses of the Ottoman Empire	1609-1616 – Sultan Ahmed Cami (Blue Mosque) in Istanbul	1603 – death of Elizabeth I (1558-1603); James Stuart, king of Scotland, becomes king of England as well, thus unifying both kingdoms
		1606 – peace treaty at Zsitvatorok with the Austrian Habsburgs			1613 – establishment of the Romanov dynasty in Russia
Mustafa I (1617-1618)					
Osman II (1618-1622)	attempts at internal reforms generate a rebellion of the janissaries; the sultan is deposed and killed	1620-1634 – war with Poland-Lithuania for the control over Moldavia			1618-1648 – Thirty Years War
Mustafa I (1622-1623)					
Murad IV (1623-1640)	harsh policy to restore law and order	1623-1639 – war with Persia; after initial defeats against Abbas I, the expeditions of Murad IV and the peace treaty of Kasr-ı Şirin (1639) restores the frontiers of 1555 and 1612		1627 – Greek printing house established in Istanbul by the patriarch Cyril Lukaris; closed by the Ottomans after the execution of the patriarch (1638)	
				1635 – Revan Kiosk, in the Topkapi Palace	

Ibrahim I (1640-1648) 'the Mad'		1645-1669 – exhaustive war with Venice	conquest of Crete (finalised only in 1669)		1640 – beginning of the English Civil War between king and Parliament	
Mehmed IV (1648-1687)	after several years of internal turmoil, the grand viziers of the Köprülü family succeed in strengthening the office of the grand vizirate, to restore internal order and to resume external expansion	1656 – Mehmed Köprülü pasha is nominated grand vizier, and obtains full powers to govern the empire		1648-1657 – the famous Ottoman geographer and historian Katip Çelebi (1609-1657) writes his geographical treatise Cihannüma	1648 – Cosack rebellion in Ukraine led by Bogdan Khmelnitski; crisis of Poland- Lithuania	
		1661 – Fazél Ahmed Köprülü pasha succeeds his father as grand vizier (1661-1676)		1665-1666 – the messianic movement of Sabbatai Zevi	1655-1660 – first Nordic War	
		1672-1676 – war with Poland- Lithuania	conquest of Podolia	1667 – major earthquake, which severely affects Ragusa		
		1683 - second Ottoman siege of Vienna; the Ottomans are defeated at Vienna by an Austrian-Polish army				
		1684 – formation of the Holy League (Austria, Poland- Lithuania, Venice, Papal State, and from 1686 Russia)	1686-1687 – Austrian troops conquer Hungary and Transylvania			1685 – revocation of the edict of Nantes in France
						1687 – Isaac Newton, <i>Philosophiae naturalis principia mathematica</i>

Süleyman II (1687-1691)	major monetary and fiscal reforms restored Ottoman finances so as to face the challenge of war		1688-1690 – temporary Austrian occupation of Belgrade and other parts of Serbia	1690 – First Great Serbian migration from southern Serbia and Kosovo to Slavonia and Hungary, following the Ottoman re-conquest of Belgrade	1688 – Glorious Revolution in England, which becomes a parliamentary monarchy
					1689 – beginning of personal rule of Peter I (1682-1725) in Russia
Ahmed II (1691-1695)				1694 – prince Constantin Brâncoveanu establishes the Greek Princely Academy in Bucharest; in the 18 th century a similar institution was created in Iași (Moldavia)	
Mustafa II (1695-1703)	1695 - reorganisation of the tax farming system, with the introduction of life term tax farms (known as <i>malikane</i>); the new system strengthens the power base of notable (<i>ayan</i>) families in the provinces, who accumulate large hereditary holdings.	1697 – defeat in the battle of Zenta against the Austrians			
		1699 - peace of Karlowitz	loss of Hungary (including Slavonia) and Transylvania to the Habsburgs, Morea, Lika and smaller Dalmatian territories to Venice, mPodolia to Poland and Azov to Russia	ca. 1700 – Dimitrie Cantemir (1673-1723), himself a composer, writes a treatise on Ottoman music including a notated collection of 353 instrumental pieces	1700-1721 - Great Nordic War; major Russian victory over Sweden at Poltava (1709)
Ahmed III (1703-1730)		1710-1711 - war with Russia	recovery of Azov		
	so-called “age of the tulips”, featuring cultural renovation and attempts both at internal reform and at opening to the	1715-1718 – war with Venice and Austria; Ottoman defeat sealed by the peace treaty of Passarowitz	1715 – conquest of Morea from the Venetians		

	West, promoted by the grand vizir Ibrahim pasha Nevshahirli (1718-1730) but ended by a janissary rebellion which forced his and the sultan's abdication		1716-1718 – the Banat, northern Serbia and Oltenia (western Wallachia) are surrendered to the Austrians	1720 – Surname-i Vehbi, account of the festivities of the circumcision of the sultan's sons, written by the poet Vehbi and illustrated with 137 miniatures by Levni (1673-1736)		
			1722-1725 – conquest of Georgia, Azerbaijan, and Shirvan following the chaos in Persia	1727 – first Ottoman printing press established in Istanbul by Ibrahim Müteferrika; closed on his death, in 1745	1722 – Afghan invasion of Persia; collapse of Safavid rule	
			1730 – loss of Azerbaijan and Shirvan to Nadir	1728 – fountain of Ahmed III (outside Topkapi Palace)	1726-1730 – restoration of Persian power by Nadir (shah 1736-1747)	
Mahmud I (1730-1754)	politics of careful reforms, particularly in artillery (activity of French expert comte de Bonneval) and in urban development (building of more than 60 public fountains in Istanbul)	1730-1736 – war with Persia	loss of Georgia		1733-1738 – War of Polish Succession	
		1736-1739 – war with Russia and Austria, ended through the peace treaty of Belgrade	Oltenia is restored to Wallachia and northern Serbia to the Ottoman Empire; Russia regains Azov	second Serbian migration to the Banat and to Hungary		
		1743-1746 – war with Persia			1746 – prince Constantin Mavrocordat abolishes serfdom in Wallachia; in 1749 he undertakes a similar reform in Moldavia	1740-1786 – rule of Frederic II in Prussia
						1740-1748 – War of Austrian Succession
				1748 – Montesquieu, <i>L'esprit des lois</i>		
					1751-1780 – the <i>Encyclopédie</i> published in Paris, in 35 volumes; major achievement of the European Enlightenment	
Osman III (1754-1757)					1756-1763 – Seven Years War	

Mustafa III (1757-1774)	after a long period of peace and efforts to keep a distance from European conflicts, the Ottoman Empire descends into war with Russia, which exposes all its accumulated weaknesses, and which opens a phase of accelerated decline; there is a rise in the power of the <i>ayan</i> (local notables) and a gradual dissolution of the authority of the central government in most of the provinces	1768-1774 – Ottoman-Russian war; the Russian armies occupy Crimea, Moldavia and Wallachia; a Russian fleet defeats the Ottomans in the Aegean and fosters rebellions in Greece and in the Levant		1766-1767 – the Ottoman authorities discontinue the Bulgarian Archbishopric of Ohrid and the Serbian Patriarchate of Peć the Greek patriarch of Constantinople exerts ecclesiastic authority over all Orthodox Ottoman subjects in Europe	1762-1796 – rule of Catherine II in Russia
		1774 – peace treaty of Küçük Kajnarca; Russia reinforces its positions on the northern shores of the Black Sea and becomes protector of the Orthodox subjects of the Ottoman Empire	1774 - Crimea ends being an Ottoman vassal-state		
Abdulhamid I (1774-1789)	attempts to reestablish the Ottoman military power with the help of Western (particularly French) experts; yet, the war of 1787-1892 proves these attempts unsuccessful		1775 – Ottomans surrender Bukovina (north western Moldavia) to Austria	1784 - reopening of the Turkish printing press in Istanbul	1775-1783 – American War of Independence
			1783 – Russian annexation of Crimea		1780-1790 – rule of Joseph II in Austria
Selim III (1789-1807)	attempts at military, financial, administrative and political reform (the ‘new order’ – <i>nizam-i cedid</i>); finally fails because of the internal turmoil and the conservative opposition of the janissaries; zenith of the power of the <i>ayan</i> in the provinces	1787-1792 - war with Russia and Austria; severe Ottoman defeats; the French revolution and the Polish problem save the Ottoman Empire from major territorial losses			1787 – Constitution of the United States of America
		1798-1799 – French campaign to Egypt and Syria	1788-1792 - Russian annexation of the Edisan with Otchakov		1789 – beginning of the French Revolution
					1793, 1795 – second and third (final) division of Poland

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