2666 KAYAPINAR, Levent. The charitable foundations of the family of Turahan Bey who conquered Thessaly region in Greece in the 15th-16th centuries. *Proceedings of the Second International Symposium on Islamic Civilisation in the Balkans, Tirana ... 2003.* (Ed. Ali Çaksu). Istanbul: Research Centre for Islamic History, Art and Culture, 2006, (Sources and Studies on the History of Islamic Civilisation Series, 12), pp.149-162. [The name is written in the Ottoman sources as Turahan not Turhan, and he is first mentioned as a conqueror of Thessaly in 1395. He himself, and his sons and grandsons, established many *vaqif*s.]

Thessaly
19402

191402

TESALYA

1 BÜLENT AKYAY, Teselya meselesi (1881), Ege Üniversitesi, Yüksek Lisans, 2001

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2145 KOTZAGEORGIS, Phokion P. "Messiahs" and neomartyrs in Ottoman Thessaly: some thoughts on two entries in a mühimme defteri. *Archivum Ottomanicum.* 23 / 2005-06 (2006) pp.219-231. [16th century.]

Thessaly

THE ENCYCLPAEDIA OF ISLAM (New Edition). Vol.X(Fasc. 169-170), 1999 LEIDEN. pp.

a violent war against indigenous Christians, killing and forcibly converting thousands of them. The Portuguese were expelled from Ternate, but in 1578 got permission to build a fort on Tidore island. By now other European powers, including England, the Netherlands and Spain, were competing in the region, and the latter were able to exert pressure from Manila so that sultan Modafar (Muẓaffar) allowed reconstruction of the old Portuguese fort of São Paolo, which was used by Spain till 1666, including as a centre for Roman Catholic missionary work.

In 1606 the Dutch made an agreement with the sultan concerning the return of converts between Islam and Christianity and vice-versa to their respective territories, with the Dutch thereby acknowledging the political independence of Ternate. The Dutch East India Company (VOC) gradually acquired a monopoly of the spice trade, although the local chieftains or *sangajis*, who ruled under the sultan's supreme suzerainty, resisted this in order to retain their own trading relationships. But the Dutch were able to take advantage of internal strife in the region, and in return for aid to the Sultan Mandarshah in 1650-2, the ruler agreed that all clove trees outside the areas directly controlled by the Dutch should be cut down. The VOC's supremacy in the spice trade was officially acknowledged by Ternate in 1683 and by the Sultan of Tidore in 1687. Pensions were paid to the ruling families to compensate for their loss of income, but the actual growers were impoverished, causing unrest, insurrections and an increase in piracy.

Nevertheless, Ternate still resisted Dutch control successfully when king William IV was an exile in England from the French-dominated Batavian Republic and suggested that the Dutch possessions should be placed under British custody, and it did not surrender until 1810. The end of its history came in 1915, when, after an abortive revolt, Sultan Uthman was exiled to Java and his territory placed under direct Dutch rule, with a "council of the *sangaji*" to care for the interests of the residency.

Bibliography: See art. s.v. in *EI*[1]; Katrin Polman (ed.), *The North Moluccas. An annotated bibliography*, The Hague 1981 (= Bibliographical series, 11).

(O. Schumann, shortened by the Editors)

TERSĀNE (T.), "dockyard, maritime arsenal". The word seems to derive from the Genoese *tersana*. In the Ottoman period, the term referred in particular to the Ottoman Imperial Arsenal—the *tersāne-yi ʿāmire*—on the eastern side of the Golden Horn, at Galata, opposite Istanbul.

The dockyard at Galata [see GHALAṬA, in Suppl.] was not the first Ottoman naval installation. The Sultans had maintained a fleet at Gallipoli [see GELIBOLÎ], probably from the time of its reoccupation in 779/1377. During the 1390s it was the base from which Bāyezīd I's [*q.v.*] fleet raided the coasts and islands of the Aegean, and was to retain its place as the largest Ottoman dockyard until the extension of the arsenal at Galata in the second decade of the 10th/16th century. Documents from this century also record the existence of small naval arsenals at Iznikmid (Izmit) and Sinop. However, although Sinop was a regular site of naval construction, it does not appear to have had any storage facilities for equipment, or permanently employed craftsmen or administrators.

After his conquest of Galata in 1453, Meḥemmed II [*q.v.*] inherited the naval installations of the Genoese, and established the Ottoman arsenal, presumably on the site of the Genoese *vetus tersana*, on the Golden Horn. Selīm I's [*q.v.*] plans to enlarge the fleet led to a major extension of the arsenal during the last years of his reign, with work continuing during the early years of his successor. It seems to have been at this time that Galata superseded Gallipoli as the largest Ottoman naval dockyard, with 123 docks by 1557. The 1526 map of Pīrī Re'īs [*q.v.*] shows the arsenal as stretching along the eastern side of the Golden Horn from ʿAzab Ḳapïsï almost to Hasköy, and containing, apart from the docks, a storehouse for oars, the administrative offices (*Dīwān-khāne*) of the Admiral (*Ḳapudan Pasha* [*q.v.*]), a depot and the arsenal garden. During his tenure of the admiralty between 1546 and 1549, Soḳollu Meḥmed Pasha [*q.v.*] built a warehouse behind each dock to house the equipment of each galley, and walled off the area to make it invisible from the land.

Before the late 11th/17th century, Ottoman warfleets consisted almost entirely of oared galleys. Since the construction of these ships was within the capacity of any skilled shipwright, the Ottoman government frequently ordered the construction of hulls at coastal and river sites, especially around the shores of the Black Sea and on the Sakarya river, bringing them to Galata or Gallipoli only for fitting out with rigging and artillery. With the introduction of galleons as the standard warship in the late 11th/17th century and with steamships and ironclads in the 19th century, this practice was no longer possible. Galleon-building became the preserve of the arsenals. However, the destruction of the Ottoman fleet by the Russians at Çeşme in 1184/1770 emphasised the shortcomings of Ottoman warships, leading the Admiral Djezā'irli Ghāzī Ḥasan Pasha [*q.v.*] to undertake naval reforms, which included the construction of an engineering school (*Mühendis-khāne-yi baḥrī-yi hümāyūn*) at the Galata Arsenal in 1190/1776, and to introduce new shipbuilding techniques under the supervision of the French engineers, Le Roi and Durest. The first steamship was built in the Galata arsenal by the American Foster Rhodes in 1254/1838. An arsenal, building and repairing ships, still exists on the same site.

Bibliography: İ.H. Uzunçarşılı, *Merkez ve bahriye teşkilâtı*, Ankara 1948; C. Imber, *The navy of Süleyman the Magnificent*, in *Archivum Ottomanicum*, vi (1980), 211-82; Idris Bostan, *Piri Reîs'in Kitâb-i bahriyyesinde bulunan Tersâne-yi Âmire plânları*, in *Sanat Tarihi Araştırma Dergisi*, i/2 (1988), 67-8; Ali İhsan Gencer, *Bahriyede yapılan ıslahat hareketleri ve Bahriye Nezaretinin kuruluşu (1789-1867)*, Istanbul 1984; Mücteba Ilgürel, *Buharlı gemi teknolojisinin Osmanlı devletinde kurma teşebbüsleri*, in Ekmeleddin İhsanoğlu (ed.), *Çağını yakalayan Osmanlı*, Istanbul 1995, 143-58. (C. Imber)

TESALYA or TESELYA, the Ottoman name for Thessaly, the geographical part of central Greece between Greek Macedonia on the north, Sterea Hellas on the south, Epiros on the west and the Aegean Sea on the east. Its cardinal strategic and economic importance resulted in a series of raids and settlement throughout the late mediaeval period by Franks, Catalans, Navarrese, Serbs and Albanians, until the initial stages of the Ottoman conquest in the late 14th century, heralded by raids on the part of the Aydïnoghlu Turcomans of Umur Beg [*q.v.*] between 1336-41 (see Enweri, ed. Mélikoff, 87 v. 1159; cf. P. Lemerle, *L'Emirat d'Aydïn*, Paris 1957, 157).

The gradual Ottoman annexation by a series of non-violent capitulations occurred in three phases: 1386-7, *ca.* 1392/3-1396/7 and *ca.* 1414/23 onwards, until the period 1454-70 (detailed refs. in A. Savvides, *Problems on the Ottoman conquest and the expansion of the conqueror in the Thessalian area* [in Greek], in *Th.H.*,

continuator—considered as apocryphal (e.g. *Marākiz al-dawā'ir al-mutamāssa; al-Masā'il al-handasiyya; K. al-Ma'khūdhāt*), or else are commentaries on Euclid or determinations of the value of π. The treatises on astronomical topics are much less numerous: on the construction of the astrolabe and of verticals (*dawā'ir al-sumūt*) on the tympanum of this last, preserved by Abū Naṣr Manṣūr b. 'Irāḳ, al-Bīrūnī's master (cf. J. Samsó, *Estudios sobre Abū Naṣr* . . ., Barcelona 1969, 63-4); on the determination of the *ḳibla* [*q.v.*]; on the position of the Earth and the planets; etc. He was also the author of a *risāla* on kinetics (Eng. tr. Sayılı, *A short article . . . on the possibility of infinite motion in finite time*, in *Actes du VIII^e Congrès internat. d'Histoire des sciences*, Florence 1956, 248-9).

Bibliography: Ibn al-Nadīm, *Fihrist*, 283-4; Ḳifṭī, 351-4; Suter, 75-6; C. Schoy, *Graeco-arabische Studien*, in *Isis*, viii (1926), 21-40; Sarton, *Introduction*, i, 665; G. Vajda, *Quelques notes sur le fonds de manuscrits arabes de la B.N. de Paris*, in *RSO*, xxv (1950), 1-10; Dold-Samplonius, in *Dict. sc. biogr.*, xi, New York 1975, 239; E.S. Kennedy, *A commentary upon Bīrūnī's Kitāb Taḥdīd al-amākin*, Beirut 1973; A.P. Youschkevitch, *Les mathématiques arabes (VIII^e-XV^e siècles)*, tr. M. Cazenave and K. Jaouiche, Paris 1976, index; Brockelmann, I², 254, S I, 399; Sezgin, *GAS*, v, 314-21, vi, 218-19. (J. VERNET)

ḲULUZ, the Ottoman Turkish name for the Greek town of Vólos, a port on the northern shore of the Pagasetic Gulf or Gulf of Vólos in east-central Thessaly [see TESALYA] (lat. 39° 22' N., long. 22° 57' E.). The name probably stems from Slavonic *golosh* "seat of administration" and may be associated with the Slav presence in the area during middle Byzantine times.

Situated on the site of ancient Iolcos, the area received in *ca.* 1277 refugees from the Byzantine capital Constantinople who opposed the emperor Michael VIII Palaeologus's attempts at church union with the West, and in the late Byzantine period Vólos was known as a relatively new settlement. Together with neighbouring Demetrias (2 km to the south-west of modern Vólos), which had remained in Catalan hands until *ca.* 1381, Vólos experienced two Ottoman conquests, firstly between 1393 and 1397/796-800 and then *ca.* 805/1403, and passed definitively into Turkish hands *ca.* 826/1423. The conquerors strengthened the fortifications of the castle there in order to fend off an impending Venetian attack, and an Ottoman governor and garrison were installed, together with fresh Muslim settlers from Anatolia, whilst the local Christians moved to the slopes of Mt. Pélion to the north (refs. in A. Savvides, in *Thessalikó Hemerológio*, xxviii [1995], 51-2, 59-60).

In the early Ottoman period, the region of the Vólos fortress (but not Demetrias) is mentioned in the surviving testaments of the Turkish governors of Thessaly Turakhān Bey [*q.v.*] (850/1446), 'Ömer Bey (889/1484) and Ḥasan Bey (937/1531), whilst it was also described in Pīrī Re'īs's [*q.v.*] *Kitāb-i Baḥriyye*. The first settlements outside the fortress grew up in the late 16th-early 17th centuries, a growth which stimulated local commerce and the transit trade. This was helped by a famed local fair held twice a week and the first works along the shore at the fortress beach, later to become Vólos's commodious port. In 1665 the fortress was attacked by Francesco Morosini and a Venetian force (P. Coronelli, *Memorie storio-geografiche* . . ., Venice 1692, 229), but soon recaptured and refortified by the Ottomans.

During the Greek Revolt of the early 19th century, the rebel Greeks of Pélion failed in May 1821 to capture the strongly-held fortress, although on 8 April 1827 the British naval commander and Philhellene Frank Abney Hastings seized five Turkish vessels in Vólos harbour and forced the Ottoman garrison temporarily to evacuate the fortress (see Tsopotós, *History*, 202 ff.). However, the region remained under Turkish rule till 1881 when, following the Berlin Conference, it passed between 2 and 22 November to the Kingdom of Greece and Turkish forces left the town (the citadel was unfortunately demolished a few years later). It was in this last phase of Ottoman rule that the initial settlements of the modern town of Vólos were established (1833-50), with consulates and commercial installations set up by Greeks, Austrians, British, French and Italians between 1838 and 1870 (see *ibid.*, 240 ff., 250 ff.).

Modern Vólos is now a major commercial and industrial centre (population in 1981: 70,000; in 2003: 83,600) and is the chef-lieu of the prefecture of Magnesia.

Bibliography: See also D. Tsopotós, *The Pagasetic Gulf and Vólos* . . . [in Greek], Athens 1930; idem, *Hist. of Vólos* [in Greek], Vólos 1991, with detailed bibl. at 326-33, 344-50; N. Papachatzés, *Historical and archaeological viewpoint of the Vólos area* [in Greek], Vólos 1946; J. Kordátos, *Hist. of the Vólos and Aghiá province* [in Greek], Athens 1960; A. Papathanassiou, *The Melisseni of Demetrias* [in Greek], Athens 1989; C. Liápes, *The fortress of Vólos through the ages* [in Greek], Vólos 1991; Papathanassiou, *Byzantine Demetrias* [in Greek], Vólos 1995, 150, 179, 251. (A. SAVVIDES)

AL-ḲUMMĪ, ḤASAN B. MUḤAMMAD b. Ḥasan, the author of a local history of the town of Ḳum [*q.v.*] in northern Persia, *fl.* in the 4th/10th century. He is said to have compiled his history originally in Arabic at the instigation of his brother, Abu 'l-Ḳāsim 'Alī, governor of Ḳum for the Būyids, aiming to gather together and record all the traditions about the arrival of the Arabs in Ḳum and the town's subsequent history. He dedicated the book to the famous vizier, the Ṣāḥib Ibn 'Abbād [see IBN 'ABBĀD]. The Arabic original has not survived, but a Persian translation was made by one Ḥasan [b. 'Alī] b. Ḥasan b. 'Abd al-Malik Ḳummī in 806/1403-4, though this seems to contain much less material than the original Arabic text did (ed. Djalāl al-Dīn Tihrānī, Tehran 1313/1934).

Bibliography: Storey, i, 348-9; Storey-Bregel, ii, 1008-9; A.K.S. Lambton, *An account of the Tārīkhi Qumm*, in *BSOAS*, xii (1947-8), 586-96. (ED.)

ḲŪRUS (present-day Shaykh Khuruz), the Classical Cyrrhus, capital of the Cyrrhestica, a stronghold in the north of modern Syria on the Sabun-suyu, a right-bank affluent of the Nahr 'Afrīn.

As a Seleucid colony, it took the name of a place in Macedonia and remained a stronghold under the Romans. Three ancient bridges, still visible, allowed crossing of the Sabun-suyu and the 'Afrīn. Archaeological researches have revealed several monuments, including an amphitheatre. In the necropolis to the southeast of the town is an ancient tomb which mediaeval Islamic tradition attributed to Uriah the Hittite and which includes a cenotaph of Mamlūk times.

Ḳūrus enjoyed a fresh lease of life under the emperor Justinian I, who rebuilt its fortifications. The Muslims took it in 16/637, and later considered it as one of the marches of the empire, guarding the Antioch and Aleppo roads. Its military role thereafter declined. At the end of the 11th century it came under the

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(TESALYA TARİHİ)

Yayına Hazırlayan
Bayram KODAMAN

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