

On Maritime Activities in the History of Islamic Civilization

İslam Medeniyet Tarihinde Denizcilik Faaliyetleri Üzerine

Journal of Civilization Studies
Volume 9, Issue 1, pp. 36-46
2024
DOI: 10.52539/mad.1486870
Received: 20 May 2024
Accepted: 22 August 2024
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Abstract

This study examined the maritime activities of Muslims throughout history and their focused on contributing to the history of world civilization. In this context, looking at the important milestones in the history of the maritime activities of Muslims will make it easier to understand the natural development processes of maritime throughout history that extends to the present day. Thus, it will help to understand the interaction of the periodical developments with the maritime of the Muslims. This interaction is an indication that Muslims will have effective guiding power in the maritime activities of the future and will leave an important trace in the history of world civilization. Towards the middle of the 7th century, Muslims dominated the eastern Mediterranean with their own fleets. When they started to conquer the islands in this region in a short time, they had the whole of the Mediterranean. Thanks to their deep knowledge in astronomy, geography, geometry and mathematics, Muslims made important developments in the field of maritime in a short time. The aim of this study is to give information about the activities of Muslims and to evaluate their contribution to the history of world civilization in general.

Key Words: History of Islam, Muslims, Maritime Activities, Civilization.

Özet

Bu çalışmada, tarih boyu Müslümanların denizcilik ile ilgili yaptıkları faaliyetler incelenerek dünya medeniyet tarihine katkıları üzerinde duruldu. Bu kapsamda Müslümanların denizcilik faaliyetlerinin geçmişindeki önemli kilometre taşlarına göz atmak, günümüze kadar uzanan tarih süreci boyunca denizciliğin uğradığı doğal gelişim süreçlerini anlama konusunda kolaylık sağlayacaktır. Böylece, dönemsel gelişmelerin Müslümanların denizcilik ile karşılıklı etkileşimini anlamakta yardımcı olacaktır. Bu etkileşim Müslümanların geleceğin denizcilik faaliyetlerinde yönelik yol gösterici etkin güce sahip olacaklarını ve dünya medeniyeti tarihinde önemli iz bırakacaklarının bir göstergesidir. 7. yüzyılın ortalarına doğru Müslümanlar kendi filoları ile Akdeniz 'in doğusuna hakim oldular. Kısa sürede bu bölgedeki adaları fethetmeye başlayınca Akdeniz'in tamamına sahip oldular. Müslümanlar astronomi, coğrafya geometri ve matematik sahasında derin bilgileri sayesinde kısa sürede denizcilik alanında önemli gelişmeler sağladılar. Bu çalışmanın amacı, Müslümanların faaliyetleri ile ilgili bilgi vermek ve onların dünya medeniyet tarihine katkıları konusunu genel olarak değerlendirmektir.

Anahtar kelimeler: İslam Tarihi, Müslümanlar, Denizcilik Faaliyetleri, Medeniyet.

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1. THE PERIOD OF THE PROPHET AND THE FOUR CALIPHS

The word “sea” in Arabic is derived from “Bahr” meaning “sea” and means “belonging to the sea” in dictionary. The meaning of the term can be said that he won in the military field in the periods after the Prophet. It is known that the Arabs generally used the words "al-milâha" to express maritime and the Greek words "üstül" (أسطول) to mean the navy. Located at the crossroads of the Indo-Western trade route, Arabian seafaring tribes such as Phoenicians, Himyarites, and Sabians lived throughout history. Merchant ships were constantly commuting between East Africa and India, the Sea of Oman, the Gulf of Aden and the Persian Gulf, and the Red Sea. Bedouins who lived nomadic life did not have a maritime culture. Ship and sea motifs, which are rarely used in period of Ignorance, reflect the culture of the places the poet visited. Considering that Tarafe likens the camels on which there are mahfils for women to ride, to the ships in Bahrain with small boats tied behind them, it can be said that there are shipbuilding benches here. Located at the crossroads of the Indo-Western trade route, Arabian seafaring tribes such as Phoenicians, Himyarites and Sabians lived throughout history. Merchant ships were constantly commuting between East Africa and India, the Sea of Oman, the Gulf of Aden and the Persian Gulf, and the Red Sea. Trade goods stored in Uman, Yemen and Abyssinia were occasionally transferred to the north by caravans. As stated in the Quran summer and winter expeditions, the Quraysh were also getting their share from this trade (Quraysh, 106: 1-2).

The Meccans, who were engaged in caravan trade in the Age of Ignorance, were not interested in shipping. In fact, only a small part of the peninsula could find the necessary materials for shipbuilding. However, sailors from southern and eastern Arabia could reach the coasts of India, China, and East Africa. The Chinese traveler Farman, who visited Ceylon in 414 AD, writes that he encountered Arab traders there. In the history of the spread of Islam, the sea was used for the first time during the migration to Abyssinia. Again, the ships allocated by the Negus, (1538-1559) the Abyssinian Ruler, to the refugees who returned by sea, had disembarked their passengers at the Car Port of Medina. The first important event that can be considered as the beginning of Islamic maritime history occurred about seven months after the conquest of Mecca. Bedouins who lived nomadic life did not have a maritime culture. Marine and sea motifs, which are rarely used in the in period of Ignorance, reflect the culture of the places the poet visited. Considering that Tarafe likens the camels on which there are, "mahfils" for women to ride, to the ships in Bahrain with small boats tied behind them, it can be said that there are shipbuilding benches here. In the Red Sea, ships made of bamboo-type wooden boards tied with hemp rope and saturated with shark oil or pitch were working. There were many piers on the beach stretching from Eyle (Aqaba) to the South. The purchased cargo of a ship stranded in Shuayba (Jeddah) was used for the repair of the Kaaba before the biset. Although there is no record in the sources that the Prophet made a sea voyage, the sea is given a wide place in the Quran and hadiths. There are more than forty verses about the sea in the Quran. The Quran, which flows in the sea. (Al -Isra, 17:66) rises like long mountains. (Ash-Shura, 42: 32 /Ar-Rahman, 55:24) in order to go far distances and benefit from Allah's bounty and benevolence there. Among the ships that can swim among the waves like mountains. (Al-Hud, 11: 42) built with plates and nails. (Al- Kamer, 54:13) and put into the service of people. (İbrahim, 14: 32; Câsiye, 45: 12). By mentioning the blessings of the sea such as fresh fish, pearls and corals. (an-Nahl 16/14; er-Rahman 55: 22) he gives messages that will broaden the horizons of the Arab society, mostly Bedouins, who were engaged in trade or agriculture at that time. On the other hand, the hadiths deal with the idea of preparing for sea voyages and the subject of gaza at sea. The Prophet, who ordered children to be taught to swim, had given Umm Haram the good news that the Islamic Ummah would embark on expeditions in the seas and that she would participate in these expeditions. The hadiths, which consider one sea battle to ten land battles. (Ibn Majah, Jihad: p. 1; Darimi, Jihad: p. 28) and one sea martyr to two land martyrs encourage Muslims to sea wars. (Ibn Majah, Jihad, 10). Upon seeing the black pirates boarding the ships off the coast of Shuaybe, the port of Mecca, in the month of Rabi-ul-Awwal (July 630) of the 9th Hijri year, the Messenger of Allah sent a force of 300 people (Seriyyetu'l-Ansar- Ansar's expedition). (Seriyyetu'l-Ansar) under the command of Alkame bin Mucezziz al-Mudlîcî against them. The Negroes had to retreat in the face of the Muslims who landed on an island near the coast. This is the only sea voyage that took place during the lifetime of the Prophet Muhammed. (Hamidullah; Prophet of Islam'', I, p. 295-296). During the Mute Campaign, the Prophet sent a delegation led by a Companion from the Ash'ar tribe to the Eyle region by ship. It is understood that the Messenger of Allah reinforced the Islamic army by sea or sent news with this. Alkame was sent to Abyssinia by sea in the 20th year of the

Migration (641) by Umar according to a rumor; he was caught in a storm and drowned with his soldiers. This event must have influenced Umar's attitude towards sea voyages, which will be mentioned below. (Ozturk, 21 -23).

The fact that the Muslims captured most of the eastern Mediterranean coasts at the end of the conquests during the Umar period and that these areas were open to dangers from the sea prompted the Muslims to think seriously about preparing a naval force. Also, most of the wealth of Syria and Egypt at this time was based on trade. Since the time of I. Justinian, (527-565) trade in the Mediterranean was in the hands of Syrian and Egyptian merchants. The governors of these two places quickly realized the importance of the navy for the military protection of the region and the continuation of Mediterranean trade. In fact, they also had the means to create this navy. They seized the shipyards of Egypt and Syria on the Mediterranean coast. There was a seafaring population here from ancient times, and the necessary personnel could easily be provided. (Apak, 161).

The Muslims, who were skeptical of maritime at first, soon turned their eyes to the sea. They realized that their dominance in Egypt and Syria was under threat as long as Byzantium's naval supremacy continued. Muawiye bin Abu Sufyan was the first statesman to realize that the struggle against Byzantium could not be carried out without the support of the navy, after the Byzantines landed and captured Alexandria in 24 (645). It is understood from the letter he wrote to Umar when he was the governor of Syria, describing the situation of the coasts and requesting permission to sail, that he was in preparation for this. However, Umar was of the opinion that the Muslims did not yet have the knowledge and experience to sail. He sent a letter to Amr bin As, the Governor of Egypt, asking him for information about the sea. Noting that he would not allow any Muslim to be put in such a danger because Amr mentioned the dangers of the sea in his reply, Umar asked Muawiya to repair the forts, place soldiers there, build watchtowers and put guards there, and to illuminate these places with lanterns at night. He ordered Amr to keep the Muslims away from sea battles. He dismissed Ala bin Hadrami, who had embarked on a naval campaign in the Fars region without his permission and was defeated, from the governorship of Bahrain. He scolded Arfece bin Herseme al-Ezdi, whom he sent to Uman, for not listening to his warnings and for going to war at sea. However, Umar did not see any harm in using the sea for civil and economic purposes. He allowed the tribute revenues from Egypt to be transported via the Red Sea to the Car Port of Medina, and from there to Medina. On the other hand, she opposed Amr bin As's attempt to connect the Mediterranean to the Red Sea, as it would make Haremeyn open to the enemy navy. (Kıran, 581)

In the first years of his caliphate, Osman, who answered Muawiya's requests for sea voyages like Umar, was persuaded to go to Cyprus in 27 (647-48). Muawiya was allowed on the condition that the coasts be strengthened militarily, that he would take his wife with him and that he would not force anyone to go on an expedition. Thereupon, in 28 (648-49), many ships sailed from Alexandria and Akka. The Muslims who landed in Cyprus conquered it peacefully and the island was subject to an annual tax of 7200 gold. Umm Haram, who heard the Prophet's good news about the sea expedition, also took part in this expedition and fell from her horse during the landing and was martyred. A year later, the island of Ervâd (Cyzikus) on the Syrian coast was taken by the Muslims. After the conquest of Cyprus, the Muslims began to organize naval expeditions from the bases in Egypt and Syria. In 652, a fleet of 200 ships arrived from Syria to the island of Sicily, and in the same year an expedition was made to Rhodes. According to Belazuri's story, there were 500 ships on the second expedition to Cyprus in 654, after the conditions of the treaty made in 648 were not complied with. During this expedition, the island was connected to the Islamic state. A garrison of 12,000 men was stationed at Lapithos. After the Cyprus Victory, the Muslims began preparations for the conquest of Istanbul. Lumber and iron from Lebanon were moved to the old shipyard in Alexandria, which was revitalized. Although the Byzantine navy, which wanted to take the pain of its defeat and recapture the lost places, attempted to land in Alexandria, it was defeated by the Egyptian Governor Abdullah bin Sa'd bin Abu Serh (652). A few years later, Abdullah bin Sa'd set out for the Anatolian coast with the Egyptian fleet of 200 ships he prepared (655).

On the way, he joined the Syrian fleet commanded by Busr bin Abu Ertat, who was sent by Muawiya. The Islamic navy gathered under the command of Abdullah bin Sa'd encountered the Byzantine navy consisting of 500 pieces near Alexandria, according to some historians, and off the coast of Finike, according to others, and the son of II. Herakleios. This navy under the command of Konstans suffered a great defeat. This war, which is known as "Zâtüssavâri" (Savar Ship masts) in Islamic history due to the

abundance of ships, was the first great naval victory of the Muslims. With this victory, Byzantine domination in the Eastern Mediterranean ended (Lewis, pp. 91-92; Hitti, I, p. 253).

2. MARITIME IN THE Umayyad PERIOD

When Muawiya bin Abu Sufyan became the caliph, he gave more importance to naval affairs and in 669; he gathered the ship's masters and ordered the improvement of the shipyard in Akka. Previously, there was only a shipyard in Egypt. Ship benches were used here until they were transferred to Sur by Hisham bin Abdulmalik. During the Muawiya period, the Islamic navy reached 1700 ships. Islamic maritime was still considered during by Muawiya b. Abu Sufyan's governorship of Syria, it started with the improvement of the looms on the captured beaches and the shipyard in Alexandria. Muslims named the places where ships were built as dar al-sinâa. The word, which was translated into Turkish as shipyard, was also transferred to Western languages in forms such as darsena, arsenale, arsenal. As a matter of fact, Admiral of the Sea, which was used in return for the navy commander, was also translated into European languages as admiral. There were also secondary commanders called chiefs in the navy other than Admiral of the Sea, Many shipyards were built in the Islamic world, which had several inland seas and rivers suitable for the operation of ships. Ubulle, Sîrâf in the Persian Gulf; Tunisia in Ifrikiye; Isbiliye, Daniye (Denia) in Spain; in Morocco, Sus; Palermo, Messina in Sicily; Akka, Sur, Beirut in Syria; In Egypt, Ravza, Fustat (Dârû's-sinâati Mîsr or Amâir), Maks, Alexandria and Damietta are some of them. In addition to warships of various sizes, cargo and passenger ships were also built in these shipyards. Especially the Egyptian shipyards were building ships called en-Nîliyya, which carried cargo and passengers on the Nile River, or used in conflicts, besides the ships needed by the navy. In addition to the Nile, which has more intense traffic than the Red Sea, ships were also operating in rivers such as the Tigris and Euphrates. When the famous muhaddis Firyâbî (d. 301/913-14) came to Baghdad, they greeted him with medium-sized river ships of the type "tayyâr" and "zebzeb". There were quite a lot of such ships on the Tigris and Euphrates. (Cevdet, 2018: 152-157).

Muawiya bin Abu Sufyan in 669 sent Muawiya bin Hudayc al-Kindi to Sicily. However, the island was long after the ruler of Aglebi I. Ziyadetullah b. Ibrahim b. Aĝleb was able to be completely conquered in his time. Cunade bin Ebu Umeyye el-Ezdi conquered the islands of Rhodes and Ervad in 672 and attacked Crete. Cunade remained in Rhodes until Yazid's caliphate. The island of Ervad was turned into a base for the sieges of Istanbul. The sieges of Istanbul, which started in 674, lasted for seven years. The navy was withdrawing to Ervâd during the winter months, waiting for the spring to attack. In the end, the Islamic navy, which was not prepared for the weapon called "Greek fire", had to withdraw in 679, losing many of its ships. Thereupon, the Byzantine forces again descended to the Mediterranean and started attacking the coastal cities in North Africa, leaving the successes of Ukbe bin Nafi inconclusive.

In 683, Kayrevan fell into the hands of Byzantine-Berber forces. Between 693 and 700, the Muslims definitely dominated North Africa. Knowing the importance of the navy, Abdûlmelik ordered the African Governor, Musa bin Nusayr, to establish a naval base by sending 1000 Egyptian ship masters. At the same time, the island of Kavsara on the African coast was conquered by the Muslims. The passage between Sicily and this island was taken under control. Musa b. Nusayr, left Carthage and founded the city of Tunis and its shipyard on the shores of Lake Tunis, which was easier to defend, and had 100 warships built. In 704, this navy joined the Umayyad navy. A third naval power center emerged in the Mediterranean after Egypt and Syria. In 703, the navy departing from Egypt struck Sicily. Musa bin Nusayr sent his fleet to Sicily and Sardinia in 704. In another expedition in 708, he struck the Balearic Islands and Majorca. He captured Sardinia in 710. Again, thanks to this navy, the conquest of North Africa and Andalusia was completed.

In 717, during the caliphate of Suleyman Abdûlmelik, he Islamic navy under the command of Umar bin Hubeyre and the land army under the command of Mesleme bin Abdûlmelik surrounded Istanbul from land and sea. But the Byzantines again failed the Muslim siege. According to Byzantine sources, there were 1800 ships in the Islamic navy during this siege. This figure should not be considered large for the navy, which is rumored to have reached 1700 pieces during the Muawiya period.

3. MARITIME IN THE ABBASID PERIOD

In addition, the establishment of the Fatimid State in 909 was an important development that could change the balance of power in the Mediterranean. Thus, a naval force hostile to the Sunni forces that existed in the Mediterranean until that time was born. As the Fatimids eliminated the Aġlebis, they also competed with the Andalusian Umayyads and the Muslim naval forces in the Eastern Mediterranean. In 917 they captured Sicily. After that, like the Aġlebis, they made expeditions to maritime cities in Italy, including Genoa and Naples, in 918-935. Their third attack on Egypt in 936 was inconclusive. On the one hand, they tried to break the Andalusian Umayyad influence in North Africa. In 954 they ordered the governor of Palermo to plunder Andalusia. III. Abdurrahman responded by sending a fleet of seventy ships to the African coast. Mutual raids continued between the two sides. Cevher al-Kāid, the commander of the Fatimids, captured Maghrib in 957-959 and ended the Umayyad domination there. Only Sebte (Ceuta) remained in northwest Africa in the hands of the Andalusian Umayyad State.

While the Muslim supremacy continued in the Mediterranean, Byzantium recovered. He increased his power by taking advantage of the alliance he made with the Andalusian Umayyad State. In 960, he sent a large fleet of 2000 warships and 1360 supply ships under the command of Nikephoros Phokas to Crete. Heraklion fell in 961. In 963, Nikephoros Phokas attacked Tarsus and Cyprus. He took Tarsus in 965. After that, Byzantium broke the Islamic supremacy in the Eastern Mediterranean and the Middle East. He took Crete, Cyprus, Tarsus, Cybele, Latakia, and Antakya between 960 and 969. Although he organized expeditions on Sicily, he could not achieve success in the east. However, after the Fatimids dominated Egypt in 969, a degree of stability was achieved in the eastern Mediterranean. In 975, the Fatimids recaptured Beirut and defeated a Byzantine fleet near Tripoli. Then, the Eastern Mediterranean ports outside of Antakya came under the rule of the Fatimids. These cities continued to have significant naval power. In 995, the Fatimid Caliph Aziz-Billah ordered the construction of a large navy of 600 ships in a shipyard in Cairo. But in the same year, this shipyard was burned by Byzantine spies. Despite this, the Fatimids built very neat ships three months later. In 998, the Fatimid fleet defeated the Byzantine fleet in front of Sur. The Eastern Mediterranean remained under Fatimid and Byzantine control (Ali, Sevim, 1988: 96-97).

In the west, the Fatimid fleet of Sicily defeated the Byzantine fleet in 998. After that, Islamic sailors in Sicily raided into Italy and launched an operation in the Tyrrhenian Sea. The Andalusian Umayyad fleet attacked Pisa for the second time. In 1016, the Normans appeared in Italy. In 1017, some groups of them joined the expedition against the Muslims who were attacking Salerno. In 1025, the Byzantines again engaged in a struggle with the Fatimids of Sicily. Palermo sought help from the Fatimids and the Mahdiyya ruler Muiz bin Badis. Sicilian Muslims plundered Illyria (Illyria) in 1031 and the Greek islands in 1032. After the Fatimids came to the east, the Andalusian Umayyad navy also weakened. Meanwhile, the cities of Venice, Pisa, Genoa, Naples and Amalfi also had a navy. 11. Until the beginning of the century, the Venetians remained partly dependent on Byzantium. They remained partly dependent on Byzantium until the beginning of the 19th century. Naval forces and merchant fleets continued to grow. In the period between 1043 and 1100, the navies of the western European cities, especially the Italian cities, were defeated by the Muslim and Byzantine navies. Around 1100 Europeans put an end to Muslim rule on the coasts of Corsica, Sardinia, Sicily, Southern Italy, Palestine, and Syria. European dominance in the Mediterranean, which started in this period, began in the 16th century. It continued until today, except for the Ottoman domination, which took place in the 19th century. The internal struggles in the Islamic world, the defeat of Byzantium in Manzikert, and the internal fights in Andalusia can be counted among the reasons why Muslims and Byzantium were pushed into the background in this domination. Because at this time, the Mediterranean-Black Sea countries outside of Western Europe were under the influence of foreign invasions. In the Mediterranean, powerful maritime states emerged throughout the Middle Ages, such as the Normans of Sicily, Venice, Genoa, Pisa, Naples, and Amalfi. Then France, England, Denmark, Spain, Portugal, Netherlands followed them. After that, Western Europeans, contrary to the past, constantly threatened the Islamic lands on the Mediterranean coast and kept the Mediterranean trade in their hands (Aslanapa, 1974: 71).

However, the Islamic navies in the Mediterranean did not disappear completely. It is known that the Almoravids, the Almohads, the Hafsid and the muluku't-tawaif in Andalusia had navies. In addition, the naval personnel trained in this region were used even in the late Fatimids and the Ayyubid era. Other than that, although not as strong as before, the Fatimids in Egypt continued to have a very important naval power. The Fatimids also had a small fleet in the Red Sea. Thanks to this navy, they kept the Hejaz and

Yemen under control for a long time. In addition to Cairo, the Fatimids also had shipyards in coastal cities on the Mediterranean coast such as Dimyat, Reřid, Alexandria, Beirut, Tripoli, Sur, Akka and Ascalan. The Fatimids established separate councils for the port cities and the navy. The divan related to the ports was called Dîvânü's-sügur, and the council related to the navy was called Dîvânü'l-cihâd or Dîvânü'l-amâir. They were allocated from the state budget. Dîvânü'l-Amâir oversaw the administration of the shipyards. The Fatimids developed the first keeled ship construction. After them, it was built by starting from the keels of the ships. In the last days of the Fatimids, about 10,000 sailors were registered to the council, apart from those who worked in the shipyards such as carpenters, blacksmiths and caulkers. Thanks to this navy, they held cities such as Sur, Tripoli and Ascalan against the Crusaders for a long time. They made various campaigns against the Crusader Kingdom of Jerusalem by taking Ascalan as a base. Against this naval power, the Crusaders were able to take Haifa and Beirut by force in 1110 and Ascalan in 1154 after long sieges. In the last period of the Fatimids, this navy was weakened and decreased to ten warships. For this reason, Salahaddin Ayyubid inherited a very weak naval power from the Fatimids. Before the siege of Dimyat by the Crusaders during the reign of Saladin, a six-ship Ayyubid navy made an expedition to the coasts of Cyprus. In 566 (1170-71) Saladin took Eyle and the island in front of this city with the ships he had built in the Egyptian shipyard. In 1174, Yemen and the Hejaz were captured with an expedition in which the Red Sea fleet participated. The navy attacked the Mediterranean coast of the Kingdom of Jerusalem and the Count of Tripoli in 1178-1179. In 1181, he defeated an enemy fleet of 2500 personnel, who came from Italy to help the Crusaders.

In 1183, a ship carrying enemy cavalry and merchants was seized. In the same year, an Ayyubid fleet under the command of Hüsameddin Lü'lü defeated the enemy by neutralizing the military operation of Renaud de Chatillon in the Red Sea. The Ayyubid navy under the command of Husameddin also provided maritime security in the conquest of Palestine in 1187. Also in this year, after the capture of the coastal region, small-scale naval forces emerged in Eastern Mediterranean ports such as Beirut, Akka, Jubail and Latakia. In particular, the Beirut navy reached a level that would harass the naval operations of the Crusaders in the following years. Ten ships from Acre and some ships from Beirut and Jubayl joined the siege of Sur at the end of 1187. The strengthened Ayyubid navy successfully defended its coasts against the Sicilian Crusader fleet of sixty ships, which came to the east in 1188. On 26 December 1189, an Ayyubid navy of fifty ships, which came to Akka from Egypt under the command of Hüsameddin Lulu, broke the Crusader blockade and brought aid to Akkâ. He captured two enemy ships.

The last years of the Ayyubids and the first years of the Mamluks were the years when the maritime business declined. Dîvânü'l-üstül was abolished. In the past, being an "ustüli" (navy) was a source of pride, but in this period, maritime started to be considered a shame. This situation continued until the accession of al-Melikü'z-Zâhir Baybars from the Mamluks (1260). Baybars tried to give importance to the navy. In 1270 he sent a navy against Cyprus, but no success was achieved. Baybars spent some of his time at the shipyard, working with the masters. According to Makrîzî's narration, once when he received the envoys from Sicily at the shipyard, he was sitting among the timbers with the masters and the amirs, with the carpenter's tool in his hand. The rulers who came after him did not give as much importance to maritime as he did. However, the navy undertook great duties in the successful recapture of the Eastern Mediterranean ports, the conquest of Akka in 1291, and the expulsion of the Crusaders from Ervad, which was their last foothold. After that, the Crusaders stationed in Cyprus continued to be a danger to the ports in Islamic countries. Ports in Egypt and the eastern Mediterranean were always open to an enemy attack from the sea. For this reason, even powerful sultans such as Salahaddin Eyyubi and Baybars I had the castles in the coastal cities of Palestine and Syria destroyed so that they would not fall into the hands of the enemy.

The Mamluk navy also operated in the Red Sea and the Indian Sea. In the year that the great sailor Ibn Majid, who had written many works on maritime affairs, passed away (1498), Portuguese ships began to attack Muslim ships and ports after Vasco da Gama discovered the Ümitburnu road. (Ayalon, 1979: 39-51). When the ruler of Gujarat asked for help against the Portuguese, the Mamluk Sultan Kansu Gavri sent a fleet under the command of Emir Hüseyin al-Kurdi against the Portuguese, but no result was achieved. The bold moves of the Portuguese in the Red Sea necessitated the presence of a permanent navy there. (Kafesođlu, 1953: 76-77).

4. MARITIME IN THE PERIOD OF THE SELJUKS

Period of Seljuks and Anatolian Principalities. 14. The most important development of the new struggle between Muslims and Christians in the first half of the century was the maritime activities of Turkish naval veterans, who would later form the core of Ottoman naval power. They emerged as a continuation of the Turkmen advance expanding westward. Turkish naval veterans who fought with small fleets were actually following a policy of conquest and war similar to the war veterans fighting on land.

The maritime tradition of the Turks who made Anatolia their homeland, it dates back to the coastal principalities such as Menteşe, Aydın, Saruhan, and Karesi, which started to form in Western Anatolia in the 14th century. As a matter of fact, in 1080-1097, the Turkish coastal lords appeared in the Aegean-Marmara seas with their own shipyards and navy, and they had the power to seriously threaten Byzantium, even for a short time. With the definitive Turkification of Anatolian lands after the 1071 Malazgirt Victory, the conquerors of this country surrounded by seas on three sides felt the need to turn to the seas for the future of the state. Especially Kutalmışoğlu Süleyman Shah captured Iznik and its surroundings, which was in the hands of Byzantium, and brought the Turks to the shores of Marmara and made Iznik his capital city. Ebu -Kasım, whom he left as a proxy, resisted the Byzantines who wanted to take back the Iznik Castle, and needed a strong naval power to take down Istanbul and seize the Marmara coasts and islands and conquered the town of Gemlik, which was in the hands of the Byzantines. He succeeded in establishing the first Turkish shipyard here. However, the land and naval forces of Byzantium besieged Gemlik and burned the newly established Turkish shipyard and ships. Despite this, the city of Iznik remained in the hands of the Turks as an advanced base for direct attacks on the center of Byzantium. (Ayalon, 39-51).

At this time Caka Bey, one of the Seljuk amirs, who captured İzmir and its surroundings and created the first Turkish shipyard and navy there, started to openly threaten Byzantium by getting stronger. He systematically began to conquer coastal cities and islands with forty-piece ships that his crew chose from the coastal children of the Aegean. Thus, the Turks' leaning on the shores of the Aegean and Marmara seas, and especially Caka Bey's creation of a Turkish fleet in İzmir, confronted Byzantium for the first time with a Turkish threat not only from the land but also from the sea. Byzantium was in complete grip with the Pecheneg Turks from the north, the Seljuk Turks from the south, and the naval forces of Çaka, who came through the Dardanelles. However, Emperor II. As a result of the intrigues of Alexios Komnenos, the Pecheneg danger was eliminated, and the conflict between Caka Bey and his son-in-law Kılıçarslan I was also ensured. As a result of an advanced operation with the Byzantine navy, Caka was thrown out of the Dardanelles. Thus, the Aegean islands began to fall into the hands of Byzantium again. Especially when Caka Bey was killed by his son-in-law during a party in Iznik, the maritime tradition that the Turks had started in the Aegean Sea came to an end.

A few years after Caka Bey's withdrawal from the stage of history, the start of the Crusades (1096), which targeted Anatolian Turkishness and therefore Islam, forced the Turks to withdraw from the coasts to the inner parts of Anatolia. This led to the transfer of the capital from Iznik to Konya; it also interrupted Turkish shipping for a century. That's why Turks Until the beginning of the 13th century, they could not deal with the sea in any way. During the reigns of Anatolian Seljuk sultans I. Gıyaseddin Keyhusrev, I. İzzeddin Keykavus and especially I. Alaeddin Keykubad, Turkish maritime developed again. I Gıyâseddin Keyhusrev conquered Antalya in 1207 and opened maritime routes to the Seljuks again. His son, I İzzeddin Keykavus I, took Sinop in 1214 and prepared the opportunity for the establishment of a Turkish fleet in the Black Sea. Alâeddin Keykubad I, who received the title of "Sultan of the two seas", founded the Alaiye Shipyard, which he named after himself, in 1227. Later, a second shipyard was established in Sinop, and a fleet prepared and given to Hüsameddin Çoban's command set out for the Crimean expedition (1223-1224). The purpose of this expedition was to save the Kipchaks, who were under the pressure of the Russians.

The Seljuks, who understood the importance of the sea, had an important place in the state organization of the sea. Because in the 13th century, a civil service titled "emîrû's-sevâhil" occupied an important position among state dignitaries. After the disintegration of the Anatolian Seljuk State, the Turkish principalities established in Western Anatolia continued the maritime tradition of the Seljuk State. Especially Aydınoğulları took the lead in this movement. In fact, Aydınoğlu Umur Bey re-started Turkish maritime business on the Aegean coast 200 years after Caka Bey. Umur Bey entered the struggle with the Byzantine and Genoese naval forces and captured Kadifekale first and then İzmir. He made treaties with Byzantium and helped them from time to time by land and sea. Apart from Aydınoğulları, Karesi, Saruhan,



Menteře principalities and Candaroğulları on the Black Sea coast had naval forces, albeit small. In addition, the naval forces of Tekeoğulları, Manavgat Emirate, and Alaiye Principality on the Mediterranean coast attempted many expeditions targeting Cyprus and Rhodes. In fact, in 1362, Mehmed Reis from Tekeoğulları had even deployed soldiers to the Pendaiye region of Cyprus (Kafesoğlu, 1953: 78). In the following years, the Turkish people who settled on the Aegean coast continued their piracy activities. Against the attacks of Christian pirates, especially in Crete and Cyprus, to the Anatolian and Syrian coasts, Turkish pirates gradually settled on the Algerian coast and began to raid all the southern coasts of Europe (Turan, 1970: 47-117).

On the other hand, the expansion of the Ottoman Empire, which emerged as a land state compared to the maritime Anatolian principalities, towards the Sea of Marmara, and the aim of transitioning to the Rumelian side and settling there, forced it to follow a policy towards the sea. As a matter of fact, in the time of Orhan Gazi, the Ottoman navy gained strength based on the navy of the Karesi Principality. For this reason, it is understood that the rumor that Rumelia was passed on rafts is also a legend. Turkish people who settled on the Aegean coast continued their piracy activities. Against the attacks of Christian pirates, especially in Crete and Cyprus, to the Anatolian and Syrian coasts, Turkish pirates gradually settled on the Algerian coast and began to raid all the southern coasts of Europe.

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5. MARITIME IN OTTOMAN PERIOD

The Ottoman Navy (Ottoman: همایون دونانمای, Navy-yi Humayun), the military naval force of the Ottoman Empire it was founded in the 13th century. The Ottoman Empire conquered Karamürsel in 1323 and reached the sea, the first navy was formed under the command of Kara Mürsel, and support was provided from the sea in the wars in Kocaeli. In 1327, the first Ottoman shipyard was established in Karamürsel and thus the institutionalization of naval power began. The hierarchical system was adopted in the Ottoman navy, and the first Derya Bey (Navy Commander) became Kara Mürsel Bey. Kocaeli was

captured in 1337; thus paving the way for the transition to Rumelia, which would take place in 1353. After that, the center of the navy was Izmit, Gallipoli, and finally Istanbul. (Turan, 1970, p. 47-117).

There is a widespread claim that the Ottomans first crossed into Rumeli on rafts during the reign of Orhan Bey. Even in the history books taught in high schools, this claim has taken place. However, it is now known that this claim is not true. We know that many principalities, such as Saruhan, Aydın, and Menteşe principalities, had navies even during the Anatolian principalities before the Ottomans, and the Candaroğulları in the Black Sea region. The Ottomans, who captured these principalities, naturally benefited from the navies of these principalities. As a matter of fact, in the conquest of Rumelia, the Ottomans benefited significantly from the navy of the Karasi Principality. In the Conquest of Istanbul II. Mehmed took advantage of the navy. The Ottoman navy, whose influence increased in the Black Sea and the Mediterranean, provided logistical support to the Ottoman forces in the Egyptian Campaign. The Battle of Preveza was won in 1538. After that, the Battle of Djerba was also won, Malta was besieged but nothing was achieved. Many shipyards were established to enlarge the Ottoman navy, and the materials needed were brought from Kocaeli, Biga, Samsun, Kastamonu, and Aydın. As a tradition, Captain-Darius was given the governorship of Algeria. The navy was in charge of police in Kasımpaşa, where Tersane-i Amire was located. Gallipoli, the Mediterranean islands, and some parts of Izmir were given to Ottoman captains as dislike.

The Ottomans, who came to the stage of history as a land state, met the sea in a short time and took it slowly but surely from its former owners. They owned and dominated two great seas, which they redefined as the Black Sea and the Mediterranean. Ottoman sultans were now known as "sultan/haknül-bahreyn" (Surku, 1928: 142-146).

They were so powerful in the Mediterranean that they could send two fleets at once. Hundreds of shipyard accounting books belonging to the post-16th century, documents in which materials related to shipbuilding are recorded, and countless documents about the equipment and crew of ships and their food and clothing needs are waiting for its researchers. Correctly reading and making sense of this vast document treasure, which will illuminate not only the political history of maritime, but also the maritime organization and the history of maritime trade, will lead us to healthy results (Bostan, 2015: 34-35).

During the II. Bayezid period, the Mamluks sought help from the Ottoman state in the face of the Portuguese threat that emerged in the Red Sea and threatened the holy lands from the sea, and the Ottoman sailors were heading to the open seas. In the year that Barbaros Hayreddin Pasha confirmed his dominance of the Mediterranean in Preveza, Egypt's Governor, Eunuch Suleiman Pasha, left Suez with his navy and conquered Yemen and went to India, and Kanuni himself was conquering Bender in his Moldavian campaign. According to the Bender inscription dated 1538, he was now a sultan who "managed ships" in the "bahr-ı frenk, maghrib and Indian" seas. The famous spice trade route of the East and Far East continued to protect its old route despite all the efforts of Portugal thanks to the intervention of the Ottomans. The Ottoman navy often fought alone with the allied Crusader navies formed by states that had a say in the seas such as Spain, Venice, France, Papacy, Genoa, Naples and Malta. This book consists of articles on Ottoman naval policies, maritime technology and trade. The abundance of Ottoman documents on which the articles are based is also a sign of the Ottoman state's interest in the seas.

In Ottoman maritime tradition, it is based on maritime activities in Western Anatolia going back to the beginning of the 14th century. Although it was established as a small land principality, the Ottomans, who tried to continuously increase their maritime knowledge and experience after reaching the coasts, sought to benefit from the navy and sailors they inherited from the maritime principalities on these coasts. Menteşe, Aydınoğulları, Saruhan and Karesi principalities, which were among the Anatolian principalities, contributed significantly to the establishment of the Ottoman maritime (Sukru, 152-157). The participation of Karesioğulları, who had a superior position in the field of maritime, to the Ottoman lands in 1345 was an important gain in terms of naval power. The existing navy of Karesioğulları joined the Ottoman forces. This navy provided great benefits to the Ottomans in the transition to Rumelia, which would be realized after a while.

It is necessary to examine the development of shipping in three periods in the Ottoman naval history. The first period, from the establishment of the empire to the 17th century. Rowing ships that continued until the end of the 19th century, the second period. The period of sailing ships, which lasted until the middle of the century, and the third period of steamships, which continued until the collapse of the

empire. The ships constituting the navy were divided into two groups as oars and sailboats. The Ottomans, like the Venetians, adhered to the old traditions in shipping. They believed in the validity of the galley's war strategy of frontal attack, ramping and blocking. Thin naval vessels were used for shipping and on rivers. Among these, the shayka, workcampo, open-top, transshipment, boatyard, horse, stone and cannon ships in the Black Sea had an important place. Sailboats period it started with the construction of the first galleon called burtun in the middle of the 17th century. It has been determined that since the Crete expedition, mostly ships called barges were built. Despite the presence of galleons in the Venetian navy, which came in front of the Dardanelles to block the supply route of the Ottoman navy in this period, the Ottomans insisted on the galley order. However, in 1058 (1648), it was decided to build a galleon at the meetings attended by the sultan himself. Although the construction of galleons was abandoned for a while in 1072 (1662), twenty years later, during the grand viziership of Merzifonlu Kara Mustafa Pasha, an order was given to build ten galleons. The war materials used on the ships were gunpowder, cannon, round and bow and arrow. In order to develop galleons and restructure the Ottoman maritime, new regulations were made by enacting a law called the Naval Law in 1113 (1701). During the 18. century, Ottoman maritime followed a course in the direction of the development of galleons and started to exist in the seas again. As in other states, galleys disappeared from the middle of the century. After the proclamation of the Tanzimat, the Naval Council was established, and during the reign of Sultan Abdulaziz, the Naval Ministry was established to replace the captain pasha (1867) Although we are not one of the maritime countries of history, the study of our maritime history is of great importance for the correct understanding and completion of our political, economic, military, science and technology history. In this respect, especially the Ottoman maritime history will give us some clues not only in terms of our maritime past, but also about the general dynamics of our historical behavior (Büyüktuğrul, 1970: 67-68).

Piri Reis was among the most important scientists of his time in the field of maritime. Piri Reis, who was given the command of the navy that captured Alexandria in 1516-1517, when Yavuz Sultan Selim made his Egypt expedition, left the navy and went to Cairo via the Nile road with a fleet, made a map of this place and obtained historical and geographical information about the region. Piri Reis had the opportunity to personally meet Yavuz Sultan Selim, who went to Alexandria with a fleet after Egypt joined the Ottoman lands in 1517, and presented the world map he had prepared before to the sultan. Returning to Gallipoli after the Egyptian expedition, Piri Reis continued his scientific studies there. He took part in the great navy that conquered Rhodes. Piri Reis, who speaks Greek, Italian, Spanish and Portuguese apart from his mother tongue, wrote that he benefited from these languages and benefited from the works while preparing the world map. Defined as a guide to the Aegean and the Mediterranean with his book titled "Kitab-ı Bahriye", dated 1521 and 1525, Piri Reis had the opportunity to examine the ports of the Aegean, Adriatic, Italy, France, Spain, and Tunisia at different times and included history, geography, and seas in his notes. provided detailed information about it. Copies of Piri Reis's book "Kitab-ı Bahriye", copied from the originals, are in private and public libraries in Istanbul, Berlin, Dresden, Bologna, Paris, Vienna, and London. Piri Reis also painted the world maps, which he prepared in 1513 and the second in 1528, on leather in his work called "World Map", the original and copies of which are available in the fragmented form today (Uzuncarşılı, 2020: 945-949).

There is a widespread claim that the Ottomans first crossed into Rumeli on rafts during the reign of Orhan Bey. Even in the history books taught in high schools, this claim has taken place. However, it is now known that this claim is not true. We know that many principalities, such as Saruhan, Aydın and Menteşe principalities, had navies even during the Anatolian principalities before the Ottomans, and the Candaroğulları in the Black Sea region. The Ottomans, who captured these principalities, naturally benefited from the navies of these principalities. As a matter of fact, in the conquest of Rumelia, the Ottomans benefited significantly from the navy of the Karasi Principality.

RESULT AND EVALUATION

Although we are not one of the maritime countries of history, the study of our maritime history is of great importance for the correct understanding and completion of our political, economic, military, science and technology history. In this respect, especially the Ottoman maritime history will give us some clues not only in terms of our maritime past, but also about the general dynamics of our historical behavior. The first activity in the maritime field in the Anatolian Seljuk State was initiated by Ebu'l Kâsım, the deputy

of Süleyman Shah. First, in the time of Ebu'l-Kasim, the Turks built a shipyard on the shores of Marmara. The first Turkish naval fleet in Anatolia consisted of 33 sailing ships and 18 rowing ships.

The first factor in the development of maritime in the Ottomans was undoubtedly their strategic orientation towards the West (Rumelia) and against the Christian powers. Because holding Rumelia and going further, passing many soldiers through the Bosphorus quickly and when necessary, protecting the Bosphorus and the Marmara coasts against the Venetians made it necessary to have a navy. As a result of this necessity, relatively small shipyards were built first in Karamürsel, Edincik and Kocaeli, and then larger shipyards in Gallipoli. When the Gallipoli shipyard was built, the Ottoman navy was transferred here, which led to the partial severance of Byzantium's relations with the Mediterranean.

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