

Atlas of Southeast Europe

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SECTION ONE

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Atlas of Southeast Europe

Geopolitics and History

Volume Three: 1815–1926

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The Author & the Atlas

This atlas was conceived and produced by Hans H.A. Hötte, who died in 2007. Hötte was born in 1922 in Semarang, the Netherlands Indies, and was educated in the Netherlands. His interests in the rich and complex history of Middle and Southeast Europe already dated back to his years in high school, but it was not until the Second World War that he turned his full attention to the subject. In 1943 Dutch students were forced to pledge their loyalty to the Nazi authorities who had occupied the Netherlands in 1940. Hötte's refusal to make the pledge made it impossible for him to continue his medical studies and his first attempts at map-making date from this period. After the war Hötte recommenced his medical studies, becoming a full-time ophthalmologist in the 1950s. His medical career proved impossible to combine with his passion for the history and geopolitics of Southeast Europe, but he made annual trips to the area to gather further information. In 1970 he obtained his PhD from the University of Amsterdam with a study called *Orbital Fractures* (published in London by William Heinemann Medical Books Ltd. in the same year).

After Hötte's retirement, he took up map-making again and began working on what he came to regard as his most important life's work, an electronic historical atlas of Southeast Europe. Using specialised software and engaging a professional typesetter to help build the files, he compiled a digital atlas layer by layer. His expertise as an ophthalmologist was relevant to the project, because he used only those colours and patterns of demarcation which create contrasts that are optimal for the human eye; this also explains why the background to all maps is grey instead of white.

During the final years of the author's life discussions with IDC Publishers (which was later taken over by Brill) about an online publication stranded because the technical hurdles were insurmountable. Despite technological advances, these challenges are still difficult to overcome, so it was decided to publish the atlas in print first.

Volume One of the *Atlas of Southeast Europe*, covering the period 1521-1699, was published in 2015, i.e. several years after the author's death. For the first volume Colin Heywood edited the author's "historical commentaries", while the original typesetter Hötte had worked with, Huibert Stolker, extracted the maps included in this volume from the complex files in the author's estate. Volume Two of the *Atlas of Southeast Europe*, covering the period 1699-1815 and edited by Béla V. Mihalik, was published in 2016.

For this Third and final volume of the *Atlas of Southeast Europe* the methodology of the earlier two volumes has been retained, so Volume Three also contains two types of maps: survey maps, which represent a static situation at the beginning of a (CE) calendar year, and detailed maps which zoom in on particular events. Each new section begins with a survey map, which shows the situation immediately after the events of the previous section. Volume Three ends at the conclusion of the First World War for the Ottoman Empire.

The publisher gratefully acknowledges the support and patience of Hans Hötte's widow, Doris Hötte-Wintgens. Without the conscientiousness of Huibert Stolker and his team, especially Valentine Stolker, at Stip Grafisch Ontwerp in Driebergen, these volumes would never have come about.

Maurits van den Boogert
BRILL

Historical Narrative

1815-1833

After the Ottomans had suppressed the First Serbian Uprising (14 February 1804 to 7 October 1813), they gave many of its leaders official titles in a vain effort to incorporate them into the Empire. Nevertheless, the Serbs started planning a new insurrection, a process that culminated in the proclamation of open revolt in Takovo on 24 April 1815. Miloš Obrenović was chosen as its leader. On 11 April 1815 the Serbians had already burned the town called Palež by the Turks and Zweibrücken in German. Later in 1815 the town of Požarevac, which had been involved in the First Serbian Uprising, became part of the Second Uprising too. It would become Obrenović's second capital, after Kragujevac.

The first major town the Serbian revolutionaries took was Rudnik. They then continued towards the Ottoman positions near Čačak. On 6 May 1816 they encountered a larger Ottoman cavalry force which attacked the Serbians from the rear. The rebels retreated to the Ljubić hill, just northeast of Čačak. There they regrouped and took up new strategic positions, also receiving reinforcements. On 8 May an Ottoman attack was repulsed successfully, using the terrain to the rebels' advantage. The Turks were routed and retreated with the Serbians in pursuit. It was the most important battle of the Second Serbian Uprising. The leader of the First Serbian Uprising, Kara George, also joined the Second Uprising, but he was assassinated on 24 July 1817, possibly at Obrenović's behest.

At the Treaty of Bucharest (signed on 28 May 1812) which had ended the Russo-Turkish War of 1806-1812, the Kilia branch of the Danube had been designated the border between Russian and Ottoman territory. Claiming that the Kilia branch of the river sometimes moved and was therefore unclear as a border, in 1817 the Russians claimed the area to its south as far as the Sulina branch. The evacuated population was relocated by the Ottomans.

In Albania the town of Parga had been under British protection since 1815, after the inhabitants had revolted against the French occupation. In 1817 the British returned Parga to the Ottoman Empire. Preferring exile to living under the (in)famous Ottoman governor-general Tepedelenli 'Alī Paşa's yoke, some 4,000 citizens of Parga moved to the island of Corfu, which was under British protection.

In April 1820 Alexander Ypsilantis was elected the head of the Filiki Eteria (Society of Friends) movement for the establishment of an independent Greek state. On 8 October 1820 he announced the imminent start of a revolution. It began in Moldavia and Wallachia, which are under joint Russian and Ottoman suzerainty and therefore lacked Ottoman garrisons. Any Ottoman attempt to stop the insurgents there would, the insurgents thought, be considered a provocation by the Russians. On 25 March 1821 Ypsilanti and his forces crossed the River Pruth. Two days later, in Iași, he publicly suggested that Russia was on his side, but the Tsar denied this. Ypsilantis did not march on Brăila, but continued south to Bucharest, where he arrived in early April. Internal dissent between the Greek revolutionaries and Rumanian insurrectionists delays the uprising's advance. At that point Russia commanded Ypsilantis to lay down his arms, an instruction the Rumanians accepted but the Greeks refused.

After the Tsar had allowed the Sultan to react, Ottoman forces entered Moldavia and Wallachia. The revolutionaries lost the Battle of Drăgășani on 19 June 1821, in the wake of which Ypsilantis fled to Transylvania. The Habsburgs refused to offer him shelter, however, and

held Ypsilantis prisoner for seven years. After his release he moved to Vienna, where he would die on 29 January 1828. By the end of 1821 the Ottomans have regained control over Moldavia and Wallachia. Nevertheless, these events are later considered the initial stage of the Greek War of Independence.

The Ottoman military leader Hurşid Ahmed Paşa (d. 1822), who had been instrumental in the Ottoman repression of the Second Serbian Uprising, was appointed governor of the Peloponnese (Morea) at the end of 1820. Early in 1821 he marched on the provincial capital of Ioanina (T: Yanya) to bring down its independent-minded governor-general, Tepedelenli 'Alī Paşa. This meant that the Morea was relatively vulnerable in Hurşid Ahmed Paşa's absence. When the first Greek revolts erupted there a few months later, Hurşid Ahmed Pasha immediately sent back troops in an effort to quell the unrest, while personally continuing his siege of Ioanina. By the end of March 1821, however, the Greeks controlled the inland territories, while the Ottomans retained only the fortified cities, e.g. Nauplia (Nauplion), Patras, Monemvasia, and Tripolitsa. In September 1821 the Greek rebels managed to take the governor's seat of Tripolitsa. Its Muslim and Jewish populations were massacred by the Greeks. Dissent over these events would eventually create a division between a military faction and a political faction among the Greeks, but at the time the fall of Tripolitsa was an important break-through for the Greek insurrection, which also spread to Crete and some of the islands in the archipelago.

The inhabitants of Souli were among the first to take up arms in the Greek struggle, starting already in December 1820. Having come to an agreement with Tepedelenli 'Alī Paşa, who was under siege himself, by 12 December they had taken control over the area surrounding their town. In January 1821 they received reinforcements from other Greek communities and even from 'Alī Paşa's Muslim Albanian allies, but the latter would re-join the Ottomans as soon as it became clear that the uprising was spreading over the entire Peloponnese. The guerrillas of Epirus would continue to play a role in the uprising in their area.

In 1822 the Ottomans responded with a massive military campaign to end the Greek insurrection. After the death of Tepedelenli 'Alī Paşa, in January, Ottoman troops were deployed to Larissa, where its Ottoman governor-general, Dramalı Maḥmūd Paşa, took command of a large army. They marched south at the end of June 1822, progressing almost without resistance through Boeotia, where they destroyed Thebes. No attempt was made to reconquer Athens, as the Ottoman army proceeded to ancient Korinthos, where the Turkish forces arrived in early July. They find the Ottoman fortress, which the Greeks had taken on 14 January, abandoned, its commander killed. The Greek provisional government fled from Argos as the Ottoman advance continued towards Tripolitsa. The Greeks also abandoned the siege of Nauplia; as a result, its commander 'Alī Paşa did not surrender until 30 November 1822. However, Dramalı Maḥmūd Paşa failed to take regional logistics into account. The Greeks were applying the strategy of scorched earth in the plains around Argos, so all supplies had to come through the Dervenakia Pass, which Dramalı Maḥmūd Paşa had failed to secure. Trapped in the plains, the Ottomans were forced to retrace their steps through the Pass, where, on 26 July and again two days later, first the Ottoman cavalry was ambushed and routed and then the main army. Dramalı Maḥmūd Paşa escaped, but soon died of natural causes near Corinth. The Ottoman counter measures, which had started so promisingly, thus ended in a complete disaster for the Turks.

The Greek insurrection spread to Chios from Samos, from whence Greek revolutionaries crossed to the neighbouring island. From March 1822, over a period of four months, the Ottomans devastated the town of Chios and killed tens of thousands of islanders. The events are remembered as the Chios Massacre.

On 16 July 1822 the Battle of Peta was fought on a hillside close to Arta. In May and June of the same year the Souliotes had defeated the forces of Hurşid Aḥmed Paşa, who, after having eliminated Tepedelenli ‘Alī Paşa on 24 January 1822, had intended also to pacify the rebellious region around Souli. The victors then joined the Greek insurrection. A contingent of Greek soldiers landed at Mesolongi and moved north overland. They were joined by a battalion of volunteers from all over Western Europe, many of whom were veterans from the Napoleonic wars. Near the village of Peta the Greeks took up strategic higher positions, from where they repelled several Ottoman attacks. The Turks managed to take one of the positions – reportedly without resistance from Albanians who were said to have betrayed the cause – and attack the others from the rear, winning the battle. The Greek leaders managed to escape, but their forces suffered heavy casualties.

Between 20 and 25 September 1822 the Ottoman and Greek fleet engaged in a series of skirmishes in the Gulf of Nauplia, which are known collectively as the Battle of Nauplia. Neither side suffered significant losses, but when the Turks failed to break through the Greek lines, they withdrew. For this reason the Battle of Nauplia is considered a Greek victory. After the surrender of Nauplia, the Greek provisional government moved there in January 1823.

The Greek insurrection also reached Crete, where revolts broke out in several locations. The Ottomans responded with two countermeasures. The first was the mass execution of Christian inhabitants of Heraklion, including the Metropolitan of Crete and five bishops, on 24 June 1821. This is remembered as the Massacre of Heraklion. When this failed to put down the insurrection altogether, the Ottoman Sultan asked Muḥammad ‘Alī, who effectively ruled Egypt autonomously by now, for assistance. An Egyptian fleet thereupon sailed to Suda, where it arrived on 28 May 1822. Led by Ḥasan Paşa, Muḥammad ‘Alī’s son-in-law, the Egyptians laid waste to numerous Cretan villages. After Ḥasan Paşa’s accidental death in 1823, another son-in-law of Muḥammad ‘Alī, Ḥusayn Paşa, assumed command of a new Egyptian-Ottoman force that finally quelled the insurrection in Crete by winning the Battle of Amourgeles. This confrontation took place in the middle of the island south of Heraklion on 20 August 1823. By the spring of 1824 only pockets of resistance in the Cretan mountains continued to exist.

On the Greek main land, after the victory at the Battle of Peta in July 1822 the Ottoman commander, the Albanian Omer Vrioni, turned south to Mesolongi, which he attempted to take through negotiations. The Greeks stalled long enough to receive reinforcements from the sea, whereupon the Ottoman siege began in earnest. When the Greeks repelled the Ottoman assault of 24 December 1822, the Turks lifted the siege on 31 December. (A year later the Ottomans would try again in vain, and the third siege, by an Ottoman-Egyptian army, would also be lifted without success in April 1826, despite having lasted for a year.)

In March 1823 Great Britain de facto recognized the Greek state as independent.

After having largely ‘pacified’ Crete on behalf of the Ottomans earlier, Muḥammad ‘Alī ordered a naval expedition to the strategic island of Kasos, to the east of Crete. On 4 May 1824 the Egyptian vessels, reinforced by Tunisian ships, set sail from Alexandria. On 18 June they opened fire on the town. Less than 48 hours later the island surrendered to the Egyptians. The Egyptian-Tunisian fleet quickly continued north, reaching the island of Psara on 21 June. On 4 July a large group of inhabitants blew up the fortress they were taking shelter in, just as

the first Egyptian soldiers are entering it. Others managed to flee, but many were killed or enslaved. On 15 July a Greek force landed on the island, retaking it from the Turks, but before the end of the month, Ḥüsrev Paşa occupied it once again for the Ottomans.

On 24 August 1824 an Ottoman and a Greek fleet fought an inconclusive battle at sea just off the island of Kos. They met again in the naval Battle of Gerontas on 29 August 1824, which was fought in the Gulf of Gerontas near Leros, the largest island between Patmos and Kalymnos. Outnumbered, the Greeks focused on setting fire to the Ottoman flagships, which caused the Turks to panic and retreat. This Greek victory was particularly important, because it determined who controlled Chios.

The town of Methoni (T. Modon) had been blockaded by Greek insurgents on 18 May 1821, but they had failed to capture it. With the help of the Ottoman navy, the town held strong for several years after. Once again the Ottoman sultan called in Egyptian reinforcements, officially adding the title of governor-general of Morea to Muḥammad ‘Alī’s responsibilities. He delegated the task to his son, Ibrāhīm Paşa, who first sailed to Crete and then to Methoni, where the Egyptian contingent arrived on 24 February 1825. They dug entrenchments there, making Methoni an important base for later operations in the Peloponnese. On 18 May the port of Navarino surrendered to the Egyptians. By June 1825 Ibrāhīm Paşa has reconquered Tripolitsa for the Sultan. His troops fanned out over the Peloponnese, retaking most of it. By the end of 1825 only the Maina and the area east of Nauplia remain in the hands of the Greeks. The Egyptian forces attempted to enter the Maina on 21 June 1826, but they lost each of the three ensuing battles with the inhabitants of the area.

In the autumn of 1827 the combined fleets of Great Britain, France and Russia, commanded by the British vice-admiral, Sir Edward Codrington, and a combined fleet of Ottoman vessels, with Egyptian and Tunisian ships, led by Ṭāhir Paşa, converge on Navarino. The naval Battle of Navarino was fought on 20 October 1827 in the harbour of the town. The Ottoman-North African fleet was destroyed, with some three-quarters of its ships sunk and c. 6,000 casualties. As a result of the Ottoman-Egyptian defeat in the Battle of Navarino, Ibrāhīm Paşa, cut off from supplies, concluded a truce with Vice-Admiral Codrington. The Egyptians retreated, although Neokastro remained in Ottoman hands until the spring of 1828. By autumn 1828, the Egyptians withdrew completely, a French force taking their place in Neokastro, but they too left soon afterwards. By the end of 1828 the entire Peloponnese was under Greek control once again. In the archipelago, too, the Greeks now controlled several islands, but the region around Chios and Samos remained Ottoman.

In 1829, the Greek insurrection spreads north through Boeotia and Aetolia. By 1831 what would later be called the Arta-Volos Line has been established, demarcating the border of independent Greek territory.

In February 1831 the Constantinople Conference was held between the Ottoman Empire on the one hand and the Great Powers – Great Britain, France, and Russia – on the other. It was decided that Greece would become an independent kingdom, with the Arta-Volos Line as its northern border. The Ottoman Empire received 40 million Piaster as indemnification for its loss of territory. The Greek War of Independence formally ended with the London Protocol of 30 August 1832, which repeated the terms of the Treaty of Constantinople. Crete remained under Ottoman rule.

In retaliation for the Russian participation in the Battle of Navarino (20 October 1827), the Ottoman Sultan Maḥmūd II closed the Darda-

nelles to Russian ships in early 1828. He also revoked the Akkerman Convention with Russia, signed on 7 October 1826, which had arranged Russian-Ottoman co-suzerainty over Moldavia and Wallachia; the withdrawal of Ottoman troops from the Dabubian Principalities; and the Ottoman cessation to Wallachia of control over Brăila, Giurgiu, and Turnu Magurele. The Akkerman Convention had also secured autonomy for the Principality of Serbia. The Sultan's revocation of the Convention triggered the Russo-Ottoman War of 1828-1829.

In April and May 1828 a sizeable Russian army invaded Moldavia and Wallachia. In June they cross the Danube. The Russians laid siege to Varna, Shumla, and Silistria. On 29 September 1828, they captured Varna. At Shumla the Ottomans had superior numbers and they managed to fence off the Russian attacks. The Russians were unable to capture Shumla and Silistria, being forced to withdraw into Moldavia. Under a new commander the Russian troops resumed their sieges of Silistria and Shumla, crossing the Danube on 7 May 1829. On 2 July a Russian army marched on Constantinople, taking Burgas on 12 July and Adrianople (T. Edirne) on 22 August. The Sultan sued for peace, whereupon the Treaty of Adrianople (14 September 1829) ceded most of the eastern Black Sea shore and the mouth of the Danube to Russia. Russia was allowed to occupy Moldavia and Wallachia until the Ottomans had paid a sizeable indemnity. Serbia becomes autonomous.

Moldavia and Wallachia remain under Russian occupation until 1834, when Alexander Ghica II was appointed the Hospodar of Wallachia, while in Moldavia Mihail Sturdza took up that function the same year.

1833-1849

The Treaty of Adrianople (1829) between Russia and Turkey had established free trade for Moldavia and Wallachia, their ports open to the shipping of all nations. The two principalities also began to construct a joint fleet.

Crete did not yet become part of the independent Greece. As promised, the sultan granted it to Muḥammad 'Alī as thanks for Egyptian support in difficult times, but in 1840 Great Britain forced Egypt to return the island to direct Ottoman rule.

The revolutionary year 1848, when a wave of uprisings flows over Europe, also affected Hungary, where peace was not restored until August of 1849. It began on 15 March 1848 with mass protest in Pest and Buda, people demanding greater freedom and a union with Transylvania. Hungary got a constitutional government as a result, but remained part of the Habsburg Empire. In the autumn Habsburg troops moved in from Croatia to end the revolution in Hungary. A series of battles ensued: the Battle of Pákozd, on 29 September 1848, which the Hungarians won; the Battle of Ozora, on 6 October, also a Hungarian victory; the Battle of Schwechat, on 30 October, which was the result of the Habsburg retreat towards Vienna after Pákozd, and which the Habsburgs won; and the Battle of Mór on 30 December 1848, also a Habsburg victory. In 1849 the Habsburg armies returned to Hungary in force. In the Spring Campaign the Hungarians recaptured Buda on 21 May 1849 after an 18-day siege. Pest was bombarded. On the same day the Habsburg Emperor Franz Joseph I and Tsar Nicolas I of Russia signed a treaty agreeing that a massive Russian army would help restore order in Hungary if necessary. In the summer campaign of that year the Battle of Győr was fought on 28 June, and the Second and Third Battles of Komárom in July 1849.

In the second half of 1849 the Habsburgs gradually re-established control over Hungary. On 2 August they took Szeged without firing a shot, because the Hungarians had retreated; on 9 August the Battle of Temesvár was the last major military confrontation of the Revolution.

The Hungarians were defeated. On 6 October 1849 the Habsburgs executed 12 Hungarian Generals and one Colonel at Arad.

1849-1870

The Herzegovina uprising (1852-1862), led by chieftain Luka Vukalović, began in the summer of 1852, after the Ottoman Ömer Paşa had attempted to disarm the Herzegovians. Grohovo was one of the regions that refused to pay the Turks a debt, which had sparked the uprising in the winter of 1852-53.

Around the middle of the 19th century Russia becomes more overtly expansionist. In July 1853 Russian troops invade Moldavia and Wallachia, which were under Ottoman sovereignty. In October and November 1853 an Ottoman fleet and a combined Russian fleet sail to the Ottoman Black Sea port of Sinope.

On 23 October 1853 the Sultan's declaration of war on the Tsar marks the beginning of the Crimean War (1853-1856). Hostilities elsewhere started almost immediately, but the first major military confrontation was the naval Battle of Sinope on 30 November 1853, a resounding victory for the Russians. The destruction of the Ottoman fleet gave Russia effective control over the Black Sea. After Russia failed to comply with a French-British ultimatum to withdraw from the Danubian Principalities, France and Britain declare war on Russia in March 1854. Gallipoli became their principal naval base. Russian troops made incursions into Ottoman territory in the course of 1854 both from Budzhak and Wallachia. In the east the Russians took Hirsova after a short bombardment and they swiftly marched towards Küçük Kaynarca. The Siege of Calafat started in January 1854, that of Silistria in April. In June 1854 the Allied (British-French) fleets dropped anchor at Varna, where they established an important naval base.

February 1854 saw military sorties from northern Montenegro into Ottoman territory. Skirmishes in northern Montenegro slightly enlarged the area under its control at the expense of the Ottomans, whose military efforts were focused on the Crimean War.

The Ottomans sent reinforcements to Silistria, which the Russians had besieged since April 1856. The Russians lifted the siege on 24 June, not because of Ottoman resistance, but as a result of Austrian pressure and threats of military intervention. The Ottomans also reconquered Cernavoda and marched north. In the second half of 1856 the Ottomans undid the effects of the Russian campaign of 1853, re-establishing Turkish control over the Dobruja area. The string of fortifications on the south banks of the Danube, from Tulcea to Brăila and Galati too once again were under Ottoman control by the end of 1854. From 1854 to 1856 Wallachia and Moldavia are jointly put under a neutral, Austrian, administration.

As a result of the Congress of Paris, the Treaty of Paris was signed on 30 March 1856, ending the Crimean War. The treaty was a success for the Ottomans, who secured guarantees for its integrity from France and Great Britain. It also restored all Russian and Ottoman territories to the situation before the war. A notable exception was the transfer of control over the southern part of Budzhak, including the Danube delta, to the united principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia, which ensured free navigation of the Danube for all nations. The area forms a neutral buffer zone between the Ottoman Empire to the south and Russian territory to the north. The Russians considered the outcome of the congress a disaster.

The fact that the Treaty of Paris (1856) did nothing for Montenegro frustrated its leaders, who soon joined the open rebellion which had been simmering since 1853. The insurgents won the Battle of Grahovac on 1 May 1858, after which the area under Montenegrin control increased again. The Ottoman government acknowledged the region's

desire for more autonomy by establishing a formal border with Montenegro, but the uprising continued nonetheless.

In Crete, which had remained under Ottoman rule, the Christian population rebelled in 1858. Negotiations with the Ottoman authorities gave them several privileges, e.g. the right to bear arms, and more autonomy in the domain of Christian family law. Recognition of the equality of Christians and Muslims – the Gülhane Proclamation of which in 1839 the Ottoman sultan repeated in his Imperial Rescript of 18 February 1856 – antagonized the Muslim part of the population, while the Christians continued to strive for a union of Crete with the Kingdom of Greece.

In the early 1861 and '62 the Ottomans, led by Ömer Paşa, made a concerted effort to suppress the rebellion in Montenegro. The Turks managed to split Montenegro in two and threatened to march on Cetinje, the capital, when Montenegro sued for peace. The Prince of Montenegro, Nikola I (r. 1860-1910), signed the Convention of Scutari (Alb. Shköder) with the Ottoman Empire on 31 August 1862. The principality of Montenegro's formal status as a vassal state was confirmed and its border ratified, but the border between Montenegro and Herzegovina was controlled by the Ottomans.

From 1864 Greece is a constitutional monarchy. With the Austro-Hungarian *Ausgleich* (Compromise) of 1867 Hungary was reconstituted as a separate monarchy, but as part of the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary. The Austrian and Hungarian parts each had their own parliament and government. The head of state, who was both Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary, embodied their unity.

1870-1881

In 1875 the Ottomans were once again confronted with uprisings in the Balkans. Known as the Herzegovina Uprising, because that is where it started in July, it soon spread to Bosnia and would last until 1877. In Bosnia it began in the Mountains of Kozara, Prosara and Motajica, where many villages rebelled. The rebels then took over Banja Luka. On 15 August the Turks were attacked at Dvorište. The rebels besieged Trebinje on 5 August, but by the end of the month the town was in Ottoman hands again. Around the end of August 1875 Montenegro and Serbia sent volunteers to help the rebels. Insurrections were now going on all over Bosnia. On 16 June 1876 Montenegro and Serbia signed an alliance. Two weeks later Montenegrin forces attacked the Ottomans, taking Nikšić in September 1877 after a long siege. They also took several places along the Adriatic coast, including Bar and Ulcinj.

In April and May of 1876 there are uprisings in several parts of Bulgaria, which had been carefully planned during the preceding months. The uprising began on 20 April in Koprivstica, where the Ottoman police headquarters was attacked. Serbia joined Montenegro in declaring war on the Ottoman Empire in support of the Bulgarian April Uprising. The Ottomans responded already at the end of April, suppressing the uprisings without mercy. By the middle of May 1876, the uprising has been put down completely at the cost of many lives. Once again newspapers across the continent report about "Turkish atrocities" in Bulgaria. Montenegro was attacked from two directions, but managed to hold out against the Turks.

The Serbs' support of the Bulgarian uprisings also did not go unpunished. From the south the Ottomans marched in the direction of Deligrad in September 1876, but they first moved on Kruševac. The Turks moved north to Paraćin and then to Čuprija. At the same time an Ottoman force invaded Serbia from Vidin, proceeding via Negotin. In October 1876 the Serbs pushed back the Ottoman forces invading from Vidin in the east and Niš in the south. On 20-21 October 1876 they won the Battle of Deligrad and then advanced on Niš, where the battle

for the city started on 29 December 1877. The Serbs took the city on 11 January 1878.

In response to the uprisings in Herzegovina and Bosnia in 1875 and the April Uprising in Bulgaria in 1876, representatives of Great Britain, Russia, France, Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy met at the Constantinople Conference from 23 December 1876 until 20 January 1877 to discuss the future of these areas. It is decided there that Bulgaria will consist of two autonomous parts.

The Ottomans' refusal to accept the decisions of the Constantinople Conference triggered the Russian-Ottoman War of 1877-78, which is known in Romania as the Romanian War of Independence. The Russians formed a coalition with Bulgaria, Serbia, and Montenegro. Russian troops invaded Ottoman territory from the Budzhak region, as well as through Wallachia. They marched on Sistova, where the Ottomans were defeated in the Battle of Simnitsa of 26 June 1877. From there the Russian forces fanned out into the eastern part of what the Constantinople Conference had determined should become Bulgaria. They then took Tirnova on 7 July 1877. The region around Shumla and Varna was defended by Egyptian troops, with British advisors. Despite their victory at the Battle of Karahassanköy in the last days of August 1877, it was the Russians who conquered the area soon afterwards.

After the conquest of Tirnova (7 July 1877), the Russians proceeded south, taking Adrianople (T. Edirne) again in 1878 and even advancing as far as Istanbul itself. It was at the village of San Stefano, close to the Ottoman capital, that the Peace treaty of San Stefano was signed on 3 March 1878. This formally ended the Russian-Ottoman War of 1877-1878. Montenegro, with a significantly increased territory, is recognized as an independent state at San Stefano. The Ottoman Empire was forced to cede the northern Dobruja to Russia. The Treaty of San Stefano confirmed the Serbian annexation of the region around the city of Niš, which the Serbs had conquered on 11 January 1878. After the Treaty of San Stefano, Bulgaria was an independent principality.

The Russians considered the San Stefano Treaty a temporary arrangement, and the Great Powers were unhappy with Russia's increased power in the region. Modifications were therefore agreed upon during the Congress of Berlin (13 June – 13 July 1878) and the Treaty of Berlin that came out of it (signed 13 July 1878). Romania was confirmed as an independent state, including the Dobruja region. The Budzhak area became Russian. Bulgaria too was confirmed as an independent state by the Treaty of Berlin, consisting of three parts: the Principality of Bulgaria proper, the autonomous province of Macedonia, and the autonomous province of Eastern Rumelia. The Treaty of Berlin also further increased the territory of Montenegro, which was again confirmed as an independent state. Serbia, too, was further enlarged by the Treaty of Berlin, the area south of Niš expanding. In return for support during the Berlin Conference, the Ottoman Empire signed a secret agreement with Great Britain on 4 June 1878, granting the Britons control over Cyprus. In November 1880 the Ottomans handed over Antivari to Montenegro, in line with the Treaty of Berlin. The Treaty of Berlin had also assigned Plava and Gusinje to Montenegro, but after Albanian protests, the two cities were exchanged for Dulcigno, which was added to Montenegrin territory in 1880.

Greece had remained neutral in the Russo-Ottoman War of 1877-1878, having received assurances from the Great Powers that its claims on Ottoman territory would be considered favourably after the war. On 2 July 1881 the Ottoman Empire and the Kingdom of Greece signed the Convention of Constantinople, which arranged the cession of Thessaly and a port of southern Epirus to Greece. The Treaty of Berlin had granted an even larger territory to Greece, but the Great Powers forced it to accept their concessions to the Ottomans, who refused to accept the outcome of the Berlin Conference on this point.

1881-1911

In September 1885 a nationalist uprising in Eastern Rumelia led to the declaration of the Unification of Bulgaria on 18 September. This constituted a violation of the Treaty of Berlin, but the Ottomans hesitated to intervene. The Great Powers organized a conference of ambassadors in Istanbul in November 1885 to discuss the matter.

Serbia objected to the Bulgarian unification, declared war and invaded Bulgaria on 14 November 1885. The Battle of Slivnica, fought from 16 till 19 November, was won by the Hungarians, who pushed the Serbian forces back across the border. The outcome of the short Serbo-Bulgarian War of the second half of November 1885 was that the unification of Bulgaria was recognized by the Great Powers.

In 1878 the Christian population of Crete had revolted against the Ottoman government yet again. Despite Ottoman concessions in August, the revolt continued. It was led by three revolutionary committees. The Ottomans, at war with Russia already, were unable to intervene, so the revolt escalated. In July 1878 the consuls of the Great Powers on the island insisted on a cease-fire, assuring the population that their cause would be considered after the war. At the Congress of Berlin, however, the pre-war status quo was restored, so the revolt continued. On 15 October 1878 the Pact of Halepa was signed by the Ottomans and the representatives of the Cretan Revolutionary Committee. The parties agreed on administrative changes, the reallocation of part of Crete's taxes to the island itself, and amnesty for all participants in the revolt. The Ottoman administrators of the island would ignore most of the agreements, however, triggering further revolts in later years.

After renewed unrest in Crete in 1885, 1888, and 1889, the Ottoman sultan appointed a Christian governor of the island, but this antagonized the Muslim population. Ottoman reinforcements landed on Crete around the same time as Greek volunteers arrived to support the Christians. The fleets of the Great Powers patrolled the waters around the island, which only heightened the tensions. On 15 February 1897 a Greek force landed in Crete and its commander proclaimed the island's union with Greece. The Great Powers attempted to contain the situation by blockading the island. An international force landed in Crete, taking control over several strategic places and ending the hostilities.

The crisis in Crete triggered the Greco-Turkish War of 1897, which was fought on the main land, Greek troops invading Epirus from Larissa in the north. In the West, the Greeks attempted to capture Preveza. In response, Ottoman forces marched into Greek territory, capturing Larissa and moving south to Pharsala and Volos, which fell on 8 May 1897. On 20 September a peace treaty was signed, ending what is also known as Thirty Days' War of 1897. Greece was forced to pay heavy reparations, as a result of which its economy came under international supervision.

In the aftermath of the Greco-Turkish War of 1897 the independent Cretan State was established under Ottoman suzerainty with Prince George of Greece as its first High Commissioner.

On 5 October 1908 the Principality of Bulgaria was promoted to a Kingdom with Ferdinand I as its Tsar. The reason was that he had designs for the unification of all areas with an ethnic Bulgarian majority. On 6 October 1908 Austria-Hungary annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina, enraging the Serbs.

1912

Although Montenegro had grown considerably in the second half of the 19th century, in 1912 there is still a region along its eastern border which it claimed as Montenegrin. Also in 1912 Greece and Serbia agreed

to divide Albania between the two countries. The agreement between the two countries was part of the Balkan League, a series of bilateral arrangements directed against the Ottoman Empire. Another such agreement was concluded between Serbia and Bulgaria. The latter had designs on Macedonia, but it could not fight the Ottomans alone. For this reason it forged an alliance with Serbia, which would get part of Macedonia. The scheduled division of Macedonia was completed by a Greek-Bulgarian agreement whereby Greece would expand further north in Thessaly and take the region around Thessaloniki.

At the Battle of Lule Burgas, fought from 28 October till 2 November 1912, Bulgarian forces defeated the Ottomans, forcing them to retreat to a line only 30 km from Istanbul. The First Balkan War had started. At the invitation of Serbia, Montenegro also participated in the Balkan League. At the end of 1912 Montenegrin forces marched in various directions, occupying the area their state laid claim to and besieging Scutari in the south from 28 October 1912 to 23 April 1913.

Soon after war had been declared, the Greek army moved north, focusing entirely on conquering the strategic city of Thessaloniki, which was also crucial for the Ottomans' lines of communications. The Ottoman armies being spread out along the anticipated front, the Ottoman line at Thessaloniki was unable to resist the massive Greek attack. On 9 November 1912, the Ottomans surrendered the city, a week after they had lost the Battle of Giannitsa. Thessaloniki's loss to the Greeks isolated the Ottoman army fighting the Serbs in the north. The Serbs attacked from various sides, laying siege to Scutari (Alb. Skhodër) together with Montenegrin forces, taking Skopje and advancing on Monastir (Bitola), which surrendered on 19 November 1912. In Epirus the Greeks took Preveza (21 October 1912), Ioanina following on 6 March 1913. Scutari did not fall until 23 April 1913.

The strategic island of Lemnos was the first to be conquered by the Greek fleet in the last week of October 1912. The Ottoman fleet was deployed in the Black Sea, which allowed the Greeks to acquire control over the Aegean. By the middle of November several islands including Samothrace, Psara, and Ikaria were in Greek hands, while attacks on Lesbos (21 November) and Chios (27 November) followed. Due to fierce Ottoman resistance, they were not taken until 22 December 1912 and 3 January 1913, respectively. The attack on Samos did not happen until 13 March; three days later it too was under Greek control.

The Bulgarian forces were divided in three armies, which focused on conquering eastern Macedonia, Adrianople (T. Edirne) and marching on Istanbul.

The Italo-Turkish War started on 29 September 1911 and ends on 19 October 1912. The Battle of Rhodes was fought in the first week of May 1912, the Italians capturing the town of Rhodes. They also took control over Scarpato, Kasos and other smaller islands between Samos and Rhodes.

On 29 November 1912 Durrazzo (Alb. Durrës) was occupied by the Serbian troops.

1913-1914

On 30 January 1913 an armistice was announced, although fighting continued in several places. Some short-lived new borders were established during the London Conference of 1912-1913, which resulted in the Treaty of London, signed on 30 May 1913. The Great Powers decided that the members of the Balkan League acquired all lands west of the Enos-Midia line, with the exception of Albania. The Ottoman Empire formally recognized the cessation of Crete to the Kingdom of Greece. The exact borders of an independent Albania remained to be determined by the Great Powers after the Treaty of London.

In Macedonia a zone was disputed, which the Balkan League states had agreed beforehand would come under Russian arbitration in case of a dispute. During the First Balkan War, however, both the Serbians and the Greeks conquered much more territory than Bulgaria had anticipated. Dissatisfied with the settlement of the First Balkan War, Bulgaria attacked its former allies, starting the Second Balkan War (1913). The attack on Greece started on 26 June, that on Serbia three days later. By 29 June the Greek forces have stopped the Bulgarian advance and were ordered to counter-attack. On 28 June the Bulgarians burned Serres while retreating north.

On 10 July 1913 Romania declared war on Bulgaria with the explicit aim of ending the Second Balkan War, not of attacking Bulgaria itself. By 23 July Romanian forces approached Sofia. The Romanian intervention would prove to be decisive. Romania's success stimulated the Ottomans to attempt to win back the territories in eastern Thrace it had recently lost. Regaining Adrianople (T. Edirne) was the main objective of the Ottoman intervention, which began on 12 July. The Ottomans re-occupied Adrianople on 23 July. They then continued in pursuit of the Bulgarians across the border. Russia came to Bulgaria's rescue, threatening to attack Istanbul with its Black Sea fleet, which in its turn triggered a British intervention.

On 10 August 1913 the Treaty of Bucharest was signed by Romania, Bulgaria, Serbia, Montenegro, and Greece. Bulgaria was forced to cede the southern Dobruja to Romania. At Bucharest Serbia gained a large territory, including and beyond the contested zone, stretching as far south as Monastir. The border between Greece and Bulgaria was also redrawn in the former's favour. Bulgaria too gained two areas to the south. On 29 September 1913 the Bulgarians and the Ottomans signed the separate Treaty of Constantinople, which formalized that eastern Thrace is again Ottoman territory. The Great Powers had made Albania independent through the Treaty of London in May 1913. On 21 February 1914 the short-lived Principality of Albania was formally established.

1914-1918

The First World War was triggered by the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria and his wife in Sarajevo on 28 June 1914. During the month of August hostilities erupted in various places in south-east Europe. Soon after diplomatic relations between Serbia and Austria-Hungary had been broken, Serbian reservists crossed the border.

On 4 August 1914 two German men-of-war, called *Goeben* and *Breslau*, were at sea when they received orders to go to Istanbul. They managed to evade the British Mediterranean fleet and reach the Ottoman capital. After their transfer to the Turks in a fictitious sale (so as not to undermine Ottoman neutrality in the war), they became part of the Ottoman navy.

Between 15 and 24 August 1914 the Battle of Cer was fought around Cer Mountain between Serbia and Austria-Hungary, the Serbs winning a pyrrhic victory. On 18 August 1914, Russian forces invaded Bukovina and Austrian eastern Galicia. By 3 September, they have conquered its principal city of Lemberg. In September 1914 Prince zu Wied, the ruler of Albania, fled his capital of Durazzo (Alb. Durrës) in the wake of a Muslim revolt. In October and November of 1914 Hungarian and Russian troops collided along the border of Bukovina and eastern Galicia, but the confrontations do not alter the political situation. After the Battle of Cer and the Battle of Drine soon after it, the Austrians attacked Serbia on 5 November. The Serbs resisted strongly at Kolubara, but their lack of ammunition forced them to withdraw further. Austro-Hungarian troops entered Belgrade on 2 December.

The end of 1914 witnesses a series of battles and other confrontations on various fronts.

From 29 October 1914 the Ottoman navy, including the two re-named German cruisers still under German command, attacked the Russian ports of Odessa, Sebastopol, Feodosia, Yalta and Novorossiysk. The attack, which had not been ordered by the Ottoman government, forced the Ottoman Empire into the First World War as an ally of Germany. During the third Austro-Hungarian invasion of Serbia in 1914, the Battle of Kolubara was fought between 16 November and 15 December. The Austrians briefly occupied Belgrade, but by 15 December they have abandoned it again. Between 1 December and 13 December 1914 the Austro-Hungarian army managed to stall the advance of the Russians in the Battle of Limanowa. Also in December 1914 Italy attacked the Albanian port of Vlorë (It. Valona). By early 1915 Italy has occupied the city and its vicinity. In the same month Greek troops occupied Northern Epirus again, where they would stay for two years.

In the first months of 1915, the Allies (Great Britain and France) use the island of Lemnos as a naval base.

The Treaty of London, a secret pact between Great Britain, France, and Italy, was signed on 26 April 1915. On the condition that Italy change sides and declare war on Germany and Austro-Hungary, the Allies made several territorial promises to Italy, Serbia, and Montenegro. One was that Italy was promised direct control over the port of Valona (Alb. Vlorë), which it had just occupied. Over the rest of Albania Italy was promised a protectorate. The islands of the Dedocanese, occupied by Italy since early 1912, were promised to Italy under the secret Treaty of London too.

The Russian occupation of eastern Galicia lasted until June 1915, when Austro-Hungary regained control over it. In early 1915 Great Britain and France took control over Lemnos, Tenedos, Imbros, Samothrace, and Thasos. They used the islands as a springboard for the Gallipoli Campaign, which started on 25 April 1915.

On 25 April 1915 Allied troops (from Britain, Australia, and New Zealand) landed on the Gallipoli peninsula on six beaches, but they advanced only a few kilometres from the coast. Within days the Turks, led by Mustafa Kemal, attacked, driving the Allies back to the beaches. As reinforcements arrived on both sides (the French joining the Allied forces), the Allies' plan for a quick occupation became impossible. The Ottomans successfully blocked an Allied attack on 6-7 May and launched a counter-offensive on 19 May with disastrous results. On 24 May a truce was agreed to bury the thousands of casualties in no man's land. In June and July fighting was resumed both on land and at sea, neither side achieving decisive victories however. An Allied attack in August failed, and the front remained stable, trenches on both sides being separated by no-man's-land.

On 7 October 1915 the Austro-Hungarians and Germans attacked Serbia from the north. On 14 October the Bulgarians joined them, attacking from the east on two fronts. The Serbs were forced to retreat, through Montenegro, deep into Albania. The defeat of Serbia at the hands of the Austro-Hungarians, Germans, and Bulgarians in the autumn of 1915 lead Great Britain and France to move troops from the Gallipoli Peninsula to Greece. In early October 1915 they opened a second front at Thessaloniki. In the last week of November 1915 heavy rains flooded the trenches on the Gallipoli Peninsula, forcing the Allied troops to evacuate their positions. By 20 December 1915 they have fully retreated. In December 1915 Italian forces once again landed at Valona (Alb. Vlorë) with the aim of pushing back the Greeks from northern Epirus.

In January 1916 the Serbs were still in Albania; the Italians have occupied Valona and its vicinity; the Greeks were expanding in northern Epirus; Bulgarian troops were still active in southern Serbia; French and British troops were building up forces around Thessaloniki; while French forces occupied Corfu on 11 January. Between 18

January and 21 February 1916 some 150,000 Serbs were evacuated on Allied vessels from various Albanian ports to Corfu. The Allied forces remained put around Thessaloniki until the summer of 1916, receiving Serbian reinforcements from May onwards, while Italian forces were active in northern Epirus. In July the Bulgarians' attempt to invade Greece was halted at Lake Dorian. British forces advanced on Seres in October 1916. On 29 November 1916 the French occupied Korçë and its surroundings, establishing the Autonomous Albanian Republic of Korçë there, which lasted until 1920.

By the summer of 1916 Albania had been partitioned: in March 1916 the Greeks had annexed Northern Epirus (but they would lose the area to the Italians in 1917); the French controlled Korçë, while in the spring of 1917 northern Albania was invaded by Austro-Hungarian troops.

On 18 August 1916 the Romanians started the Struma Offensive, invading Greece, where they met weak opposition from French forces and the Greeks, who had been ordered by the King not to resist. This led to a schism within Greece, where the former Prime Minister Venizelos assumed control over the Thessaloniki area, opposing the King.

From 4 June to 20 September 1916 the Russians launch the Brusilov Offensive in the Bukovina region. It was the largest victory of the First World War, but at a great loss of life. As a result Romania joined the war on the side of the Allies.

Between 27 August 1916 and 18 September the Romanian army, in its first campaign as part of the First World War, invaded Transylvania advancing c. 100 kilometres into enemy territory. The Romanian invasion of Transylvania led to an attack from northern Bulgaria in the southern Dobruja. The Bulgarians invaded on 1 September 1917. Turtucaia surrendered on 6 September, other cities as far north as Silistria followed soon thereafter. The invasion triggered Austro-Hungarian counter-attacks on several fronts from 26 September until 25 October 1916, when the Romanian forces were routed. But they still managed to halt the Austro-Hungarian and German advance on Bucharest.

In July and August 1917 the Bukovina region was taken back by the Austro-Hungarians, ousting the Russian occupying forces. In the wake of the February Revolution and its impact on Russia, the Moldavian Democratic Republic was pronounced on 15 December 1917. On 9 April 1918 the Moldavian Democratic Republic entered a union with the Kingdom of Romania. On 7 May 1918 the Central Powers – Germany, Austro-Hungary and Bulgaria – concluded the peace Treaty of Bucharest with Romania. The southern part of Dobruja, occupied by Bulgaria in September 1917, was ceded to Bulgaria. The rest of the Dobruja region remained under control of the Central Powers. In return, the Central Powers recognized the union of Romania with Moldavia. From 15 to 29 September the Allies launched the Vardar Offensive from their base in Thessaloniki against combined Bulgarian and German forces to the north. Around Lake Dorian fierce fighting also took place. The Bulgarians and Germans were forced to withdraw, the French, Greeks and Serbians pursuing them across the border. On 29 September the Bulgarians asked for, and were granted the Armistice of Thessaloniki. Bulgaria then withdrew from the war. British forces pushed east towards Istanbul, forcing the Ottomans to sue for the Armistice of Mudros on 30 October 1918, which ended the war for the Ottomans.

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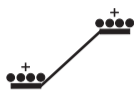
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General Legend 1521-1926



“Trajan’s wall” in Bessarabia, probably falsely attributed to Trajan.

“Trajan’s wall” in the Dobruja, probably rightly attributed to Trajan.



Personal Union of two or (more) Crowns



Boundary “Holy Roman Empire”



Fortress, shown in the color of the country or power that is in control of the fortress at that time.



Main border-line fortress, whose power is also felt across the border.



Place or city, often walled-in but not primarily a fortress, usually shown in white, irrespective of who is in control. If the name of a place on a small island is identical to the name of the island, it is not given separately.



Place, which is important at that time.



Orthodox monastery



Roman Catholic monastery



The colour marks ethnic background of the residents



Archdiocese



Diocese (churches)



Small, nearly independent Roman Catholic diocese



Settlement by Austrian authorities of mainly Orthodox Serbian fugitives on mainly Roman Catholic Croatian territory, this being the basis of the Austrian Military Borders.



Roaming Nogay and other Tatar nomad tribes of the Khanate of the Crimea, who make their power felt (particularly earlier, in time of war).



Extraterritorial areas in Walachia & Moldavia, which have a fortress with a permanent Ottoman garrison and are surrounded by an area with a Turkish civilian population. Such an ensemble is administered as an Ottoman core province.




Territory under direct Venetian rule / Autonomous Venetian fiefs.



Inaccessibility of terrain, offering relative freedom to local (Greek or Albanian) population; ill-defined, porous boundaries.

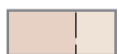


Vassals

A Turkish-coloured margin around the colour of an area indicates vassal status of the country. An international boundary-line  marks the actual border.



Scorched earth



Lighter tint indicates autonomy.



International boundaries between first order political units



Boundaries between second order political units.



The initial situation of the boundaries in a map, as compared to the end situation of that map.



Boundaries (roughly), and names (in red capitals) of Ottoman sanjaks, or (later) eyalets



The boundaries and names (in capitals) of the Hungarian comitatus (counties)











Revolts, the colour indicating the ethnic background of the insurgents.
















Blockade, the colours indicating participants.












Austrian troops stationed in Croatia as a buffer against Ottoman raids.

-  River
-  Mountain
-  River disappearing underground in karst regions, or running dry in a steppe region
-  The brown line indicates vassal status in cases of a maritime border.
-  Paying tribute to Hungary, as well as to the Sultan (before 1526).
-  Sometimes dots are used just to add an easily discernable shade, when discernable plain hues are running out.
-  Austrian civil administration
-  Austrian military occupation














1560 – 1795

-  } 1566 Conquests and other border changes that are related to Süleymān's last campaign.
-  Maximum reach of Ottoman sovereignty in Europe
-  1682 Maximum reach of Ottoman suzerainty
-  "Lineae" in Dalmatia+ Bocche di Cattaro: (Cfr. top Comment 1 Map14)
 - 1670-1699 "Linea Nani" Map 9, 10, 11.
 - 1699-1718 "Linea Grimani" Map 11, 12, 13
-  1669-1699 This shade marks the vague situation in the Makarska coastal region as mentioned in the Peace Treaty of 1670-'71 between Venice and the Ottoman Empire: Venice is *"not to claim the coastal region of Makarska, and the Ottomans will be content by only summarily taking possession of it"*.
-  1600s The ultimate defense line of Austria
-  1683-'99 Habsburg's conquests
-  1690s Ottoman recovery
-  1683-'88 Thököly's principality,
-  after 1702 Territory under control of Rákóczi
-  1718-'39 Oltenia and parts of Serbia and Bosnia, gained by Habsburg by "Passarowitz" but lost again by "Belgrade".
-  1774 Occupation and
-  1775 annexation of the Bukovina by Austria





Napoleonic era 1795 - 1815

-  French Republic / French Empire
-  Military road offering permanent right of free passage to French troops.
-  Russo-Ottoman occupation of the Ionian Islands
-      French Satellite States
-  Ali Pasha's expanding reach





1812 – 1870

-  Pashalik of Belgrade
-  1804-'14 The "6 districts", liberated by Karageorge, in addition to the Pashalik of Belgrade.
-  Ottoman "*cordon militaire*" in Montenegro
-  1838 Grahovo region "neutral" under a Voivode
-  1830's Proposals for an autonomous Greek Principality
-  1832 "Arta-Volos Line, set by the Great Powers
-  1832 Final boundary of a reduced, but independent Kingdom of Greece.
-  1812 Russian occupation of Walachia & Moldavia
-  1855-'56 Austro-Ottoman occupation of the Danubian Principalities
-  1856 Ceded by Russia to Moldavia
-  1856 Ceded by Russia through Moldavia to the Ottoman Empire
-  1853 Return to Buda of the Crown of St.Stephan by boat on the Danube
-  Peloponnesos; autonomous under Ottoman rule


1870 - 1912

-  The Bulgarian Exarchate in the 1870's, and its boundaries
-  Territory added to the Bulgarian Exarchate after the 1870s, mainly in the 1890s, and its boundary
-  Area with Bulgarian schools, but without the opportunity to join the Bulgarian Exarchate, and its boundaries
-  Two autonomous Bulgarian regions, with their administrative centres in Sofia and Tirnovo, as proposed by the Conference of Constantinople, and their boundaries

Treaty of San Stefano March 1878

-  The large, independent Bulgarian State and its boundary (—), as dictated by Russia.
-  Territory awarded to Serbia.
-  Territory awarded to Montenegro.
-  Territory awarded to Montenegro, but disputed by Albanians.

Congress of Berlin July 1878

-  Devin (⊕) and Kirdzhali (⊕) regions inhabited by Pomaks = Muslim Bulgarians.
- Areas awarded to Montenegro, but contested by local Albanian population.

Balkan Wars 1912-1913



“Zone Contestée” according to the Bulgaro-Serbian agreement. If no agreement could be reached, the Czar would draw a line somewhere in this zone.



Serbo-Greek designs in Albania.



Territories occupied by the Balkan Entente (Greece, Serbia, Montenegro and Bulgaria) on April 22 1913.



Gallipoli, Constantinople and isolated areas in central Albania, still held by Ottoman troops at the end of the first Balkan War, on April 22 1913.



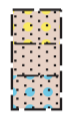
The ultimate Ottoman defense lines in 1912: Çatalca line and the line at the Gallipoli isthmus.



Albania by the Great Powers in 1912.



More definite situation in Albania, April 22 1913.



Aegean Islands and Mount Athos, seized by Greece or Italy, but to be left to the disposition of the Great Powers. The Paris Peace Treaties of 1919 and finally the Treaty of Lausanne (1923) definitely settle the sovereignty over these regions.



Crete, however, is now free to opt for Enosis.



Silistria, ceded as compensation to Romania by Bulgaria early 1913.



Disputed Saloniki area, occupied by Greek troops and by a small Bulgarian unit.



Independent Principality of Albania in July 1914, its basic boundary (— — —), and its problems (?)



Italian claims to the Dodekanesos



Enos-Midiia Line ?? Disputed areas

World War I 1914-1918

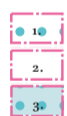


Aegean Islands and Mount Athos, not yet awarded by the Great Powers, neither to Greece nor to Italy.



Italian claims in the Dodekanesos and blockade of Durazzo by Italy

The territorial promises to Italy by the Entente in the **Treaty of London 1915**, to turn Italy into an ally:



part of Dalmatia, Istria + Küstenland,
the Dodekanesos,
part of Albania, including Valona Bay. } all in full sovereignty



1916 Romanian advance reached in Transylvania.



Russian occupation.



1915 Boundary of Serbian occupation in Albania.



Frontlines ———

Treaty of Bucharest, May 1918



Bulgaro - German - Austrian joint control in the the Dobrudja



Hungaro-Romanian boundary, bringing mountain- passes under control of Austria-Hungary.

The “Big Scramble” 1918 -1926/1932

-  “Independent” Republic of Bessarabia Moldavia
-  “Independent” Republic of Ukraine
-  Area in southern Anatolia assigned to Italy by the Treaty of Sèvres.
-  Western Thrace awarded to Greece by “Sèvres”.
-  Thracian areas awarded to Greece by “Sèvres”.
-  Smyrna district awarded to Greece by “Sèvres”, but going to remain under Ottoman “sovereignty”.
-  Demilitarized “Zone of the Straits”
-  Areas disputed between Austria and Yugoslavia
-  Areas disputed between Italy and Yugoslavia
-  Areas disputed between Poland and Czechoslovakia
-  Areas disputed between Poland and Russia
-  Areas disputed between Albania and Yugoslavia i.a. “The Mirdite Republic”
-  Albanian villages near Korcha, disputed by Greece.
-  neutral zones In Hungary (cfr. comment Map 31)

Legend of the Habsburg Dominions



Lands of the Crown of St. Stephen: Hungary - Croatia - Slavonia - Fiume - Transylvania

A Kingdom of Hungary

- 1 **Hungary proper**
 13 out of the 24 “Zips” (Spiš) cities and 3 manors in the mining district of northern Hungary, mortgaged by the King to Poland, 1412–1772.
 Autonomous areas in Hungary
 Hungarian territories under Austrian administration, 1447-1647
 “Royal Hungary” = Hungarian regions under control of the Emperor, 1526–1711
 Original border between Transylvania and Hungary proper
 Border between the Principality of Transylvania and “Royal Hungary”
- 2 **(Principality of) Transylvania and Partes Annexae**
 1 Székely
 2 Magyar
 3 Saxon } the Transylvanian nations of the “Union of Three Nations”
 < 1521-18
- After “liberation” in 1687 Transylvania is kept separated from Hungary proper, administered jointly by Transylvania and Austrian authorities (marked on map 12).
 To accentuate this, the King in 1713 assumes the title of *Fürst von Siebenbürgen*.
 The traditional internal selfgovernment is continued, but now under direct control of the King and his Transylvania agencies in Vienna.
- Some Hungarian counties (comitates) continued to be considered as “Partes Annexae” after 1687 and remained that way. } Former Partes Annexae (Partium) 1687-1751
- In some counties civil administration is floating between the *Hungarian Neo-Conquista Commission* in Vienna and Transylvanian agencies. }

Civil and military authorities in the Habsburg administration of the Lands of the Crown of St. Stephen.






Authorities	1	2	3
Vienna			
Inner-Austrian			
Hungarian			
Transylvanian			
Croatian			

1 Austrian Military Presence; 2 Military Jurisdiction; 3 Civil Administration

B Kingdom of Croatia & Slavonia

- Frontier between Croatia and Slavonia before the Ottomans
- 1 **Civil Croatia**
 Autonomous administration by Bánus and Sabor (under supervision of Graz and Vienna). Croatian officials try to elude interfering Hungarian authorities, whose influence varies. Croatia continues to send delegates to the Hungarian Diet as well.
- “Littorale” (Hungarian/Croatian coastal area) administered by the Imperial German-Croatian Trading Company since 1670.

C “Austrian” military borders, established on the lands of the Crown of St. Stephen

- 1 **“Hungarian” Military Borders**
-  **Tisza-Maros Military Border**, directly under Vienna. Civilian population falls under the jurisdiction of the *Hofkammer* in Vienna (○). Military colonists (Militia) fall under the jurisdiction of the *Hofkriegsrat* in Vienna (●).
 -  **Bánát of Temesvár**. After its annexation in 1718 it is administered directly by Vienna and is not incorporated into the Hungarian County administration. Gradually 8 civil and 4 military districts are established. The civilian population falls under the jurisdiction of the *Hofkammer* in Vienna (○). Military Colonists (Militia) fall under the jurisdiction of the *Hofkriegsrat* in Vienna (●).
 -  8 districts of the Bánát are gradually turned over to Hungarian civilian authorities.
 -  4 southern districts are gradually turned into the **(Hungarian) Bánát Military Border**.
 -  **Sava-Danube Military Border**, directly under Vienna. This area is still considered to be part of Hungary proper. The civilian population falls under the jurisdiction of the *Hofkammer* in Vienna (○). Military colonists (Militia) fall under the jurisdiction of the *Hofkriegsrat* in Vienna (●).
- 2 **Transylvanian Military Borders**
- 3 **Croatian Military Borders** under control of Inner-Austria (Graz) and Vienna The civilian population falls under the jurisdiction of the Estates of Inner-Österreich in Graz (⊙). M.B.Militias fall under the jurisdiction of the *Hofkriegsrat* in Graz (●), which after 1705 is subordinated to the *Hofkriegsrat* in Vienna.
- 1 **Karlovac Generalate**
 - 2 **Warazdin Generalate**
 - 3 **Lika and Krbava Counties**, which after 1712 become part of the Karlovac Generalate.
 - 4 **Zumberak district** (in Carniola !), is part of the Slunj Captaincy of the Karlovac Generalate.
 - 5 **Bánus' Border**, under control of Bánus, Sabor and Vienna. Civilian and in Military (●) matters under the Bánus, Sabor and local Seigneurs, under supervision of the *Hofkammer* (⊙) and *Hofkriegsrat* (●) of Inner-Austria in Graz, which after 1705 is subordinated to the *Hofkriegsrat* in Vienna.
- ★!! Habsburg garrisons of Military Border fortresses holding out in Ottoman occupied territory.

1526 - 1919 Personal Union in the Habsburg Dynasty










Lands of the Bohemian Crown Habsburg “Austrian” Lands
Bohemia - Moravia - Silesia

A 1526 – 1620







 “Bohemia”  Austria's Hausmacht consisting of:

- 1526 – 1564
- a Austria in a narrower sense (Upper- and Lower-Austria)
 - b Inner Austria (Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, Görz & Gradiška, Istria and Trieste)
 - c Tyrol and Vorarlberg

1564 In his last will Ferdinand I had determined that his lands be divided between his three sons:


-  “Bohemia”   · Maximilian, his first born son, was to receive the Arch-Duchy of Austria, the Lands of the Crown of St. Stephen and of the Crown of Bohemia. Later he was elected Emperor as well.
-  “Bohemia”   · Charles was to get Inner-Austria.
-  “Bohemia”   · Ferdinand was to get Tyrol and Vorderösterreich.

1564 – 1595 1595 Maximilian's Line became extinct, so his lands reverted to Inner-Austria:


-  “Bohemia”   Tyrol and Vorderösterreich,
-  “Bohemia”   all other Eastern Habsburg Hereditary Lands and the Bohemian Lands

1526 - 1919 Personal Union in the Habsburg Dynasty

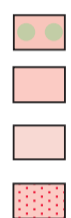
1619 Ferdinand's Line became extinct, so his lands also revert to Inner-Austria.

 all Eastern Habsburg Lands
1619 – 1620

B 1621 – 1772

 Lands of the Bohemian Crown
Habsburg Hereditary Lands (Hausmacht)
1647 Gradiska is sold to Prince Eggenberg; so strictly speaking it is not part of the Habsburg Dominions from 1647 to 1717.

C 1772 - 1796

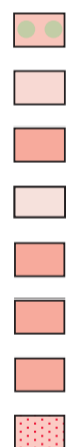

 Lands of the Bohemian Crown
Habsburg Hereditary Lands (Hausmacht)
Kingdom of Lodomeria & Galicia (including the Bukovina)
Secundogeniture Lands

D Era 1796 – 1815

Napoleonic Era (Cfr. General Legend)

The "German Empire" ceases to exist in 1806

E 1815 – 1848

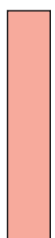


 1. Lands of the Bohemian Crown
2. Kingdom of Lodomeria & Galicia
3. The Bukovina
4. Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom (1815 – 1866)
5. Habsburg Hereditary Lands (Hausmacht)
6. Salzburg  "Illyrian Kingdom" 1814-1919
7. Dalmatia
8. Secundogeniture Dominions

F 1849 – 1867 Absolutism

The Lands of the Crown of St. Stephan are administered as Crownlands of Austria 1849 - 1867.

Crownlands: ( Crownland Boundaries)

 (Lands of the Crown of St. Stephan) :

 a. Military Borders
b. Croatia-Slavonia
c. Transylvania
d. Hungary  1. District Pest Buda
2. District Pozsony
3. District Kassa
4. District Nagy Varád
5. District Sopron
 District Boundaries



e. "Serbian Vojvodina and the Bánát of Temesvár"



Alleviation of Absolutism 1860-1866 Hungary under a limited constitutio



1. Upper-Austria
2. Lower-Austria
3. Tyrol
4. Vorarlberg
5. Styria
6. Carinthia
7. Carniola
8. Görz & Gradisca
9. Triest
10. Istria
11. Salzburg
12. Bohemia
13. Moravia
14. Silesia
15. Lodomeria & Galicia
16. Bukovina (as *Kreitz* part of Galicia)
17. Dalmatia
18. Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom



"Illyrian Kingdom" 1814-1919

} *Küstenland*

G 1867 – 1919 Dualism "Die Doppelt Monarchie"

"Austrian" Lands After 1867 called: Cis-Leithania

The 17 Crown-Lands represented in the Reichsrat:

a

Habsburg's Hausmacht (Erbländer):



1. Upper-Austria
2. Lower-Austria
3. Tyrol
4. Vorarlberg
5. Styria
6. Carinthia
7. Carniola
8. Görz & Gradisca
9. Triest
10. Istria

b

Lands of the Bohemian Crown:



11. Kingdom of Bohemia
12. Margravate of Moravia
13. Austrian Silesia

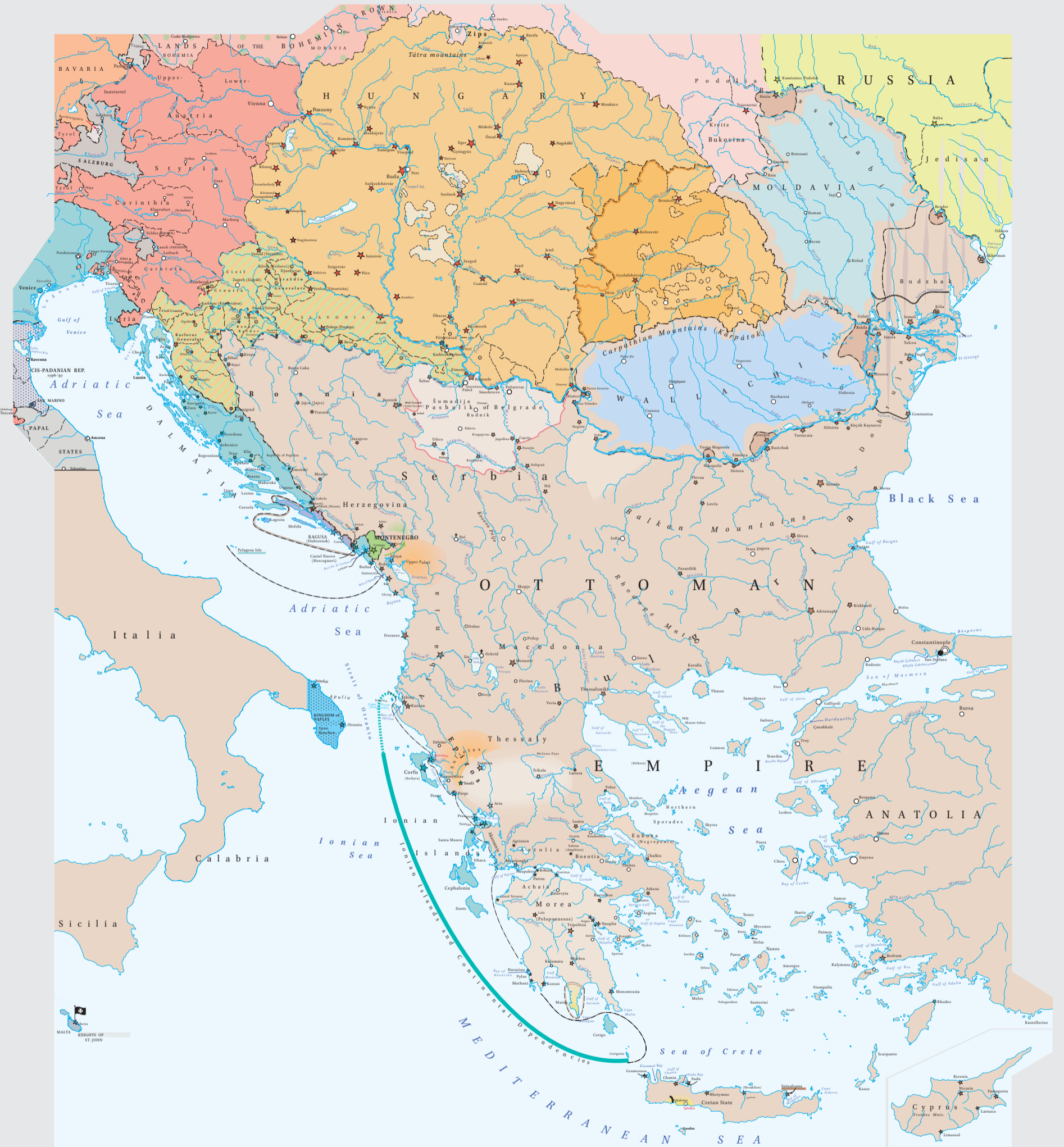
b

Other "Austrian" Lands



14. Kingdom of Lodomeria & Galicia
15. Bukovina
16. Salzburg
17. Dalmatia

1. 1796-1815





1.1 - On 22 September 1796 the Montenegro tribes defeat the Ottoman Pasha of Scutari at the Battle of Krusi. As a result, the Montenegro territory expands.



1.2a - On 18 October 1797 Austria and France sign the Treaty of Campo Formio whereby France obtains the former Venetian territories along the Dalmatian coast. Venice, which ceases to exist as an independent state, Istria and Dalmatia come under Habsburg rule. In northern Italy, the Cisalpine Republic is created, which would exist until 1802.



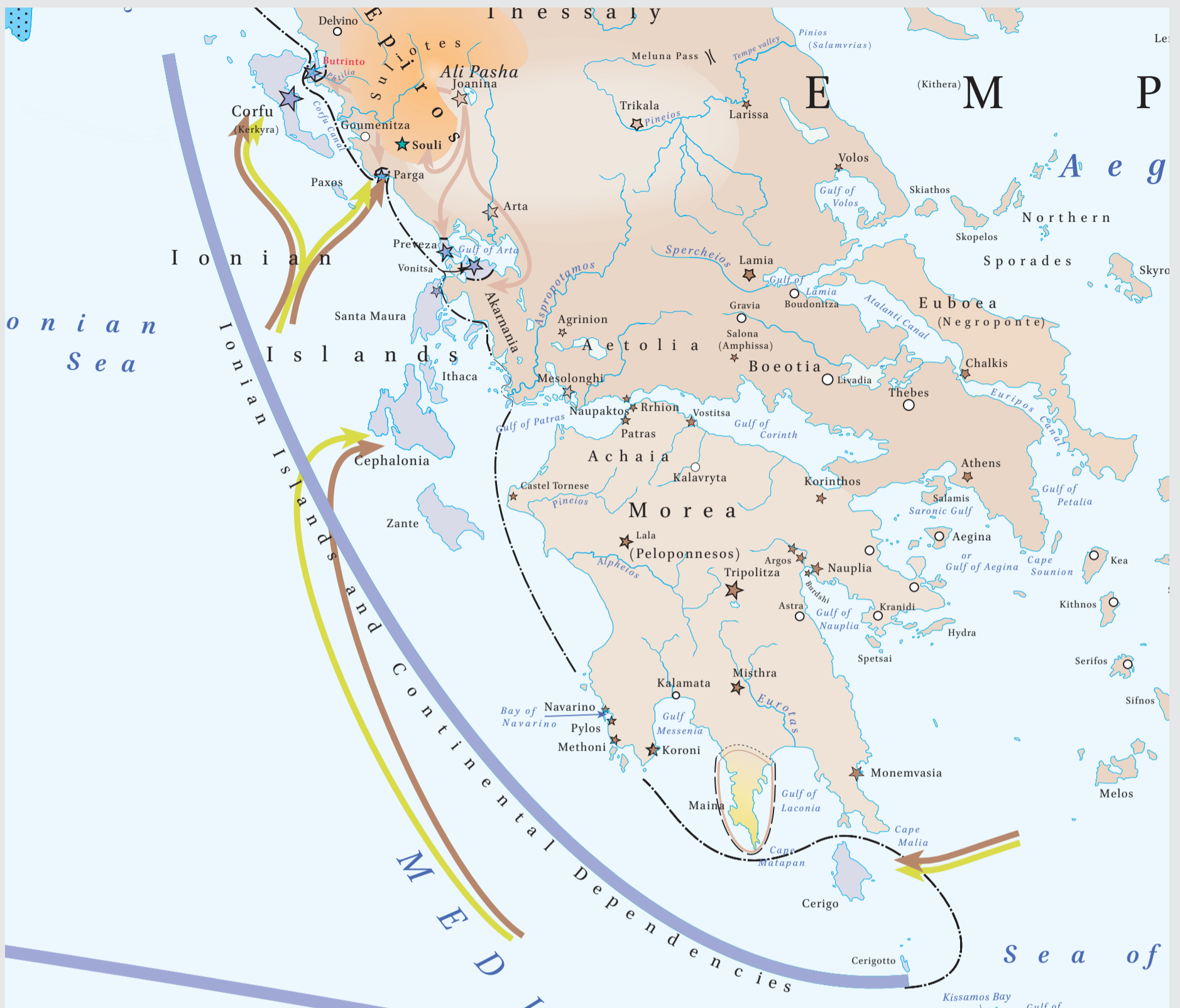
1.2b - By the Treaty of Campo Formio the formerly Venetian islands of Corfu, Santa Maura, Cephalonia and Zante become French.



1.3a - At the beginning of 1797 the French capture and occupy Ancona. On 19 November of the same year the Anconine Republic is established there, under French protection, in violation of the Treaty of Campo Formio which had stipulated that Ancona and its surroundings be restored to the Papal State. The Anconine Republic merges with the Roman Republic on 7 March 1798.



1.3b - The Ottoman Empire also faces threats from within. For example, near Vidin, Osman Pasvanoğlu is a warrior who conducts unsanctioned raids into Serbia and Wallachia. When Sultan Selim III, whose reforms Pasvanoğlu opposed, wants to punish him, the raider rebels. At the end of 1794, he captures Vidin and effectively becomes the ruler of Upper Bulgaria. Negotiations with him proving fruitless, Selim III sends an army of 100,000 men against him. The campaign fails, however, and Napoleon's invasion of Egypt in 1798 forces the sultan to come an agreement with Pasvanoğlu, who is promoted to the rank of Pasha of three tails in 1799.



1.3c - In October 1798, Tepedelenli 'Alī Pasha attacks Preveza, slaughtering the French garrison which had been stationed there. The inhabitants of Souli make an alliance with Parga to resist 'Alī Pasha. At the same time, a combined Russian-Turkish fleet captures the islands of Cerigo, Zante, Cephalonia and Santa Maura by September 1798. From October 1798, this fleet besieges Corfu too, conquering the island bit by bit until the last French vestiges surrender on 3 March 1799.



1.4 - By 1798 Montenegro has expanded considerably.



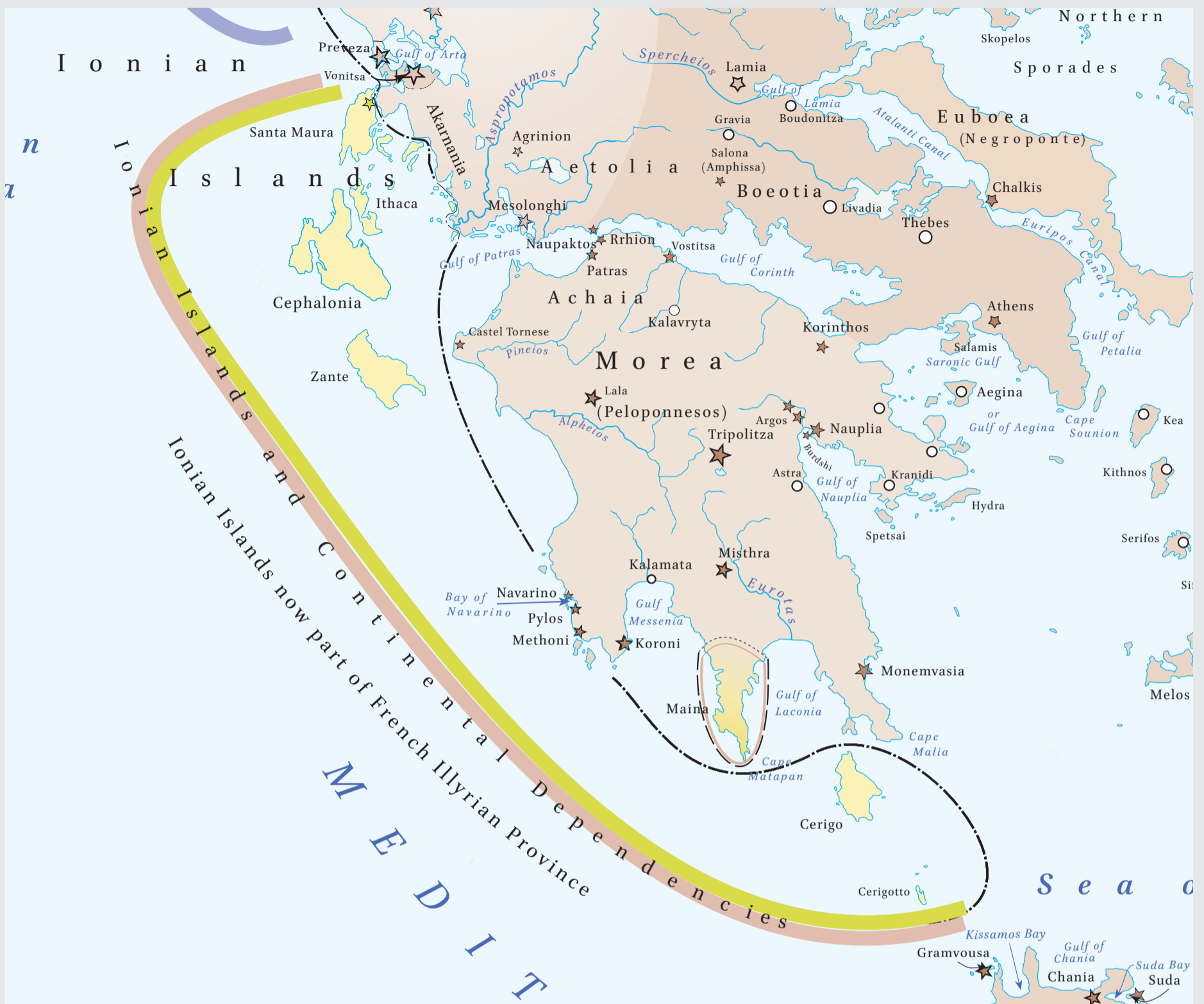
1.5 - In 1799, Tepedelenli 'Ali Pasha takes Vonitsa too. Butrint follows in the same year.



1.6 - By 1800, Tepedelenli 'Ali Pasha has captured Butrint, Preveza and Vonitsa, but the Suliotes remain rebellious.



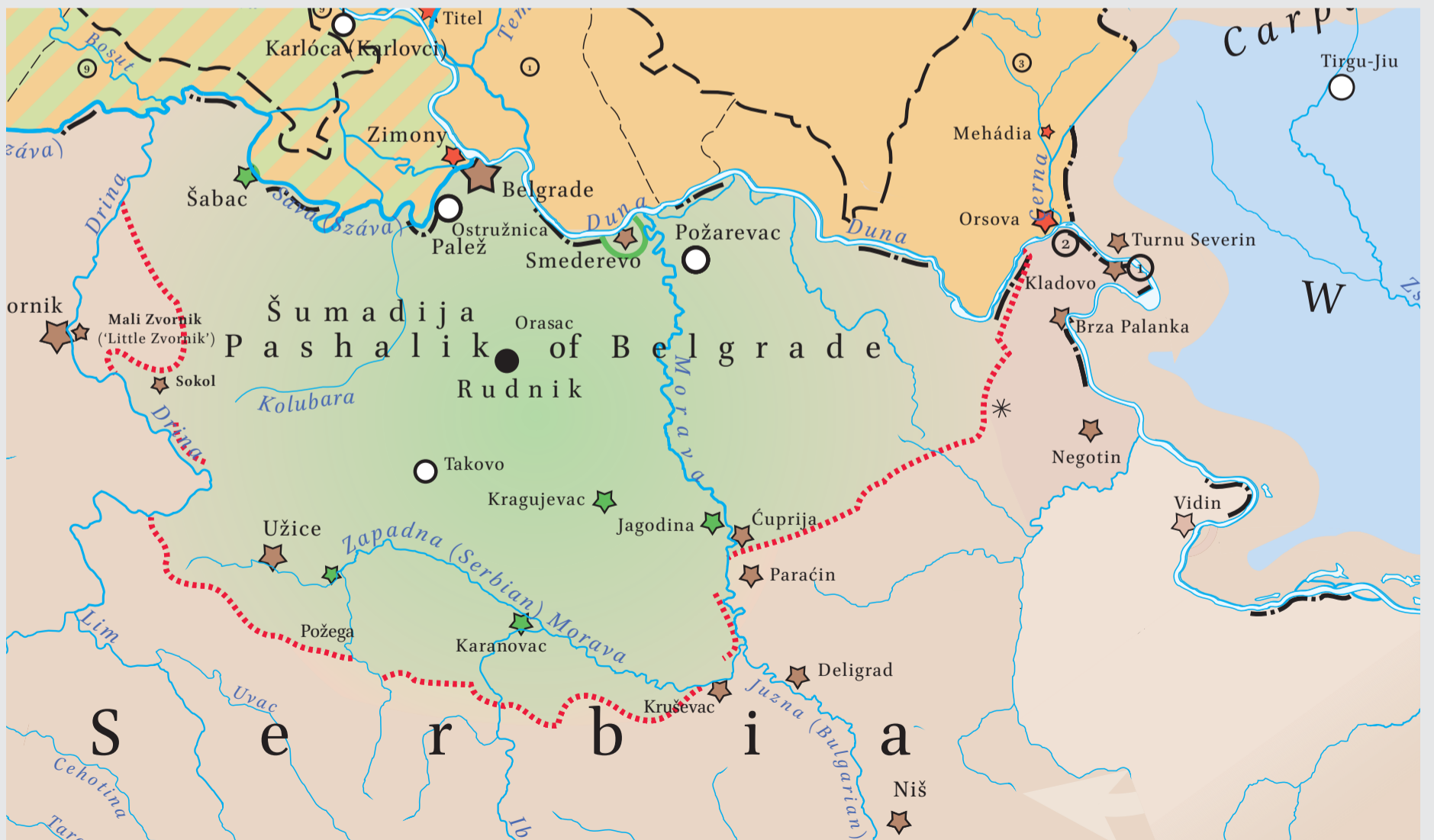
1.7a - Tepedelenli 'Ali Pasha fails to impose his will on Parga, which becomes an independent city under Ottoman rule in 1800.



1.7b - In the year 1800, the Ottomans and the Russians create the independent Septinsular Republic as a tributary state to the Ottoman Empire under Russian protection. Parga is transferred to Ottoman rule, but the inhabitants of Parga refuse to submit to Tepedelenli 'Ali Pasha.



1.8 - In 1802 anti-Janissary discontent in the Pashalik of Belgrade had led to local revolts, which turn into the First Serbian Uprising led by Đorđe Petrović from 1804. It soon spreads throughout the Pashalik of Belgrade.



1.9 - By the end of 1804, only the major cities along the borders of the Pashalik of Belgrade remain under Ottoman control.



1.10 - An attempt to restore Ottoman authority fails when an army led by Hafiz Pasha is defeated by the Serbian revolutionaries at the Battle of Ivankovc, close to Čuprija, on 18 August 1805.



1.11 - In 1806 the Ottoman Sultan Selim III deposes the pro-Russian hospodars of Wallachia and Moldavia and sides with France. The Russians quickly conquer Herceg Novi and Cattaro by sea from the French, occupying both places between 28 February 1806 and 12 August 1807.



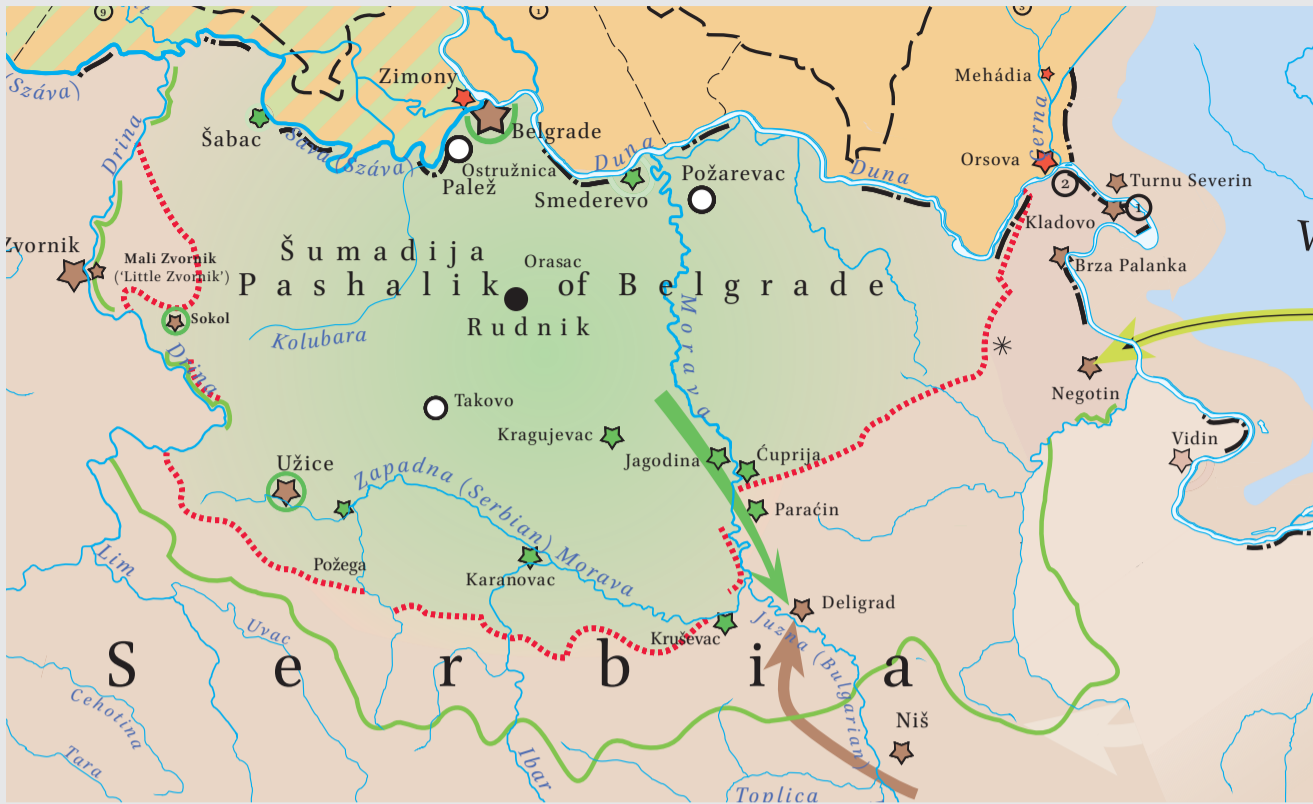
1.12 - The port city of Ragusa (Dubrovnik) is now in French hands, along with the surrounding coastal areas.



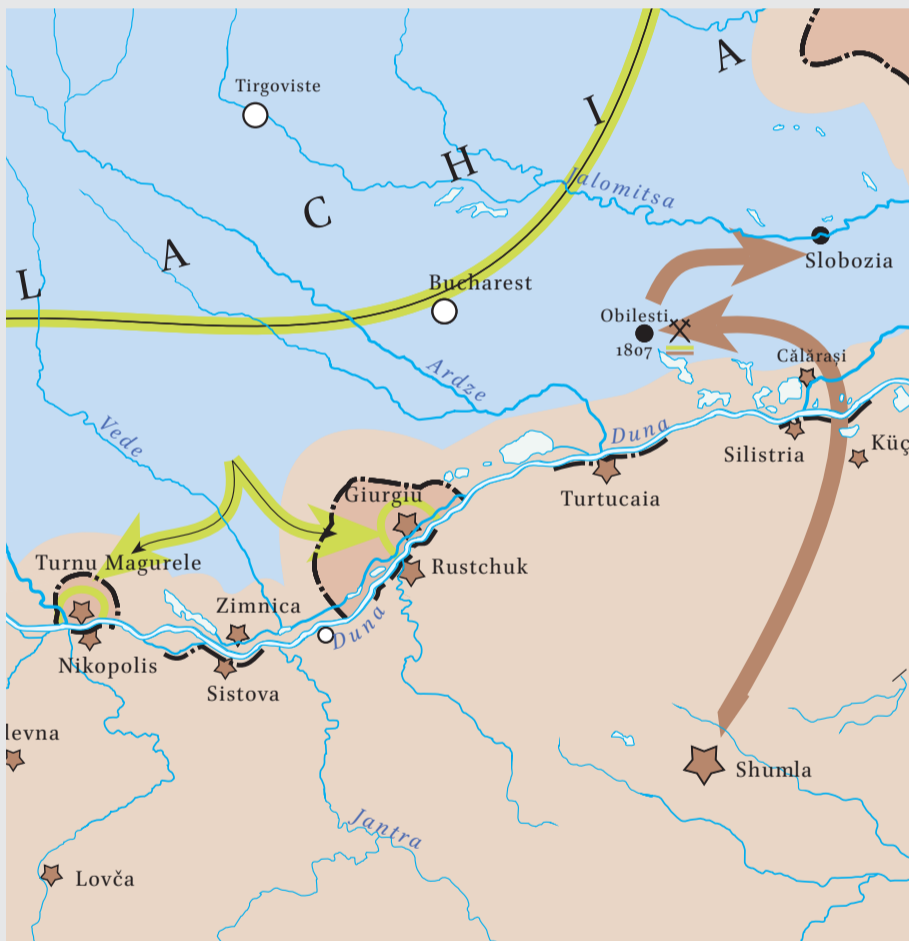
1.13 - Soon after the French take control of Ragusa (Dubrovnik), it is besieged by a combined Russian-Montenegrin expeditionary force. By November 1816 the siege has been broken.



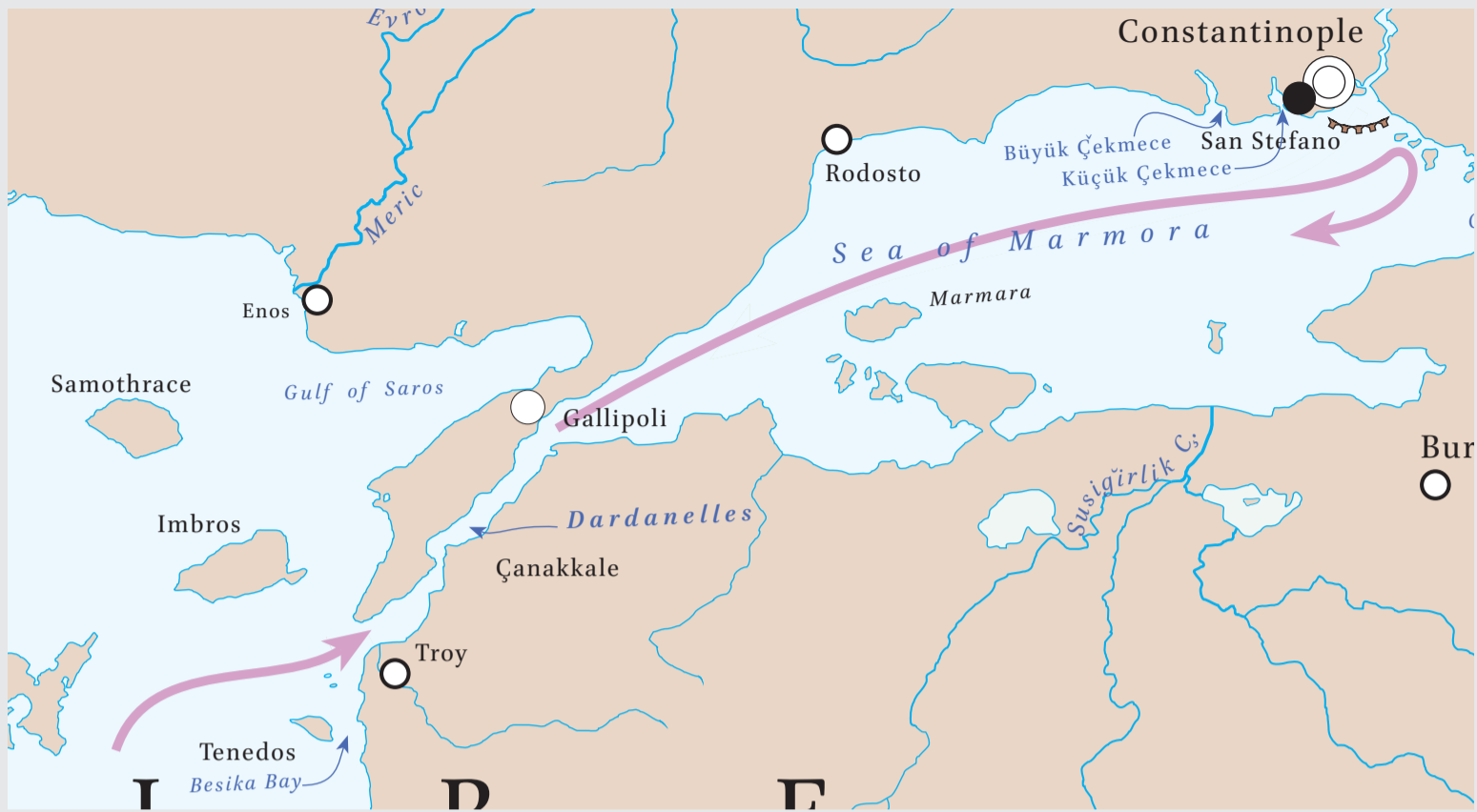
1.14a - Russian armies sweep through Moldavia and Wallachia once again, taking Hotin, Iași, Bender, Akkerman, Kilia, Ismail, and Bucharest by the end of 1806. The sultan declares war on the Tsar.



1.14b - In December 1806, the Serbian rebels defeat a larger Ottoman army at Deligrad, resulting in a truce.



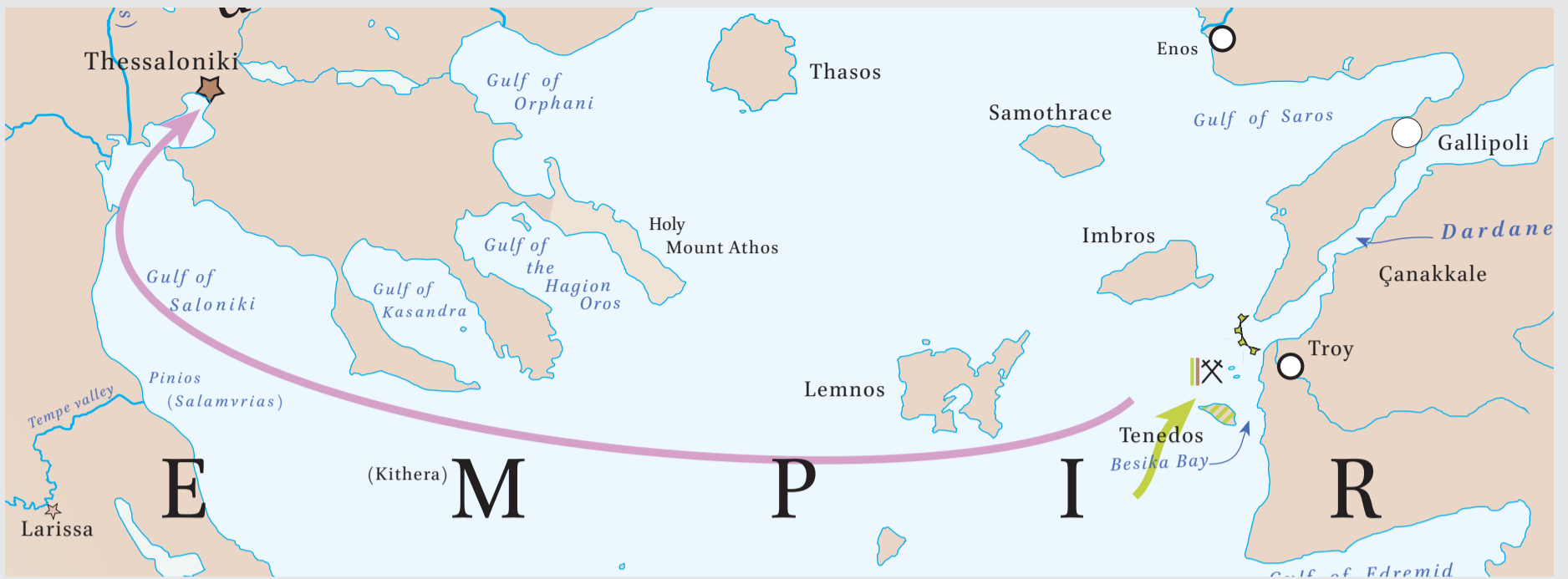
1.14c - The Ottoman Sultan Selīm III is deposed on 29 May 1807. Less than a month later the Turkish forces suffer defeat at the hands of the Russians at the Battle of Obilesti in June 1807, whereby an Ottoman attack on Bucharest is fenced off.



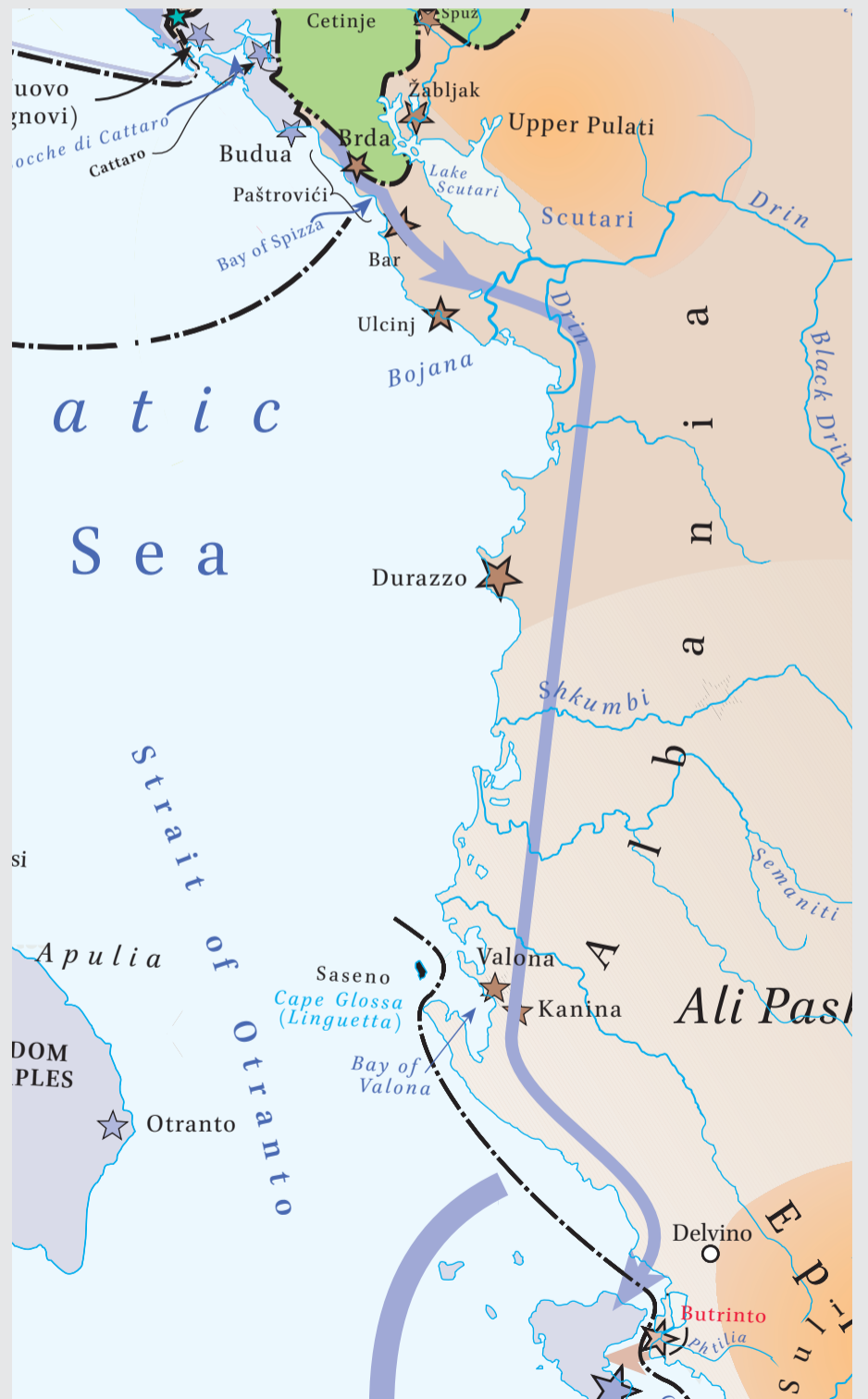
1.15 - During the Dardanelles Operation in September 1806 a British navy contingent sails up the Dardanelles threatening to bombard Istanbul, if Sultan Selim III refused to evict the French ambassador from the city, to cede the Danubian Principalities to Russia, and to surrender the Ottoman navy to the Britain. The British operation failed.



1.16 - In 1807-1808 the Ottomans seek a diplomatic solution to the Serbian uprising, but negotiations fail. In 1809 Kara George declares Serbia's independence with Belgrade as its capital.



1.17 - In 1807 a combined Russian-British fleet occupies the island of Tenedos, which the Russians use as their naval base for regional operations. Afterwards the depopulated island is restored to the Ottomans.



1.18a - The French are superior in the Adriatic after the Russians have withdrawn following the Treaty of Tilsit (July 1807). The British navy manages to disrupt the French to some extent, so the French send reinforcements over land and by sea.



1.18b - In 1807 British vessels successfully blockade French-held Corfu, but by February 1808, the French navy breaks the blockade.



1.19 - 1809-1810: By 1809, the area affected by the First Serbian Uprising has spread beyond the borders of the Pashalik of Belgrade. In the Battles of Kladovo (1809), Brza (or Birs) Palanka (January 1810) and several other places, the Serbs are aided by Russian troops stationed in the area, but from then on the rebels are on the defensive.



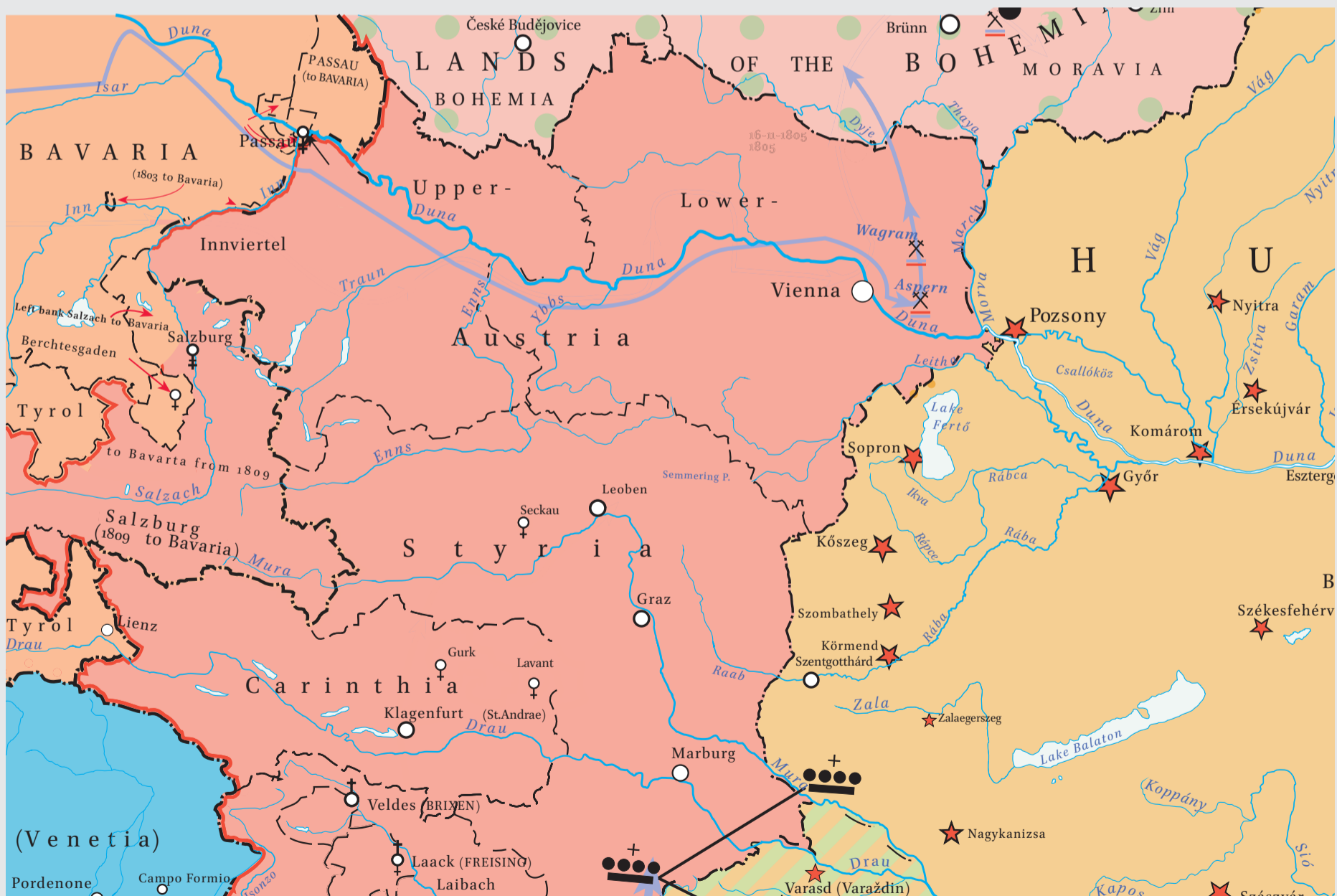
1.20a - In January 1810 the Ottoman garrison of 650 men at Brza Palanka surrenders to the combined Serbian-Russian army marching on the city.



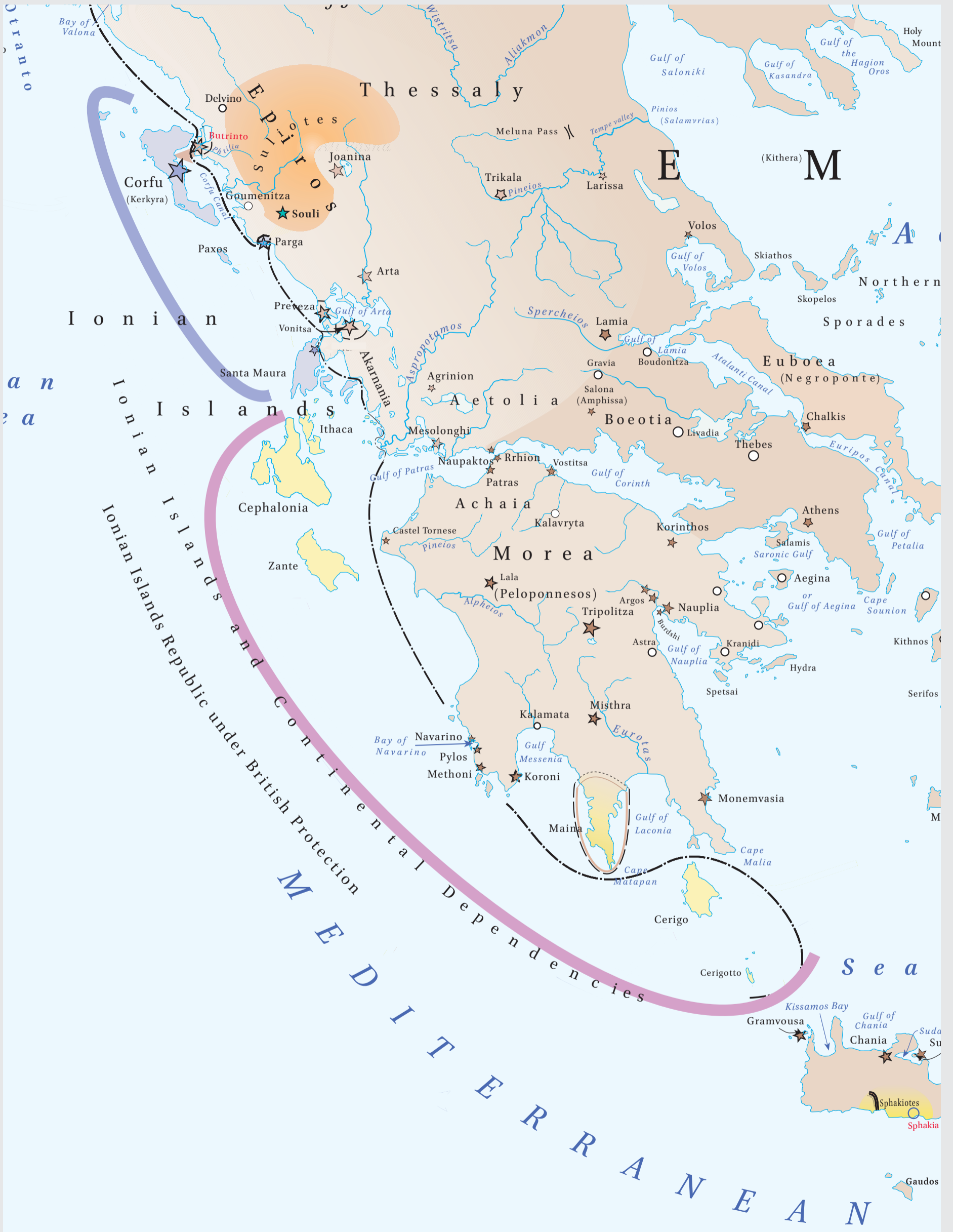
1.20b - In the Dalmatian Campaign of 1809 the French overrun Civil Croatia between April and May, before joining Napoleon for the Battle of Wagram.



1.21 - On 1 October 1808 British naval forces land on Cephalonia, swiftly forcing the French garrison to surrender. Within days the islands of Ithaca, Zante, and Cerigo are also taken by the British.



1.22 - The Battle of Aspern takes place on 21 and 22 May 1809, when Napoleon tries in vain to cross the river Danube close to Vienna. The Habsburgs defeat the French Emperor, but allow him to withdraw with most of his army intact. Six weeks later Napoleon does manage the river crossing and wins a decisive victory over the Habsburgs in the Battle of Wagram (5-6 July 1809).



1.23a - Situation in 1809: The Ionian Islands are now under British protection.



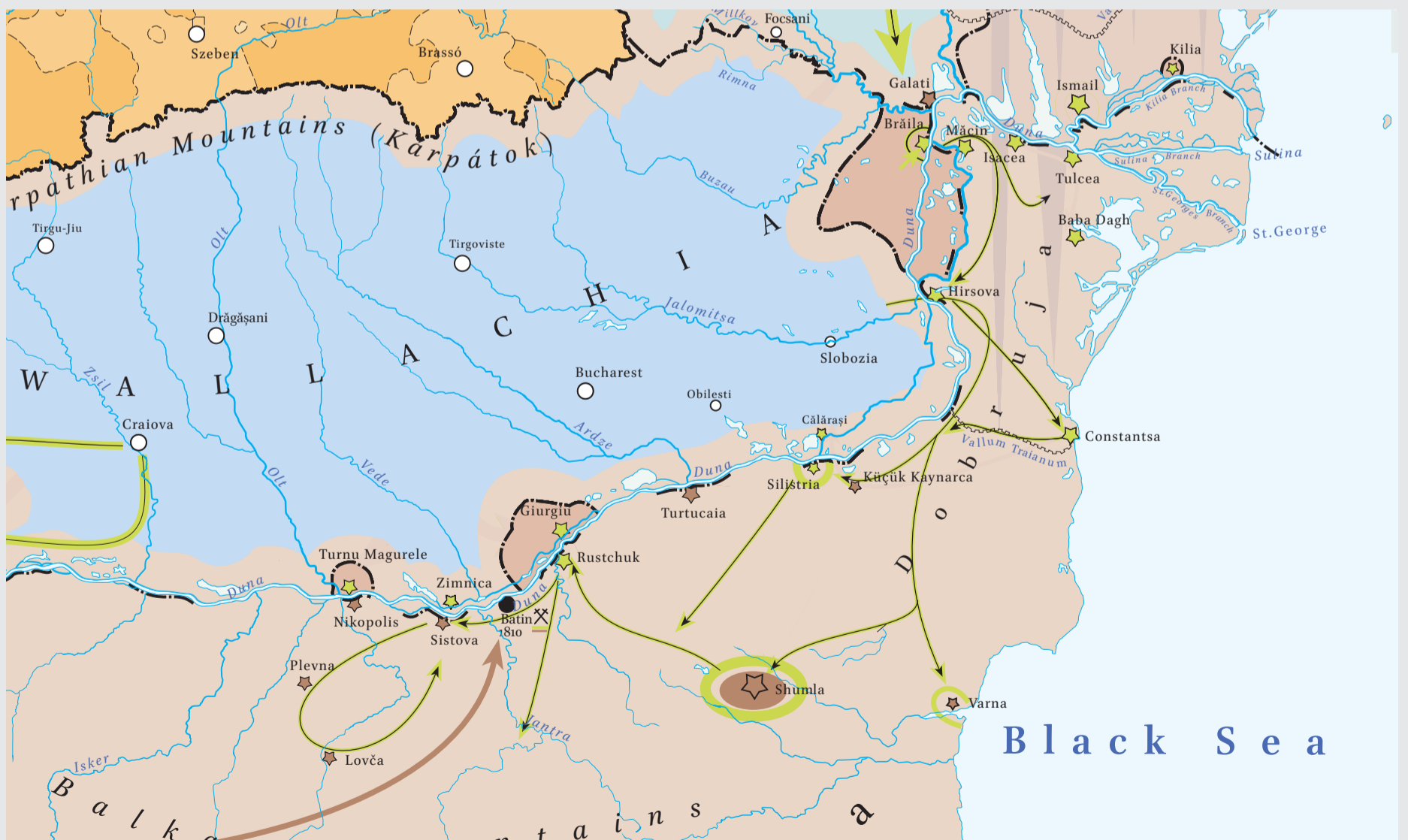
1.23b - Between 22 March and 16 April 1810, a British force captures the fortress of Santa Maura, thereby securing the entire island.



1.24a - The French Illyrian Provinces along the coast of the Adriatic Sea in 1810.



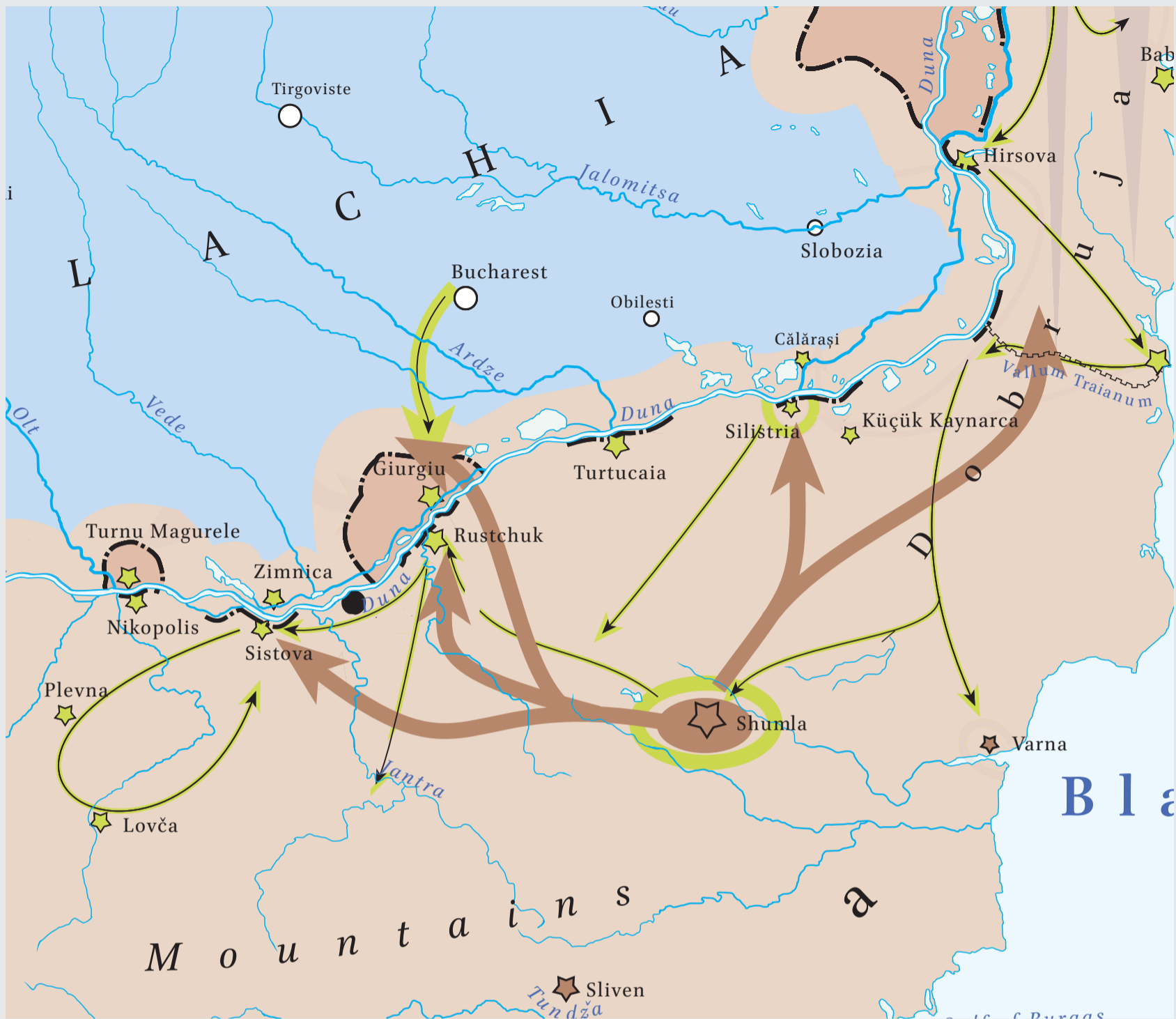
1.24b - During the Russian-Ottoman War of 1806-1812 Russian forces lay siege to Silistria in 1809, but they soon withdraw when an Ottoman relief force from Istanbul approaches. During the same period Turnu Magurele is attacked and destroyed, not to be rebuilt under Ottoman rule. Giurgiu too is besieged but not conquered by the Russians.



1.24c - In 1810 the Russians, under a new commander, do manage to take Silistria (30 May 1810) and in early June besiege Shumla even before defeating a large Ottoman army at the Battle of Batin (26-27 August 1810). In October the Russians also capture Lovča, but they abandon it again. On 9 September Rustchuk surrenders and Giurgiu follows soon. Varna is besieged but not captured.



1.25 - In the course of 1810 Russian forces for the first and last time actively supported the First Serbian Uprising in Serbia. Under the command of the Irishman Count Joseph O'Rourke the Russian troops assisted Kara George in battle near his headquarters in Deligrad. At the end of September 1810 in the northeast the Ottoman garrison at Brza Palanka capitulates to Russian forces, and so does Kladovo. The Ottomans withdraw from Negotin, but hold on to Shumla and Vidin.



1.26 - In 1811 the Ottomans launch counter attacks from Shumla, where Grand Vizier Laz 'Aziz Ahmed Pasha had gathered some 60,000 troops. On 22 June 1811, the Russians win the Battle of the Danube near Rustchuk, but because they tactically withdraw afterwards the Ottomans think they have won. Some months later the Grand Vizier, now with 70,000 men, crosses the Danube. This had been anticipated by the Russian Prince Mikhail Kutuzov who soon encircles the Ottoman army. Kutuzov allows the Grand Vizier to get away with his life so that he can participate in peace talks. These eventually lead to the Treaty of Bucharest, signed on 28 May 1812.



1.27a - On 28 May 1812 Russia and the Ottoman Empire sign the Treaty of Bucharest, which stipulates that the Turks cede Bessarabia to Russia, while Russia return the rest of Moldavia and Wallachia. The Russians also secure an Ottoman promise of autonomy for the Serbian rebels, while the Ottoman army regain control over key fortresses in Serbia.



1.27b - In 1813, despite the Treaty of Bucharest (1812), Ottoman troops once again invade Serbia. This time the Turks attack from several directions at the same time, swiftly routing their opponents. Kara George retreats to Belgrade. A final battle with the Ottoman forces seems imminent, but Kara George flees to Hungary instead. By the end of 1813, the First Serbian Uprising has been crushed.



1.28 - In 1813 the Ottomans manage to re-establish their control over the rebellious territory of Serbia. The First Serbian Uprising ends when its leader flees to Austria in September 1813. By 1814 the Pashalik of Belgrade is back in the Ottoman fold.



1.29a - In August 1813, Austria declares war on France and invades the Illyrian Provinces. Zara capitulates on 6 December 1813, while the inhabitants of Dubrovnik rise against the French garrison and expel it. In the south Montenegrin forces occupy the Bocche di Cattaro area. By the end of 1813, the French have been ousted from the Dalmatian coast.



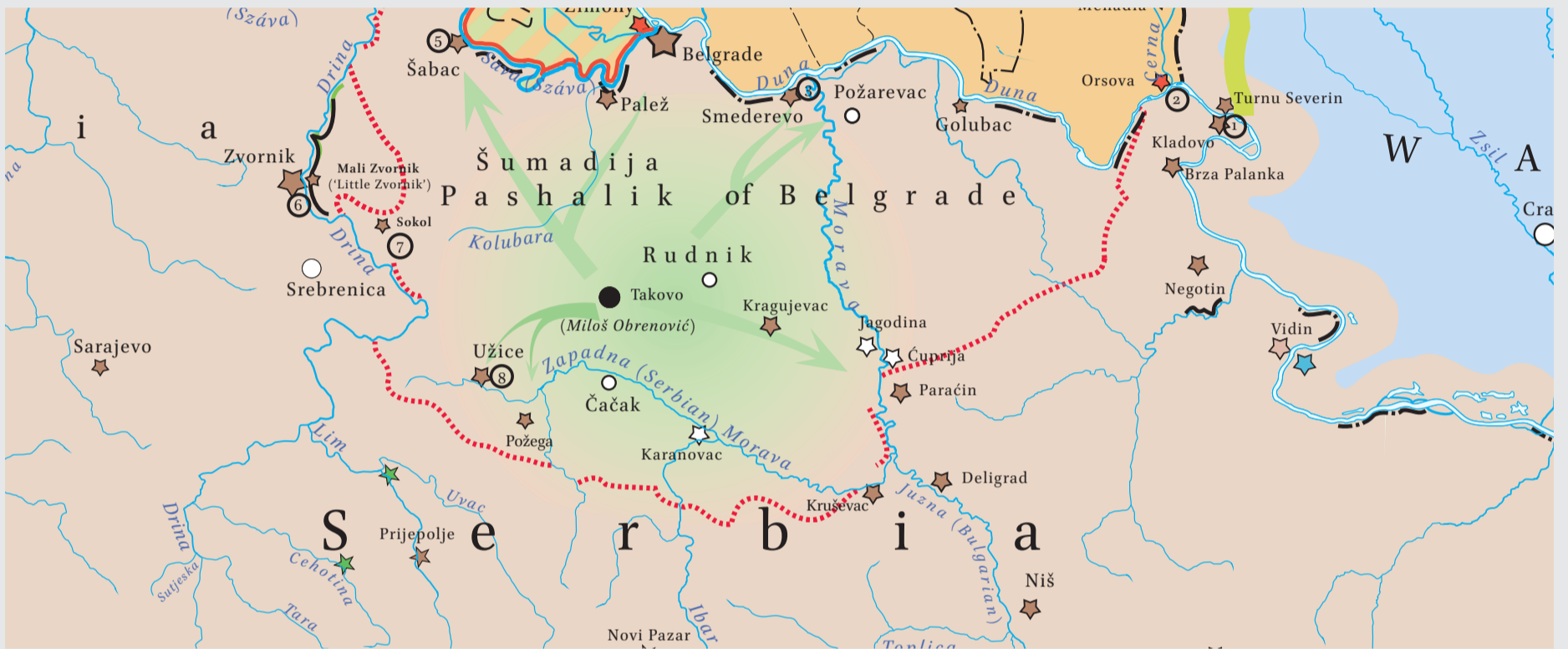
1.29b - The area of Montenegro meanwhile continues to expand.

2. 1815-1833





2.1 - After the First Serbian Uprising had been suppressed by the Ottomans, many of its leaders were given official titles by the Ottomans. This did not appease them, however. In Takovo the Serbs proclaim open revolt on 24 April 1815. They choose Miloš Obrenović as their leader.



2.2 - The first major town the Serbian revolutionaries take is Rudnik. They then continued towards the Ottoman positions near Čačak. On 6 May 1816 they meet a larger Ottoman cavalry force which attacks the Serbs from the rear. The rebels retreat to the Ljubić hill, just northeast of Čačak. On 8 May an Ottoman attack is repulsed successfully, the Serbs using the terrain to their advantage. The Turks are routed and retreat with the Serbs in pursuit. It is the most important battle of the Second Serbian Uprising. A year earlier, on 11 April 1815, the Serbs had already burned the town called Palež by the Turks and Zweibrücken in German. Later in 1815 the town of Požarevac, which had been involved in the First Serbian Uprising, had become part of the Second Uprising too. It would become Obrenović' second capital, Kragujevac its first.



2.3a - 1817



2.3b - At the Treaty of Bucharest (1812) the Kilia branch of the Danube was designated the border between Russian and Ottoman territory. Claiming that the Kilia branch sometimes moved and was therefore unclear as a border, in 1817 the Russians claimed the area to its south as far as the Sulina branch. The evacuated population is relocated by the Ottomans.



2.4 - After having reconquered Napoleon's Illyrian Provinces, the Habsburgs create the Kingdom of Illyria on 3 August 1816 with Ljubljana (German: Laibach) as its capital. In 1825 the Klagenfurt region is added to it. Remaining a Habsburg crown land, this new political entity exists until 1849



2.5a - At the Treaty of Bucharest (1812) the Kilia branch of the Danube was designated the border between Russian and Ottoman territory. Claiming that the Kilia branch sometimes moved and was therefore unclear as a border, in 1817 the Russians claimed the area to its south as far as the Sulina branch. The evacuated population is relocated by the Ottomans.



2.5b - Since 1815 the town of Parga has been under British protection, after the inhabitants had revolted against the French. In 1817 the British returned Parga to the Ottoman Empire. Preferring exile to being under Tepedelenli 'Ali Paşa's rule, some 4,000 citizens of Parga move to the island of Corfu, which is under British protection.



2.6a - In April 1820 Alexander Ypsilantis was elected the head of the Filiki Eteria (Society of Friends) movement for the establishment of an independent Greek state. The revolt he proclaims on 8 October 1820 begins in Moldavia and Wallachia, which are under joint Russian and Ottoman suzerainty and therefore lacked Ottoman garrisons. On 25 March 1821 Ypsilanti and his forces cross the River Pruth. Two days later, in Iași, he publicly suggests that Russia is on his side, but the Tsar denies this. Ypsilantis does not march on Brăila, but continues south to Bucharest, where he arrives in early April.



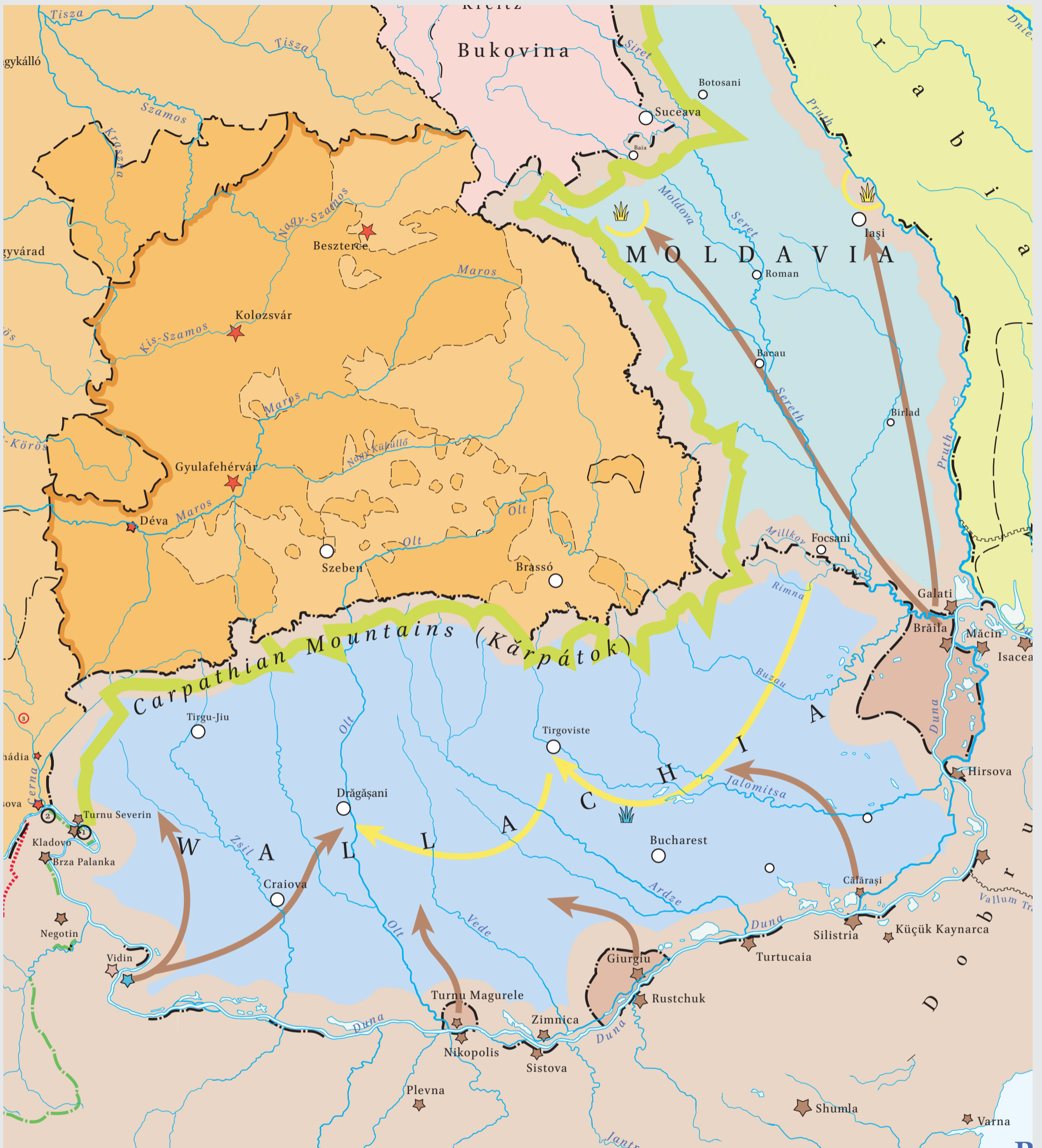
2.6b - 1821



2.7a - The inhabitants of Souli were among the first to take up arms in the Greek struggle, starting already in December 1820. Having come to an agreement with Tepedelenli 'Ali Paşa, who was under siege himself, by 12 December they have taken control over the area surrounding their town. In January 1821 they receive reinforcements from other Greek communities and even from 'Ali Paşa's Muslim Albanian allies, but they would re-join the Ottomans as soon as it became clear that the uprising was spreading over the entire Peloponnese.



2.7b - 1821



2.7c - When the Tsar allows the Sultan to react to the Second Serbian Uprising, Ottoman forces enter Moldavia and Wallachia. The revolutionaries lose the Battle of Drăgășani on 19 June 1821, in the wake of which Ypsilantis flees to Transylvania. The Habsburgs refuse to offer him shelter and take Ypsilantis prisoner for seven years. By the end of 1821 the Ottomans have regained control over Moldavia and Wallachia.



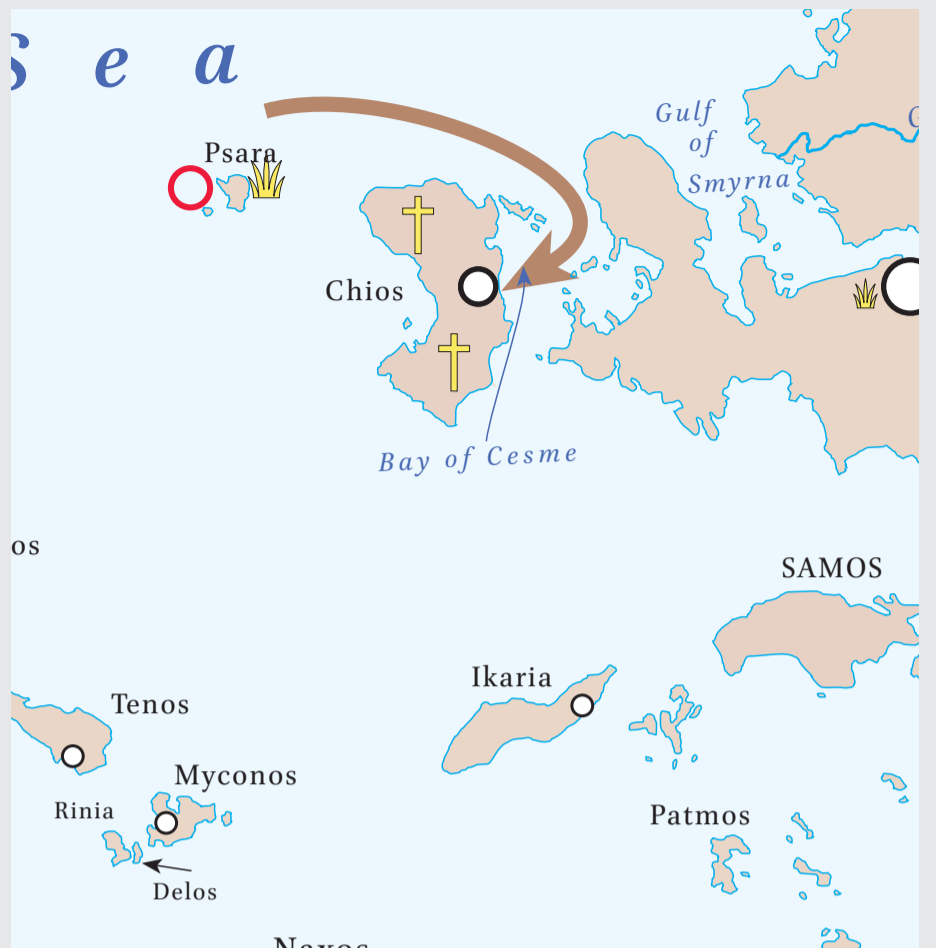
2.7d - The Ottoman military leader Hurşid Ahmed Paşa (d. 1822), instrumental in the Ottoman repression of the Second Serbian Uprising, was appointed governor of the Peloponnese (Morea) at the end of 1820. Early in 1821 he marched on Ioannina (T: Yanya) to bring down Tepedelenli 'Alî Paşa, but this left the Morea relatively vulnerable. When the first revolts begin a few months later, Hurşid Ahmed Paşa immediately sends back troops to quell them while he continues the siege of Ioannina. By the end of March 1821, the Greeks control the inland territories, while the Ottomans retain the fortified cities, e.g. Nauplia (Nauplion), Patras, Monemvasia, and Tripolitsa. In September 1821 the Greek rebels manage to take the governor's seat of Tripolitsa. Its Muslim and Jewish populations are massacred by the Greeks. By the end of the year the Greeks have taken several of these locations too.



2.8 - The Ottoman military leader Hurşid Ahmed Paşa (d. 1822), instrumental in the Ottoman repression of the Second Serbian Uprising, was appointed governor of the Peloponnesos (Morea) at the end of 1820. Early in 1821 he marched on Joanina (T: Yanya) to bring down Tepedelenli 'Alî Paşa, but this left the Morea relatively vulnerable. When the first revolts begin a few months later, Hurşid Ahmed Paşa immediately sends back troops to quell them while he continues the siege of Joanina. By the end of March 1821, the Greeks control the inland territories, while the Ottomans retain the fortified cities, e.g. Nauplia (Nauplion), Patras, Monemvasia, and Tripolitsa. In September 1821 the Greek rebels manage to take the governor's seat of Tripolitsa. Its Muslim and Jewish populations are massacred by the Greeks. By the end of the year the Greeks have taken several of these locations too.



2.9a - 2.10b+2.11a: In 1822 the Ottomans respond with a massive military campaign to end the Greek insurrection. After the death of Tepedelenli 'Alī Paşa, in January 1822, troops are deployed to Larissa, where its governor-general, Dramalı Maḥmūd Paşa, takes command of a large Ottoman army. They march south at the end of June 1822, destroying Thebes. The Ottoman army proceeds to ancient Korinthos, where the Turks arrive in early July. The Greek provisional government flee from Argos as the Ottoman advance continues towards Tripolitza. The Greeks abandon the siege of Nauplia; as a result, its commander 'Alī Paşa does not surrender until 30 November 1822. However, Dramalı Maḥmūd Paşa fails to take regional logistics into account. The Greeks were applying the strategy of scorched earth in the plains around Argos, so all supplies must come through the Dervenakia Pass, which he had failed to secure. Trapped in the plains, the Ottomans must retrace their steps through the Pass, where, first on 26 July and then two days later, first the Ottoman cavalry was ambushed and routed and then the main army.



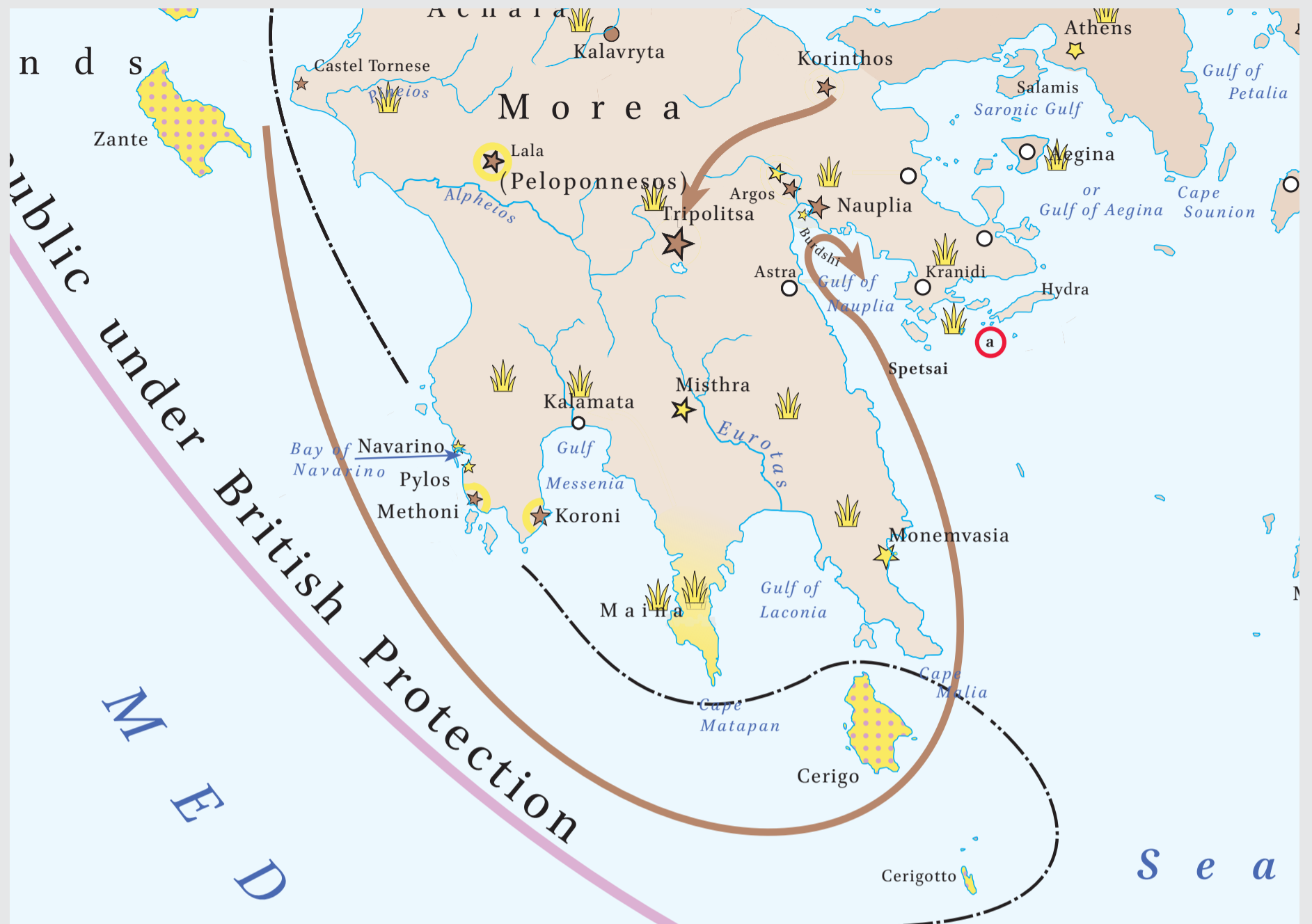
2.9b - 2.13c - The Greek insurrection spread to Chios from Samos, from whence Greek revolutionaries crossed to the neighbouring island. From March 1822, over a period of four months, the Ottomans devastate the town of Chios and kill tens of thousands of islanders. The events are remembered as the Chios Massacre.



2.10 - 1822



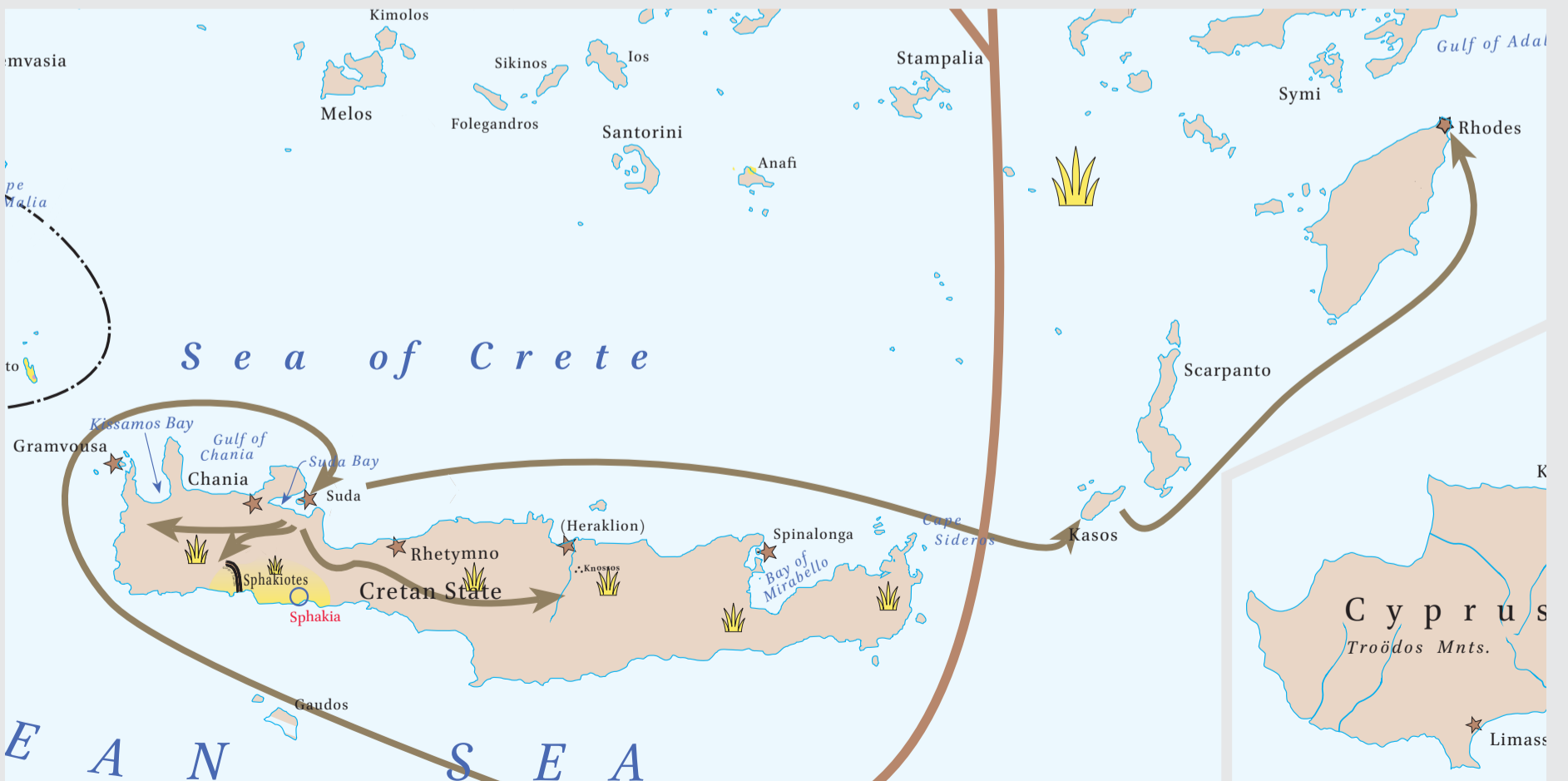
2.11 - On 16 July 1822 the Battle of Peta is fought on a hillside close to Arta. In May and June of the same year the Souliotes defeat the forces of Hurşid Ahmed Paşa. The victors then join the Greek insurrection. A contingent of Greek soldiers landed at Mesolongi and moved north overland, joined by volunteers from all over Western Europe. Near the village of Peta the Greeks take up strategic higher positions, from where they repel several Ottoman attacks. The Turks managed to take one of the positions and attack the others from the rear, winning the battle. The Greek leaders managed to escape, but their forces suffered heavy casualties.



2.12 - Between 20 and 25 September 1822 the Ottoman and Greek fleet engaged in a series of skirmishes in the Gulf of Nauplia, which are known collectively as the Battle of Nauplia. Neither side suffers significant losses, but when the Turks fail to break through the Greek lines, they withdraw. After the surrender of Nauplia, the Greek provisional government moves there in January 1823.



2.13 - The Greek insurrection also reached Crete, where revolts broke out in several locations. The Ottomans responded with two counter measures. The first was the mass execution of Christian inhabitants of Heraklion. When this failed to put down the insurrection altogether, the Ottoman Sultan asked the Muhammad 'Ali, who effectively ruled Egypt, for assistance. An Egyptian fleet sails to Suda, where it arrives on 28 May 1822. The Egyptians lay waste to numerous Cretan villages. They manage to put down the insurrection in Crete by winning the Battle of Amourgeles, in the middle of the island south of Heraklion, on 20 August 1823. By the spring of 1824 only pockets of resistance in the mountains continue to exist.



2.14 - 1824



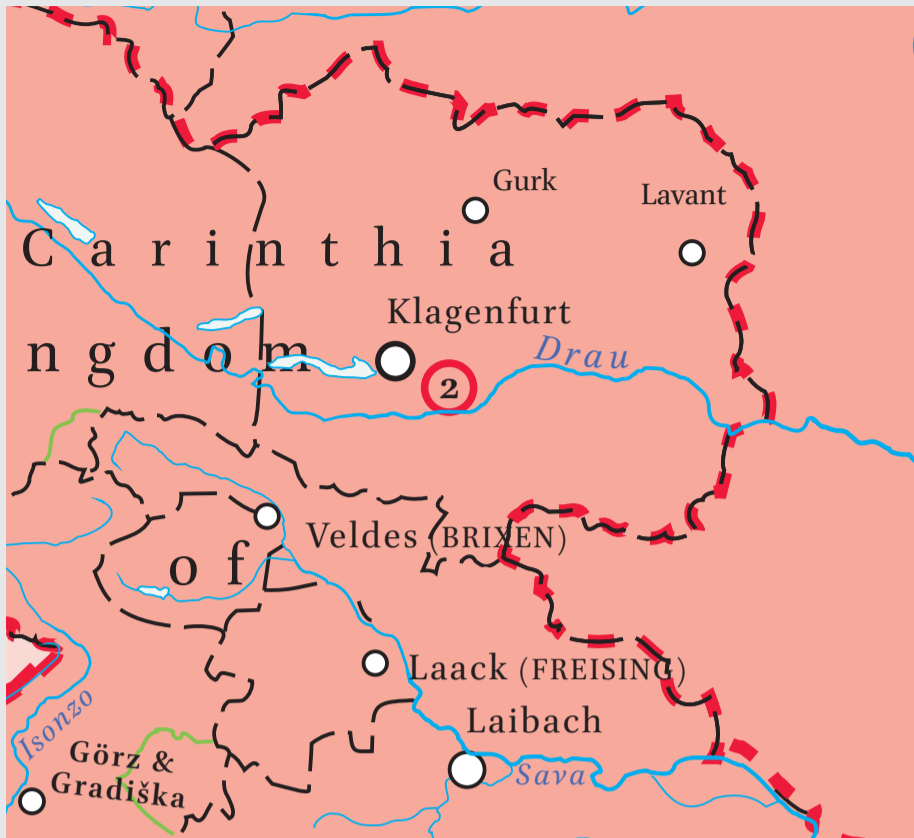
2.15a - After the victory at the Battle of Peta in July 1822, the Ottoman commander turns south to Mesolongi, which he attempts to take through negotiations. The Greeks stall long enough to receive reinforcements from the sea, whereupon the Ottoman siege begins in earnest. When the Greeks repel the Ottoman assault of 24 December 1822, the Turks lift the siege on 31 December. A year later the Ottomans try again in vain, and the third siege, by an Ottoman-Egyptian army, is also lifted without success in April 1826, despite having lasted for a year.



2.15b - 1823



2.16 - After having largely pacified Crete earlier, Muḥammad 'Alī orders a naval expedition to the strategic island of Kasos, to the east of Crete. On 18 June the Egyptian-Tunisian fleet opens fire on the town. Less than 48 hours later the island surrenders to the Turks. The Egyptian-Tunisian fleet quickly continues north, reaching the island of Psara on 21 June, which they take in the first week of July. On 15 July a Greek force landed on the island, retaking it from the Turks, but before the end of the month, Hüsrev Paşa occupied it once again. On 24 August 1824 an Ottoman and a Greek fleet fight an inconclusive battle at sea just off the island of Kos. They meet again in the naval Battle of Gerontas on 29 August 1824, which is fought in the Gulf of Gerontas near Leros, the largest island between Patmos and Kalymnos. Outnumbered, the Greeks focus on setting fire to the Ottoman flagships, which causes the Turks to panic and retreat. The Greek victory is important, because it gives them control over Chios.



2.17a - 1825



2.17b - The town of Methoni (T. Modon) had been blockaded by Greek insurgents on 18 May 1821, but they had failed to capture it. Unable to regain control over Morea, the Ottoman sultan calls in Egyptian aid again. Muḥammad 'Alī's son, Ibrāhīm Paşa, first sails to Crete and then to Methoni, where the Egyptian contingent arrives on 24 February 1825. They dig entrenchments there, making Methoni an important base for later operations in the Peloponnese. On 18 May the port of Navarino surrenders to the Egyptians.



2.18 - By June 1825 Ibrāhīm Paşa has reconquered Tripolitsa for the Sultan. His troops fan out over the Peloponnesos, retaking most of it.



2.19 - By the end of 1825 only the Maina and the area east of Nauplia remain in the hands of the Greeks. The Egyptian forces attempt to enter the Maina on 21 June 1826, but they lose each of the three ensuing battles with the inhabitants of the area.



2.20 - In the autumn of 1827 the combined fleets of Great Britain, France and Russia, commanded by the British vice-admiral, Sir Edward Codrington, and a combined fleet of Ottoman vessels, with Egyptian and Tunisian ships, led by Tahir Paşa, converge on Navarino.



2.21 - The naval Battle of Navarino is fought on 20 October 1827 in the harbour of Navarino. The Ottoman-North African fleet is destroyed, with some three-quarters of its ships sunk and c. 6,000 casualties.



2.22 - As a result of the Ottoman-Egyptian defeat in the Battle of Navarino, Ibrāhīm Paşa, cut off from supplies, concludes a truce with Vice-Admiral Codrington. The Egyptians retreat, although Neokastro remains in Ottoman hands until the spring of 1828. By autumn 1828, the Egyptians withdraw completely, a French force taking its place in Neokastro, but they leave soon afterwards.



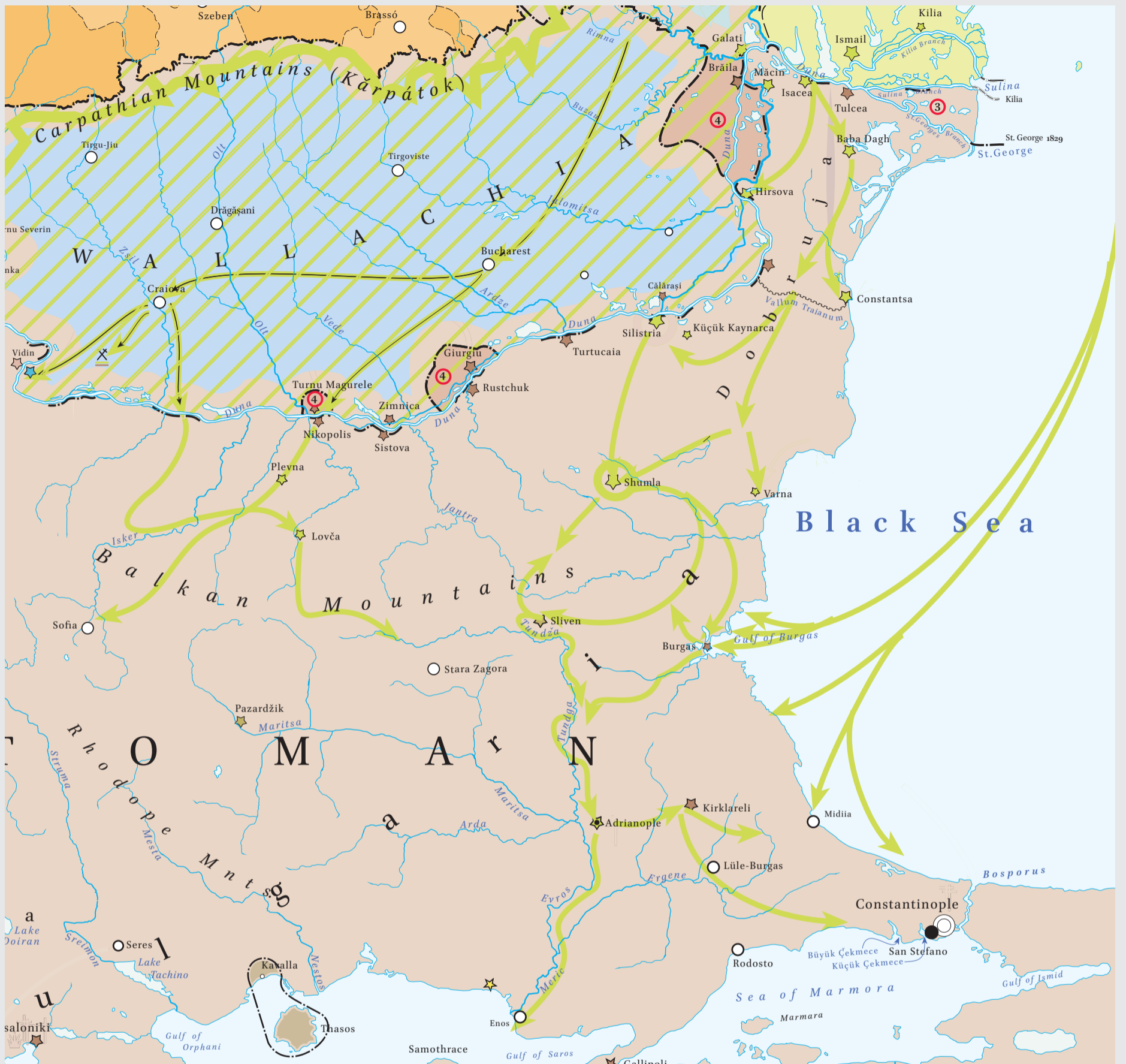
2.23 - By the end of 1828 the entire Peloponnese is under Greek control again.



2.24 - In retaliation for the Russian participation in the Battle of Navarino (20 October 1827), the Ottoman Sultan Maḥmūd II closes the Dardanelles to Russian ships in early 1828. He also revokes the Akkerman Convention with Russia, signed on 7 October 1826. The Sultan's revocation of the Convention triggers the Russo-Ottoman War of 1828-1829. In April and May 1828 a sizeable Russian army invades Moldavia and Wallachia. In June they cross the Danube.



2.25 - The Russians lay siege to Varna, Shumla, and Silistria, capturing Varna on 29 September 1828. The Russians are unable to capture Shumla and Silistria and are forced to withdraw into Moldavia.



2.26 - Under a new commander, the Russian troops resume their sieges of Silistria and Shumla, crossing the Danube on 7 May 1829. On 2 July a Russian army marches on Constantinople, taking Burgas on 12 July and Adrianople (T. Edirne) on 22 August. The Sultan sues for peace, whereupon the Treaty of Adrianople (14 September 1829) cedes most of the eastern Black Sea shore and the mouth of the Danube to Russia. Russia is allowed to occupy Moldavia and Wallachia until the Ottomans have paid a sizeable indemnity.



2.27 - Under the Treaty of Adrianople (14 September 1829), Serbia is granted autonomy.



2.28 - 1828



2.29 - In 1829, the Greek insurrection spreads north through Boeotia and Aetolia.



2.30a - By 1831 what would later be called the Arta-Volos Line has been established, demarcating the northern border of independent Greek territory.



2.30b - In February 1831 the Constantinople Conference is held between the Ottoman Empire on the one hand and the Great Powers – Great Britain, France, and Russia – on the other. It is agreed that Greece becomes an independent kingdom, with the Arta-Volos Line as its northern border. The Ottoman Empire receives 40 million Piaster as indemnification for its loss of territory. The Greek War of Independence formally ends with the London Protocol of 30 August 1832, which repeats the terms of the Treaty of Constantinople. Crete remains under Ottoman rule.



2.31 - 1832

3. 1833-1849





3.1a - The Treaty of Adrianople (1829) between Russia and Turkey also established free trade for Moldavia and Wallachia, their ports open to the shipping of all nations. The two principalities also began to construct a joint fleet. From 1834 till 1849 Mihai Sturdza is the ruler of Moldavia; Wallachia is ruled by Alexander II Ghica (r. 1834-1842).



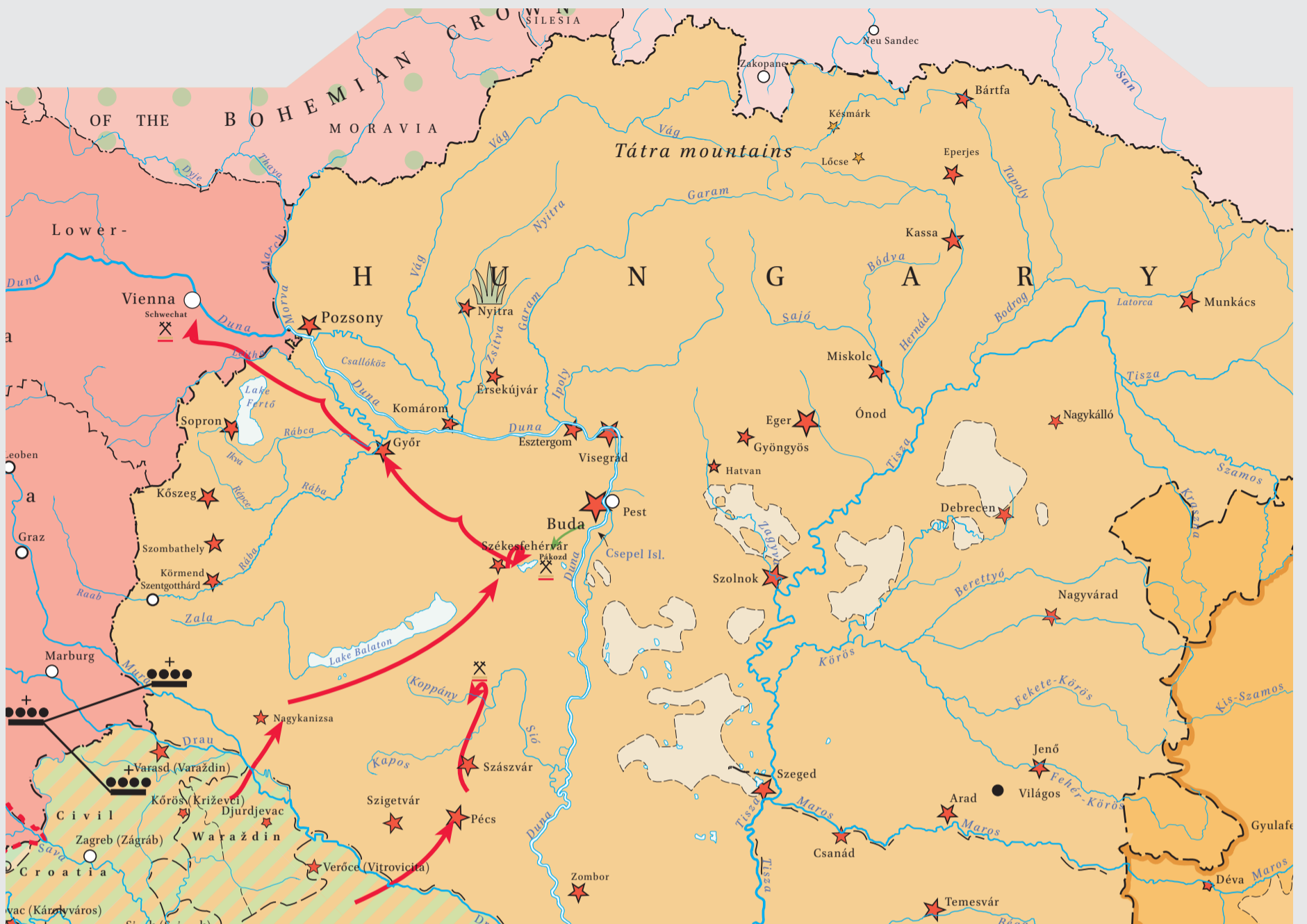
3.1b - Serbia is now an independent state.



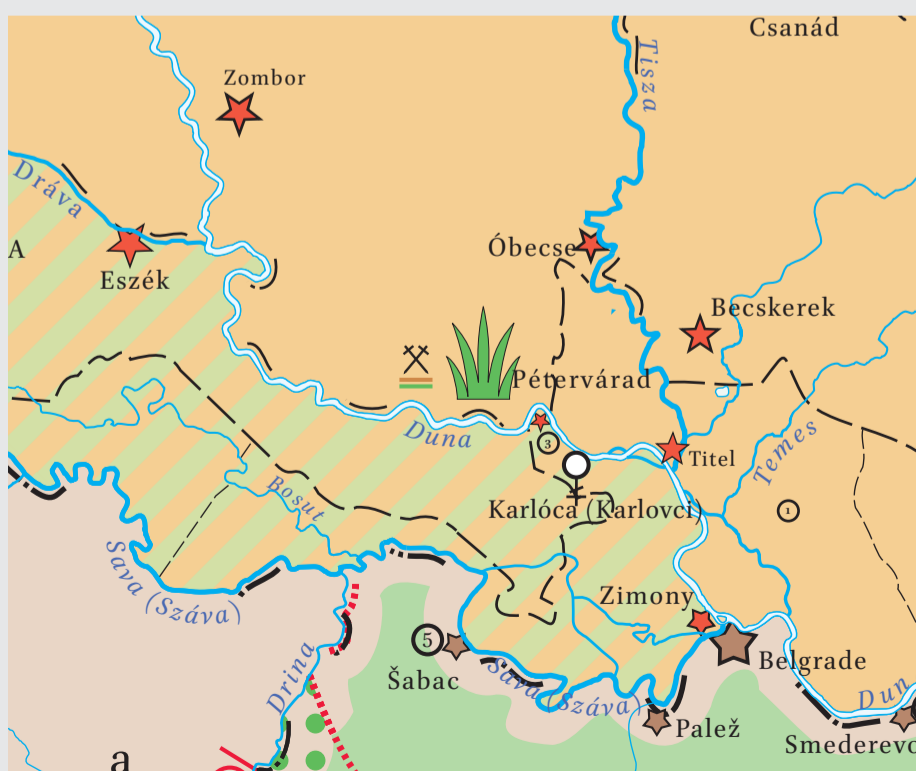
3.2 - Crete does not become part of the independent Greek kingdom. As promised, the sultan grants it to Muḥammad 'Alī as thanks for the Egyptian support, but in 1840 Great Britain forces Egypt to return it to direct Ottoman rule.



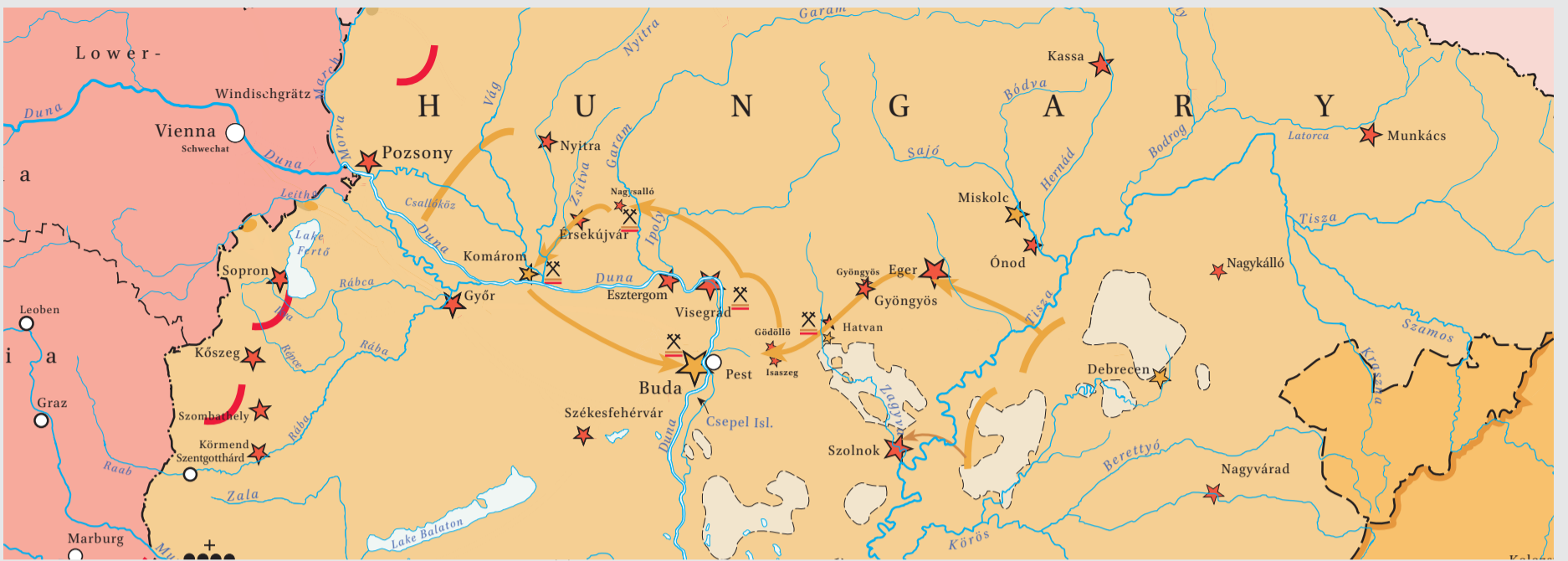
3.3 - 1848



3.4 - The revolutionary year 1848, when a wave of uprisings flows over Europe, also affects Hungary, where peace is not restored until August of 1849. It begins on 15 March 1848 with mass protest in Pest and Buda, people demanding greater freedom and a union with Transylvania. Hungary gets a constitutional government as a result, but remains part of the Habsburg Empire. In the autumn Habsburg troops moved in from Croatia to end the revolution in Hungary. A series of battles ensued: the Battle of Pákozd, on 29 September 1848, which the Hungarians win; the Battle of Ozora, on 6 October, also a Hungarian victory; the Battle of Schwechat, on 30 October, which is the result of the Habsburg retreat towards Vienna after Pákozd, and which the Habsburgs win; and the Battle of Mór on 30 December 1848, which the Habsburgs also win.



3.5 - 1848



3.6 - In 1849 the Habsburg armies return to Hungary in force. In the Spring Campaign the Austrians capture Buda on 21 May 1849 after an 18-day siege. Pest is bombarded. On the same day Habsburg Emperor Franz Joseph I and Tsar Nicolas I of Russia sign a treaty agreeing that a massive Russian army would help restore order in Hungary if necessary. In the summer campaign of that year the Battle of Győr is fought on 28 June, and the Second and Third Battles of Komárom in July.



3.7 - In the second half of 1849 the Habsburgs gradually re-establish control over Hungary. The Hungarians capture Buda on 21 May 1849, but the Habsburgs soon retake it. On 2 August, they take Szeged without firing a shot, because the Hungarians had retreated; on 9 August the Battle of Temesvár was the last major military confrontation of the Revolution. The Hungarians are defeated. On 6 October 1849 the Habsburgs execute 12 Hungarian general and one colonel at Arad.

4. 1849-1870





4.1a - The Herzegovina uprising (1852-1862), led by chieftain Luka Vukalović, began in the summer of 1852, after the Ottoman Ömer Paşa had attempted to disarm the Herzegovinians. Grohovo was one of the regions who refuses to pay the Turks a debt, which actually sparked the uprising in the winter of 1852-53.



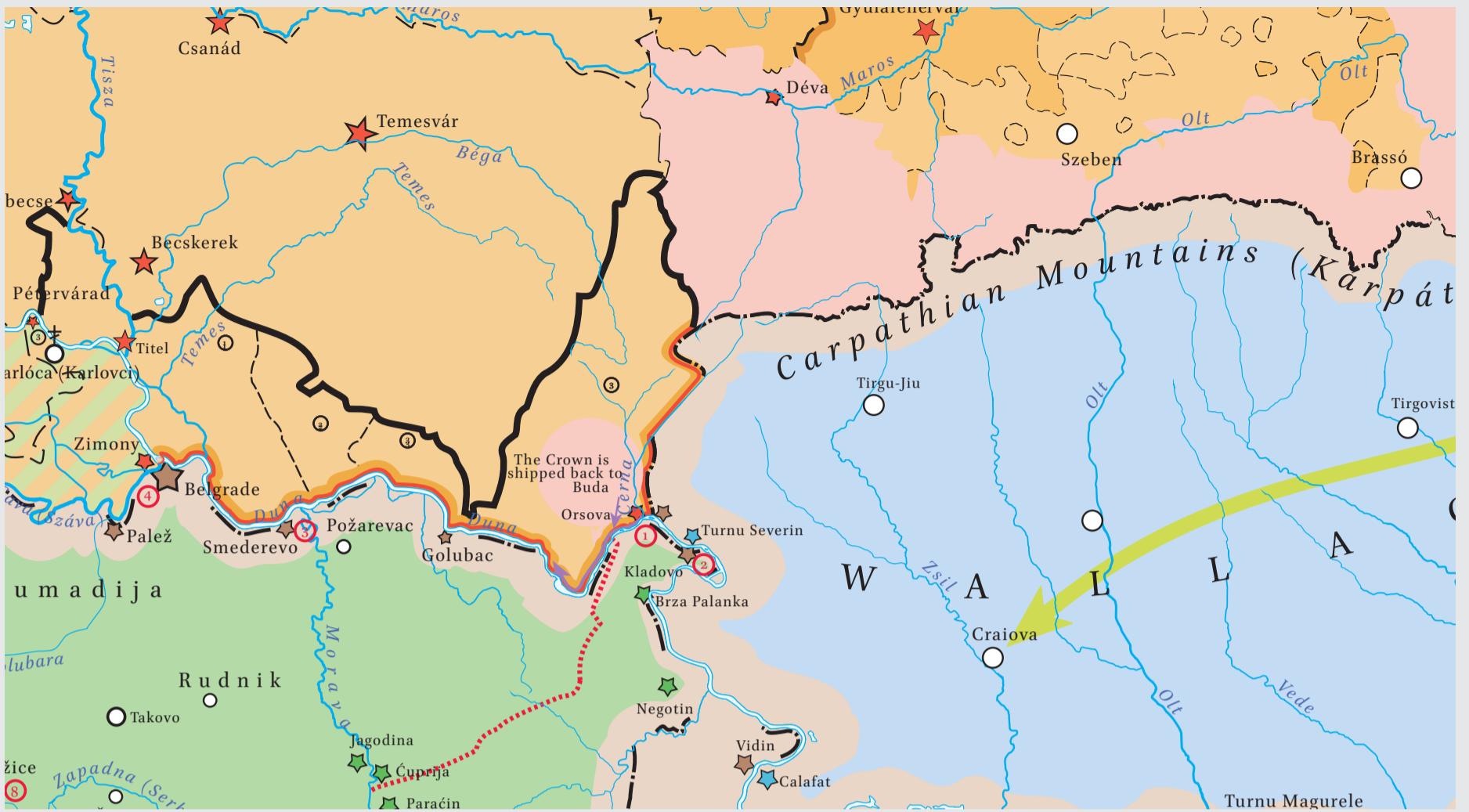
4.1b - 1851



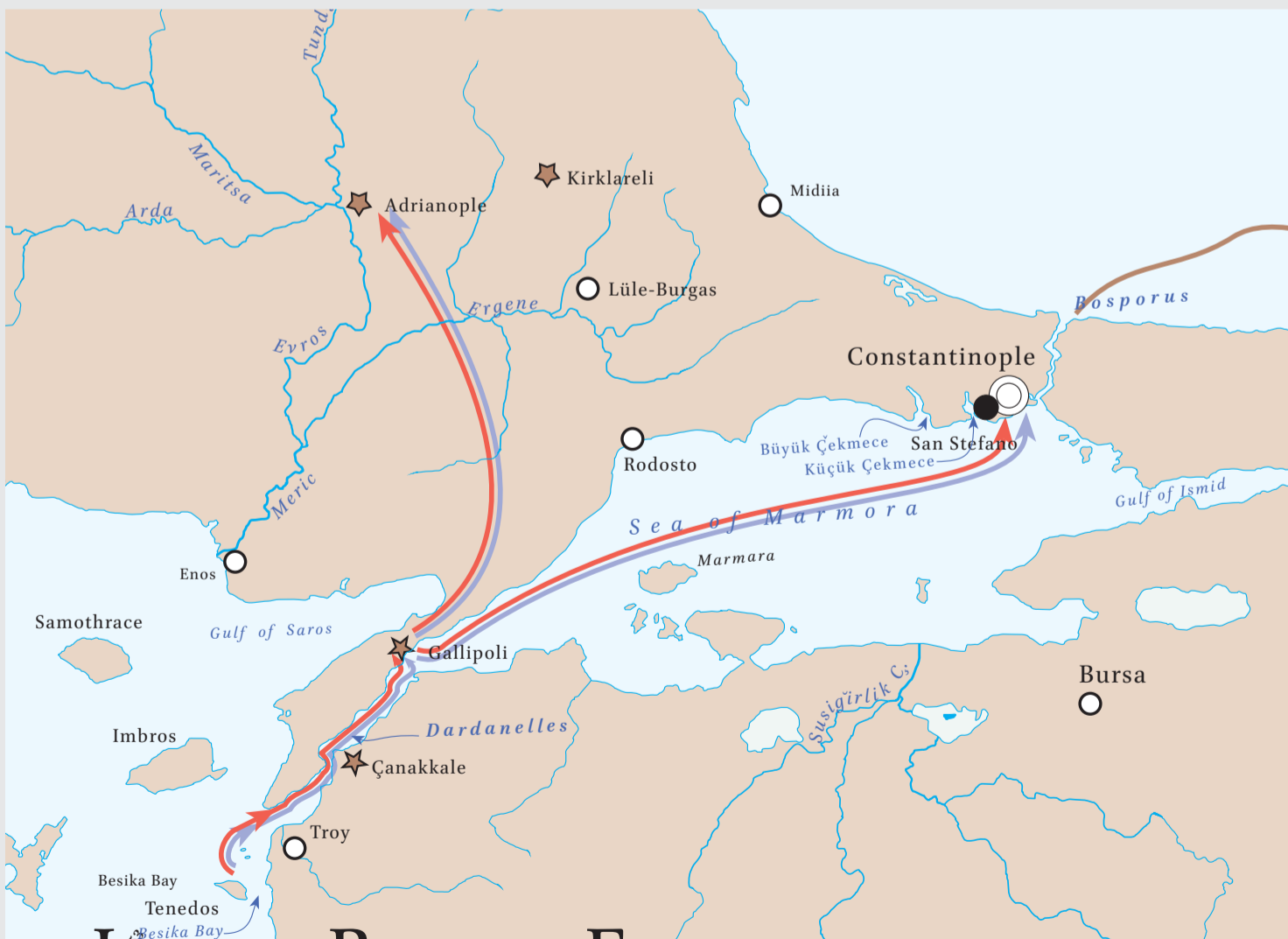
4.2 - Around the middle of the 19th century Russia becomes more overtly expansionist. In July 1853 Russian troops invade Moldavia and Wallachia, which were under Ottoman suzerainty.



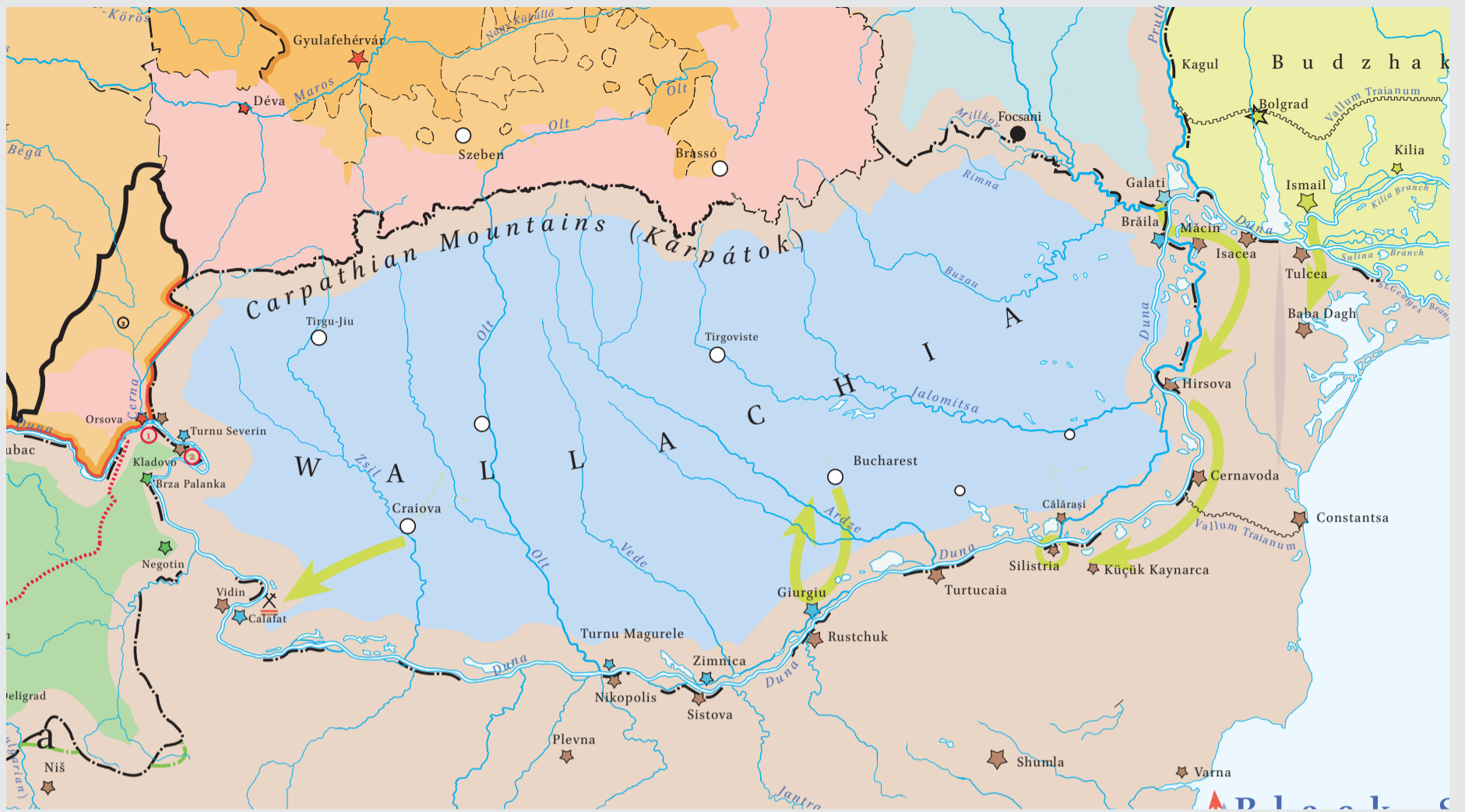
4.3a - In October and November 1853 an Ottoman fleet and a combined Russian fleet sail to the Ottoman Black Sea port of Sinope.



4.3b - 1854



4.3c - On 23 October 1853 the Sultan declares war on the Tsar, which starts the Crimean War (1853-1856). The first major military confrontation is the naval Battle of Sinope on 30 November 1853, which the Russians win. The destruction of the Ottoman fleet effectively gives Russia control over the Black Sea. After Russia fails to comply with a French-British ultimatum to withdraw from the Danubian Principalities, France and Britain declare war on Russia in March 1854. Gallipoli becomes their principal naval base.



4.4a - Both from Budzhak and from Wallachia Russian troops make incursions into Ottoman territory in the course of 1854. In the east the Russians take Hirsova after a short bombardment and they swiftly march towards Küçük Kaynarca. The (ineffectual) Siege of Calafat starts in January 1854, that of Silistria in April.



4.4b - In June 1854 the Allied (British-French) fleets drop anchor at Varna, where they establish an important naval base.



4.4c - In February 1854 there are military sorties from northern Montenegro into Ottoman territory.



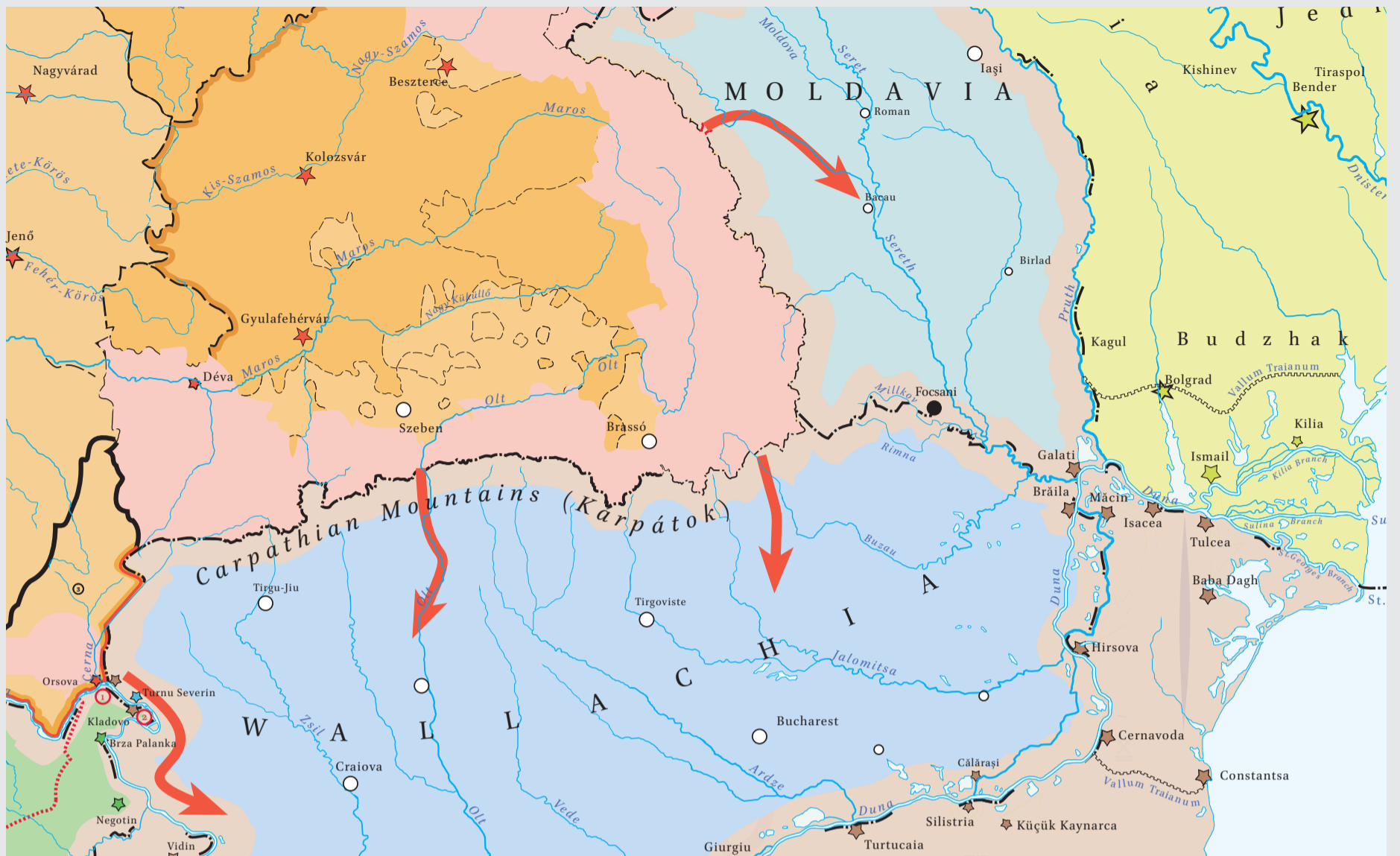
4.5a - Skirmishes in northern Montenegro enlarge the area under its control at the expense of the Ottomans, whose military efforts are focused on the Crimean War.



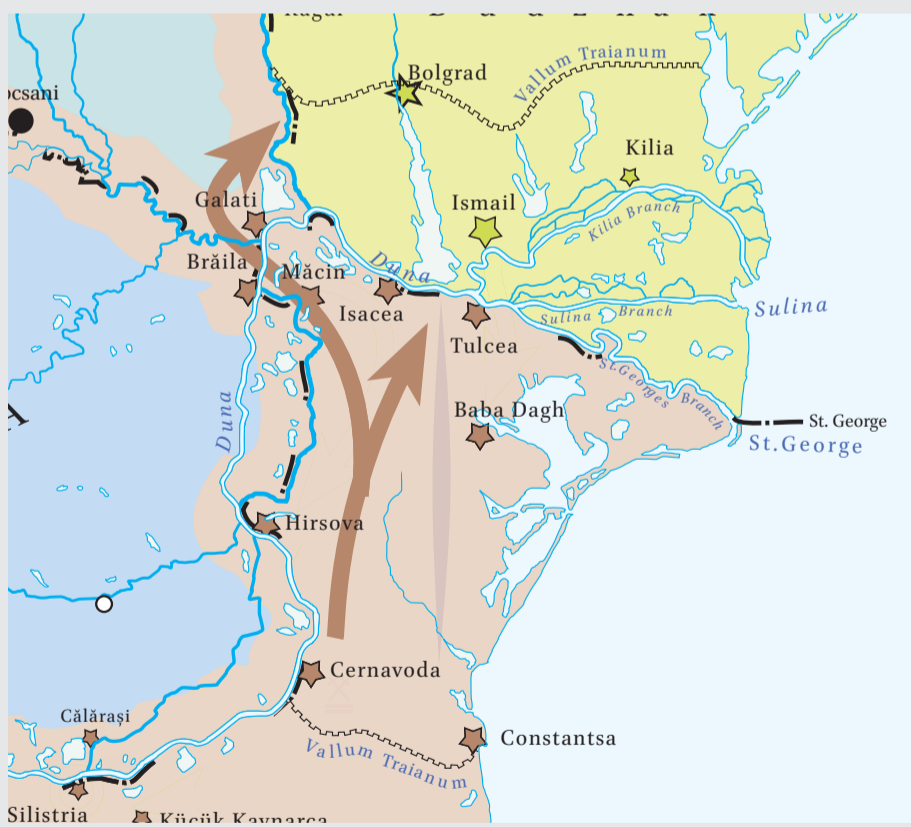
4.5b - The Ottomans send reinforcements to Silistria, which the Russians are besieging since April 1856. The Russians lift the siege on 24 June, as a result of Austrian pressure and threats of military intervention. The Ottomans reconquer Cernavoda and march north.



4.6 - In the second half of 1856 the Ottomans undo the effects of the Russian campaign of 1853, re-establishing control over the Dobruja area.



4.7 - From 1854 to 1856 Wallachia and Moldavia together are under a neutral, Austrian, administration.



4.8 - The string of fortifications on the south banks of the Danube, from Tulcea to Brăila and Galati, are once again come under Ottoman control by the end of 1854.



4.9 - As a result of the Congress of Paris, the Treaty of Paris is signed on 30 March 1856, ending the Crimean War. The treaty is a success for the Ottoman Empire, who secure guarantees for its integrity. It also restores all Russian and Ottoman territories to the situation before the war. A notable exception is the transfer of control over the southern part of Budzhak, including the Danube delta, to the united principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia, which ensures free navigation of the Danube for all nations. The Russians consider the outcome of the congress a disaster.



4.10 - In 1857 the southern Budzhak is now part of Wallachia and Moldavia, which enjoy greater independence. The area forms a neutral buffer zone between the Ottoman Empire to the south and Russian territory to the north.



4.11 - The Treaty of Paris (1856) did nothing for Montenegro. Its frustrated local leaders now join the rebellion which had been simmering since 1853. The insurgents win the Battle of Grahovac on 1 May 1858, after which the area under Montenegran control increases again.



4.12a - The territory under Montenegran control after 1858.



4.12b - In Crete, which remained under Ottoman rule, the Christian population rebels in 1858. Negotiations with the Ottoman authorities give them several privileges, e.g. the right to bear arms, and more autonomy in the domain of Christian family law. Recognition of the equality of Christians and Muslims antagonizes the Muslim part of the population, while the Christians strive for a union with the Greek Kingdom.



4.13 - In 1861 and '62 the Ottomans, led by Ömer Paşa, make a concerted effort to suppress the rebellion in Montenegro. The successful Turks threaten to march on Cetinje, the capital, so Montenegro sues for peace. The Prince of Montenegro, Nikola I (r. 1860-1910), signs the Convention of Scutari (Alb. Shköder) with the Ottoman Empire on 31 August 1862. The principality of Montenegro's formal status as a vassal state is confirmed and its border ratified, but the border between Montenegro and Herzegovina is controlled by the Ottomans.



4.14 - 1862 Montenegro after the Convention of Scutari (1862).



4.15 - From 1864 Greece is a constitutional monarchy.



4.16a - With the Austro-Hungarian Ausgleich (Compromise) of 1867, Hungary is reconstituted as a separate monarchy, but as part of the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary. The Austrian and Hungarian parts each get their own parliament and government. The head of state, who is both Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary, embodies their unity.



4.16b- 1867 + Ausgleich.



4.17 - In 1866 Crete witnesses another revolt, which soon spreads over the entire island. Only a limited number of fortified cities with a larger Muslim population resist. By the beginning of 1869 the Ottomans have suppressed the revolt, and regain their hold on the territory. Nevertheless, reports of the Turks' brutal suppression are published in newspapers throughout Europe, fanned by the Greek press. The Cretan Revolt thus has a significant impact on how the European Powers respond to popular uprisings in the Ottoman domains in the next decade.

5. 1870-1881

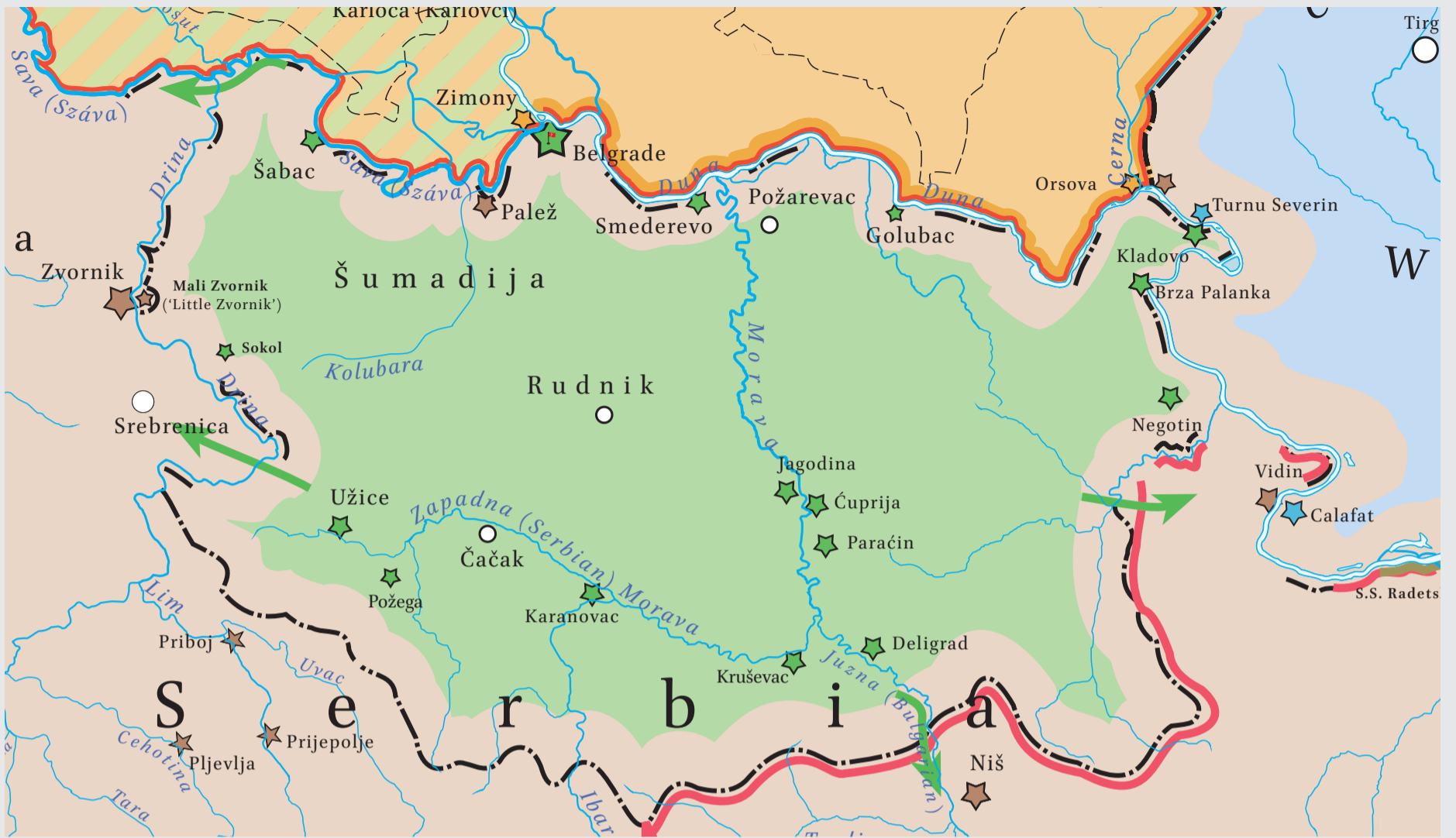




5.1 - In 1875 the Ottomans are once again confronted with uprisings in the Balkans. Known as the Herzegovina Uprising, because that is where it started in July, it soon spreads to Bosnia and will last until 1877. In Bosnia it begins in the Mountains of Kozara, Prosara and Motajica, where many villages rebel. The rebels then take over Banja Luka. On 15 August the Turks are attacked at Dvorište. They besiege Trebinje on 5 August, but by the end of the month it is in Ottoman hands again.



5.2 - Around the end of August 1875 time Montenegro and Serbia send volunteers to help the rebels. Insurrections are now going on all over Bosnia. On 16 June 1876 Montenegro and Serbia sign an alliance. Two weeks later Montenegrin forces attack the Ottomans, taking Nikšić in September 1877 after a long siege. They also take several places along the Adriatic coast, including Bar and Ulcinj.



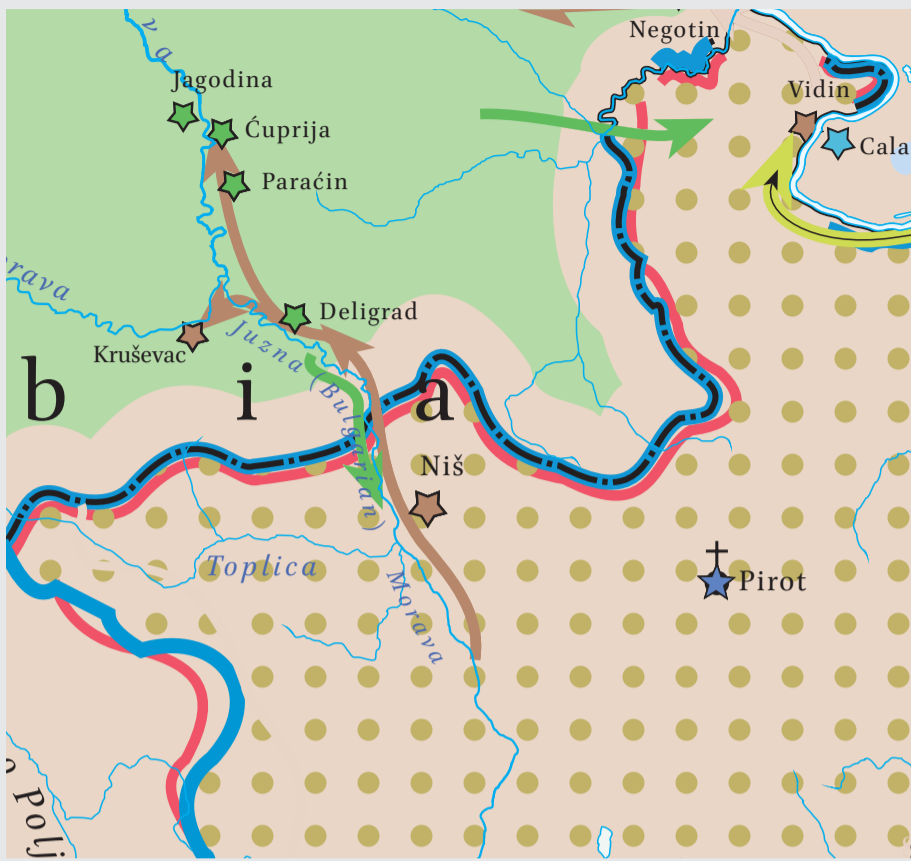
5.3 - Serbian joins Montenegro in declaring war on the Ottoman Empire in support of the Bulgarian April Uprising.



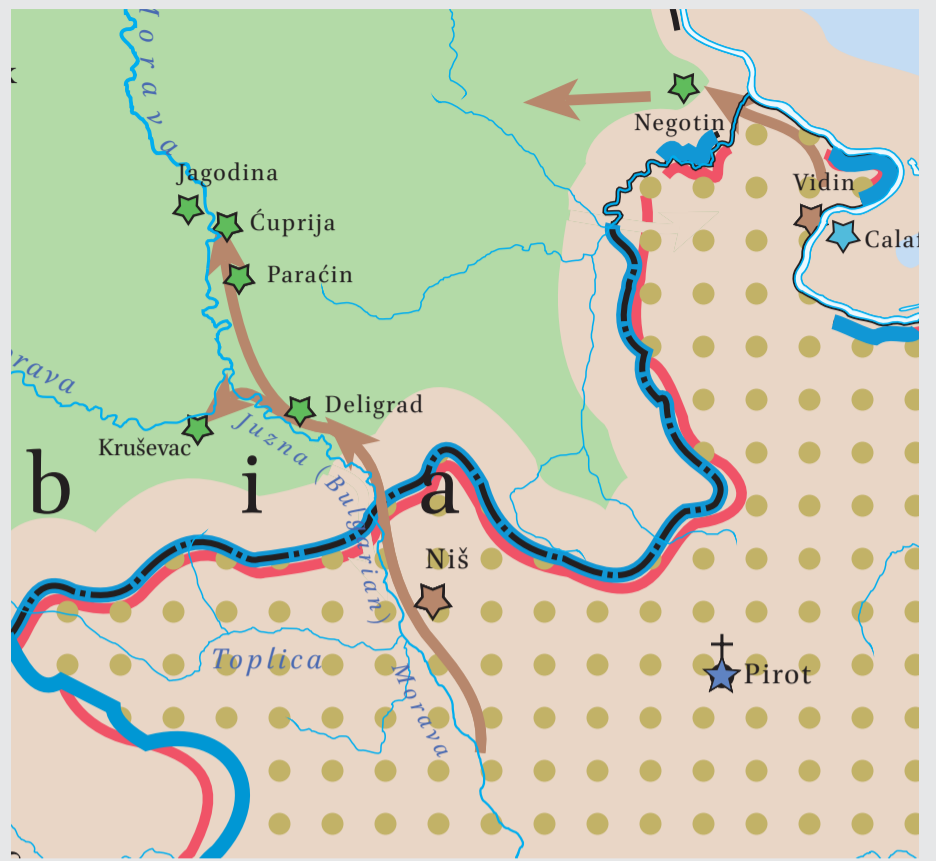
5.4a - The Ottomans respond already at the end of April, suppressing the uprisings without mercy. By the middle of May 1876, the uprising has been put down completely at the cost of many lives. Once again newspapers across the continent report on "Turkish atrocities" in Bulgaria. Montenegro is attacked from two directions, but manages to hold out against the Turks.



5.4b - The Serbs' support of the Bulgarian uprisings also does not go unpunished. From the south the Ottomans march in the direct of Deligrad in September 1876, but they first move on Kruševac. The Turks move north to Paraćin and then to Čuprija. At the same time an Ottoman force invades Serbia from Vidin, proceeding via Negotin.



5.5 - In October 1876 the Serbs push the Ottoman forces invading from Vidin in the east and Niš in the south back. On 20-21 October 1876 they win the Battle of Deligrad and then advance on Niš, where the battle for the city starts on 29 December 1877. The Serbs take the city on 11 January 1878.



5.6a - 1877 Mar Const. Confer



5.6b - In response to the uprisings in Herzegovina and Bosnia in 1875 and the April Uprising in Bulgaria in 1876, representatives of Great Britain, Russia, France, Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy meet at the Constantinople Conference from 23 December 1876 until 20 January 1877 to discuss the future of these areas. It is decided that Bulgaria will consist of two autonomous parts.



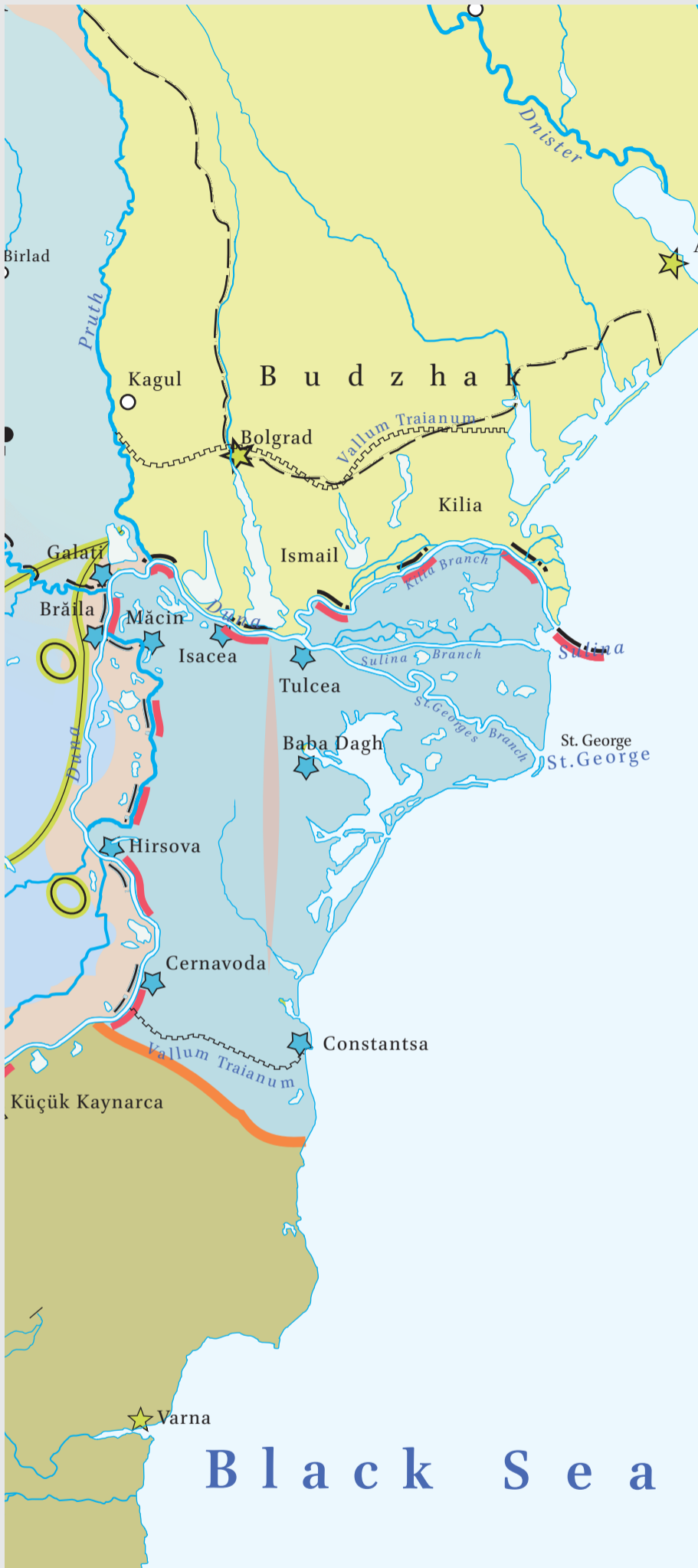
5.7 - The Ottomans' refusal to accept the decisions of the Constantinople Conference triggers the Russian-Ottoman War of 1877-78, which is known in Romania as the Romanian War of Independence. The Russians form a coalition with Bulgaria, Serbia, and Montenegro. Russian troops invade Ottoman territory from the Budzhak region, as well as through Wallachia. They march on Sistova, where the Ottomans are defeated in the Battle of Simnitsa of 26 June 1877. From the the Russian forces fan out into the eastern part of what the Constantinople Conference had determined should become Bulgaria. They then take Tirmovo on 7 July 1877.



5.8a - The region around Shumla and Varna is defended by Egyptian troops, with British advisors. Despite their victory at the Battle of Karahassanköy in the last days of August 1877, the Russians conquered the area soon afterwards.



5.8b - After the conquest of Tirnova (7 July 1877), the Russians proceed south, taking Adrianople (T. Edirne) again in 1878 and even advancing as far as Istanbul itself.



5.9a - 5.10e - The Ottoman Empire is forced to cede the northern Dobruja to Russia.



5.9b - Montenegro, with a significantly increased territory, is recognized as an independent state at San Stefano.



5.9c - The Treaty of San Stefano confirms the Serbian annexation of the region around the city of Niš, which the Serbs had conquered on 11 January 1878.



5.9d - After the Treaty of San Stefano, Bulgaria is an independent principality.



5.10a - The Russians considered the San Stefano Treaty a temporary arrangement, and the Great Powers were unhappy with Russia's increased power in the region. Modifications were therefore agreed upon during the Congress of Berlin (13 June – 13 July 1878) and the Treaty of Berlin that came out of it (signed 13 July 1878). Romania is confirmed as an independent state, including the Dobruja region. The Budzhak area becomes Russian.



5.10b - Bulgaria is confirmed as an independent state by the Treaty of Berlin. It consists of three parts: the Principality of Bulgaria proper, the autonomous province of Macedonia, and the autonomous province of Eastern Rumelia.



5.10c - The Treaty of Berlin further increases the territory of Montenegro, which is again confirmed as an independent state.



5.10d - Serbia, too, is further enlarged by the Treaty of Berlin, the area south of Niš expanding



5.10e - In return for support during the Berlin Conference, the Ottoman Empire signs a secret agreement with Great Britain on 4 June 1878, granting the Britons control over Cyprus.



5.11 - In November 1880 the Ottomans hand over Antivari to Montenegro, in line with the Treaty of Berlin.



5.12 - The Treaty of Berlin had also assigned Plava and Gusinje to Montenegro, but after Albanian protests, the two cities were exchanged for Dulcigno, which is added to Montenegrin territory in 1880.



5.13 - Greece had remained neutral in the Russo-Ottoman War of 1877-1878, having received assurance from the Great Powers that its claims on Ottoman territory would be considered favourably after the war. On 2 July 1881 the Ottoman Empire and the Kingdom of Greece sign the Convention of Constantinople, which arranges the cession of Thessaly and a part of southern Epirus to Greece. The Treaty of Berlin had granted an even larger territory to Greece, but the Great Powers forced it to accept their concessions to the Ottomans, who refused to accept the outcome of the Berlin Conference on this point.



5.14 - In 1878 the Christian population of Crete revolts against the Ottoman government yet again. Despite Ottoman concessions in August, the revolt continues. It is led by three revolutionary committees. The Ottomans, at war with Russia already, are unable to intervene, so the revolt escalates. In July 1878 the consuls of the Great Powers on the island insist on a cease-fire, assuring the population that their cause would be considered after the war. At the Congress of Berlin, however, the pre-war status quo was restored, so the revolt continues. On 15 October 1878 the Pact of Halepa is signed by the Ottomans and the representatives of the Cretan Revolutionary Committee. The parties agreed on administrative changes, the reallocation of part of Crete's taxes to the island itself, and amnesty for all participants in the revolt. The Ottoman administrators of the island would ignore most of the agreements, however, triggering further revolts in 1885, 1888, and 1889.

6. 1881-1911

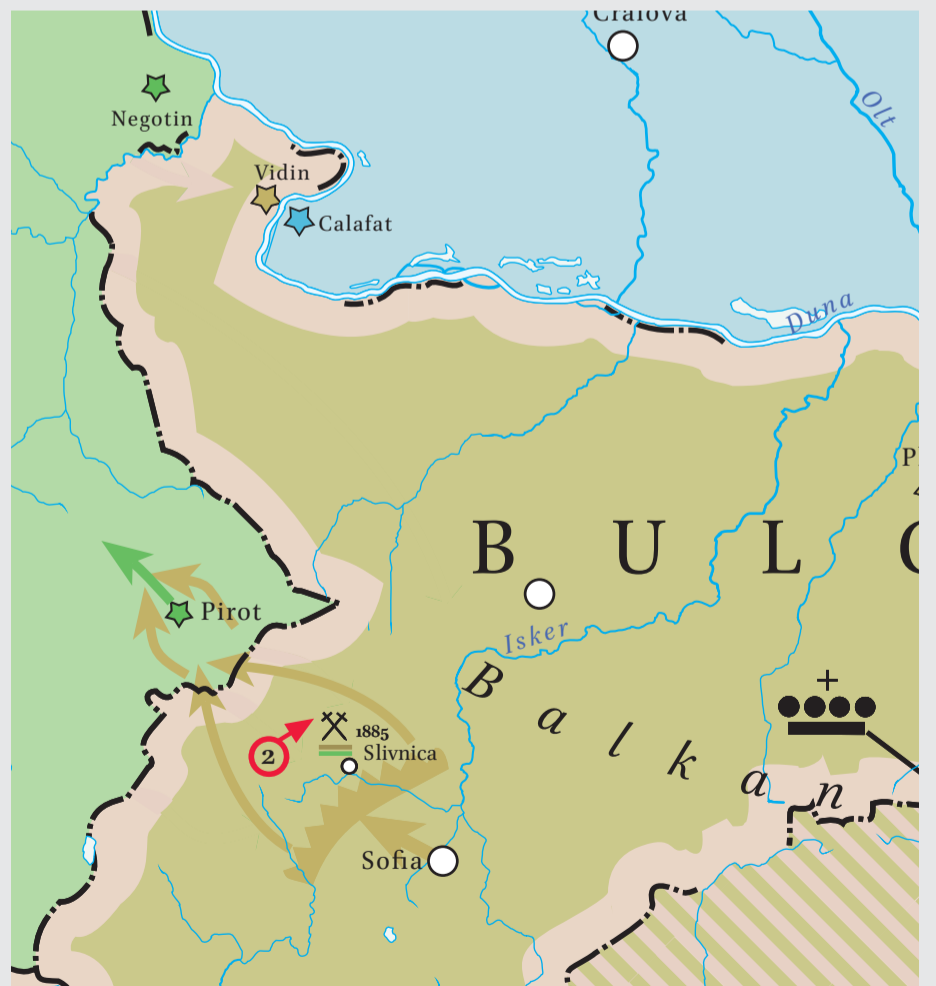




6.1 - In September 1885 a nationalist uprising in Eastern Rumelia leads to the declaration of the Unification of Bulgaria on 18 September. This constitutes a violation of the Treaty of Berlin, but the Ottomans hesitate to intervene. The Great Powers organize a conference of ambassadors in Istanbul in November 1885 to discuss the matter.



6.2 - Serbia objects to the Bulgarian unification, declares war and invades Bulgaria on 14 November 1885.



6.3 - The Battle of Slivnica, fought from 16 till 19 November, is won by the Hungarians, who push the Serbian forces back across the border. The outcome of the short Serbo-Bulgarian War of the second half of November 1885 is that the unification of Bulgaria is recognized by the Great Powers.



6.4a - The crisis in Crete triggers the Greco-Turkish War of 1897. It is fought in the north, Greek troops invading Epirus from Larissa.



6.4b - In the West, the Greeks attempt to capture Preveza.



6.4c - After new revolts in Crete in 1885, 1888, and 1889, the Ottoman sultan appoints a Christian governor of the island, but this antagonizes the Muslim population. Ottoman reinforcements land on Crete around the same time as Greek volunteers arrive to support the Christians. The fleets of the Great Powers patrol the waters around the island, which only heightens the tensions. On 15 February 1897 a Greek force lands in Crete and its commander proclaims the union with Greece. The Great Powers attempt to contain the situation by blockading the island. An international force lands on the island, taking control over several strategic places and ending the hostilities.



6.5 - In response, Ottoman forces march into Greek territory, capturing Larissa and moving south to Pharsala and Volos, which falls on 8 May 1897.



6.6a - On 20 September a peace treaty is signed, ending what is also known as Thirty Days' War of 1897. Greece is forced to pay heavy reparations, as a result of which its economy comes under international supervision.



6.6b - In the aftermath of the Greco-Turkish War of 1897 the independent Cretan State is established under Ottoman suzerainty with Prince George of Greece as its first High Commissioner.



6.7a - On 5 October 1908 the Principality of Bulgaria is promoted to a Kingdom with Ferdinand I as its Tsar. The reason is that he has designs for the unification of all areas with an ethnic Bulgarian majority.



6.7b - On 6 October 1908 Austria-Hungary annexes Bosnia and Herzegovina, enraging the Serbs.





7.1 - The Italo-Turkish War starts on 29 September 1911 and ends on 19 October 1912. The Battle of Rhodes is fought in the first week of May 1912, the Italians capturing the town of Rhodes. They also take control over Scarpanto, Kasos and other smaller islands between Samos and Rhodes.



7.2 - Although Montenegro had grown considerably in the second half of the 19th century, in 1912 there is still a region along its eastern border which it claimed as Montenegrin.



7.3 - In 1912 Greece and Serbia agree to divide Albania between the two countries. The agreement between the two countries is part of the Balkan League, a series of bilateral arrangements directed against the Ottoman Empire.



7.4 - Another such agreement is concluded between Serbia and Bulgaria. The latter has designs on Macedonia, but it cannot fight the Ottomans alone. It therefore reaches an agreement with Serbia, which would get part of Macedonia.



7.5 - The planned division of Macedonia is completed by a Greek-Bulgarian agreement whereby Greece would expand further north in Thessaly and take the region around Thessaloniki.



7.6 - At the invitation of Serbia, Montenegro also participates in the Balkan League. At the end of 1912 Montenegrin forces march in various directions, occupying the area their state laid claim to and besieging Scutari in the south from 28 October 1912 to 23 April 1913.



7.7 - Soon after war had been declared, the Greek army moves north, focusing entirely on conquering the strategic city of Thessaloniki, which is also crucial for the Ottomans' lines of communications. The Ottoman armies being spread out along the anticipated front, the Ottoman line at Thessaloniki is unable to resist the massive Greek attack. On 9 November 1912, the Ottomans surrender the city, a week after they lost the Battle of Giannitsa. Its loss to the Greeks isolates the Ottoman army fighting the Serbs in the north. The Serbs attack from various sides in the north, laying siege to Scutari (Alb. Shkodër) together with Montenegrin forces, taking Skopje and advancing on Monastir (Bitola), which surrenders on 19 November 1912. In Epirus the Greeks take Preveza (21 October 1912), Joannina following on 6 March 1913. Scutari does not fall until 23 April 1913.



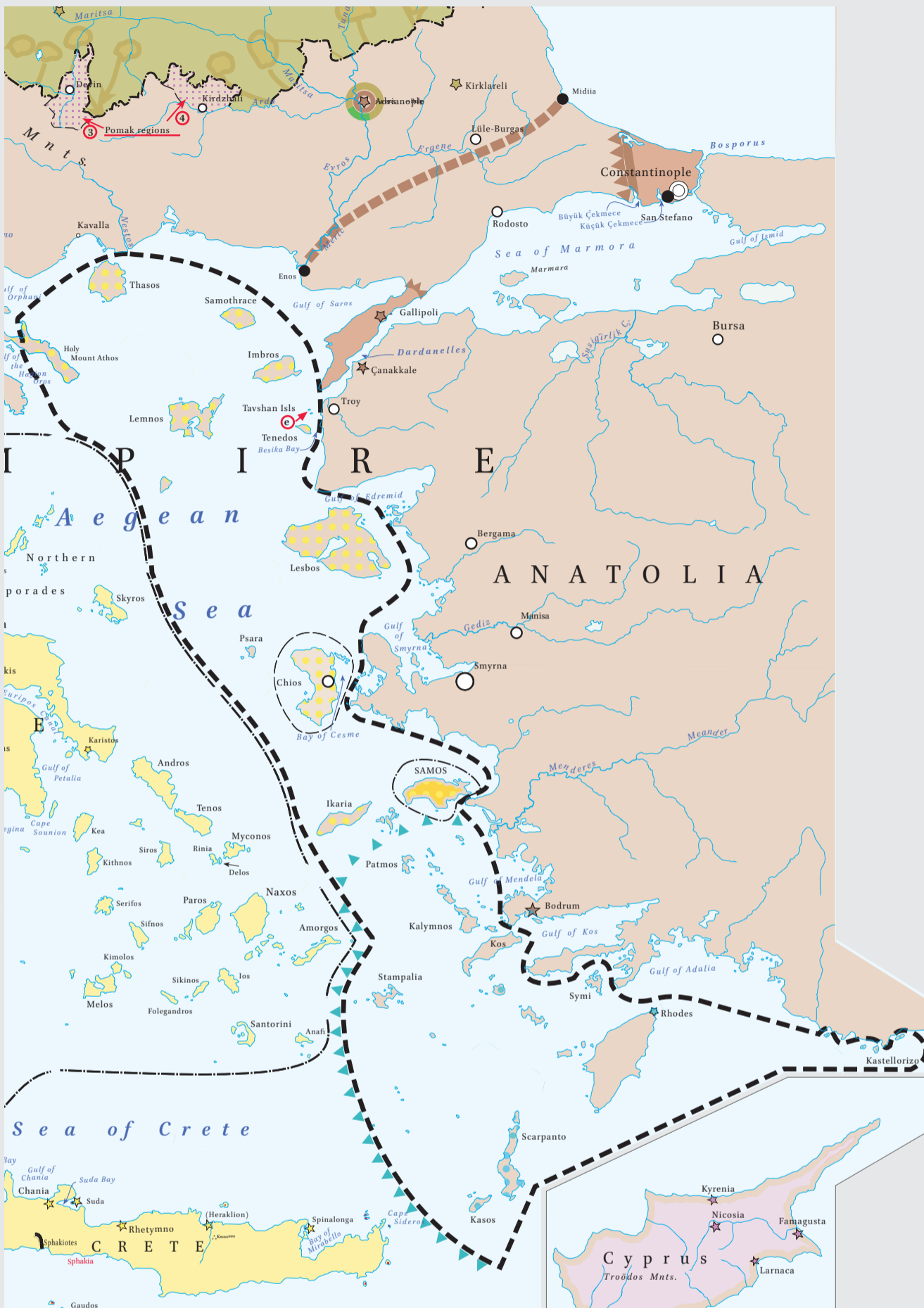
7.8 - The strategic island of Lemnos is the first to be conquered by the Greek fleet in the last week of October 1912. The Ottoman fleet is deployed in the Black Sea, which allows the Greeks to gain control over the Aegean. By the middle of November several islands including Samothrace, Psara, and Ikaria are in Greek hands, while attacks on Lesbos (21 November) and Chios (27 November) follow. Due to fierce Ottoman resistance, they are not taken until 22 December 1912 and 3 January 1913, respectively. The attack on Samos does not happen until 13 March; three days later it is in Greek hands too.



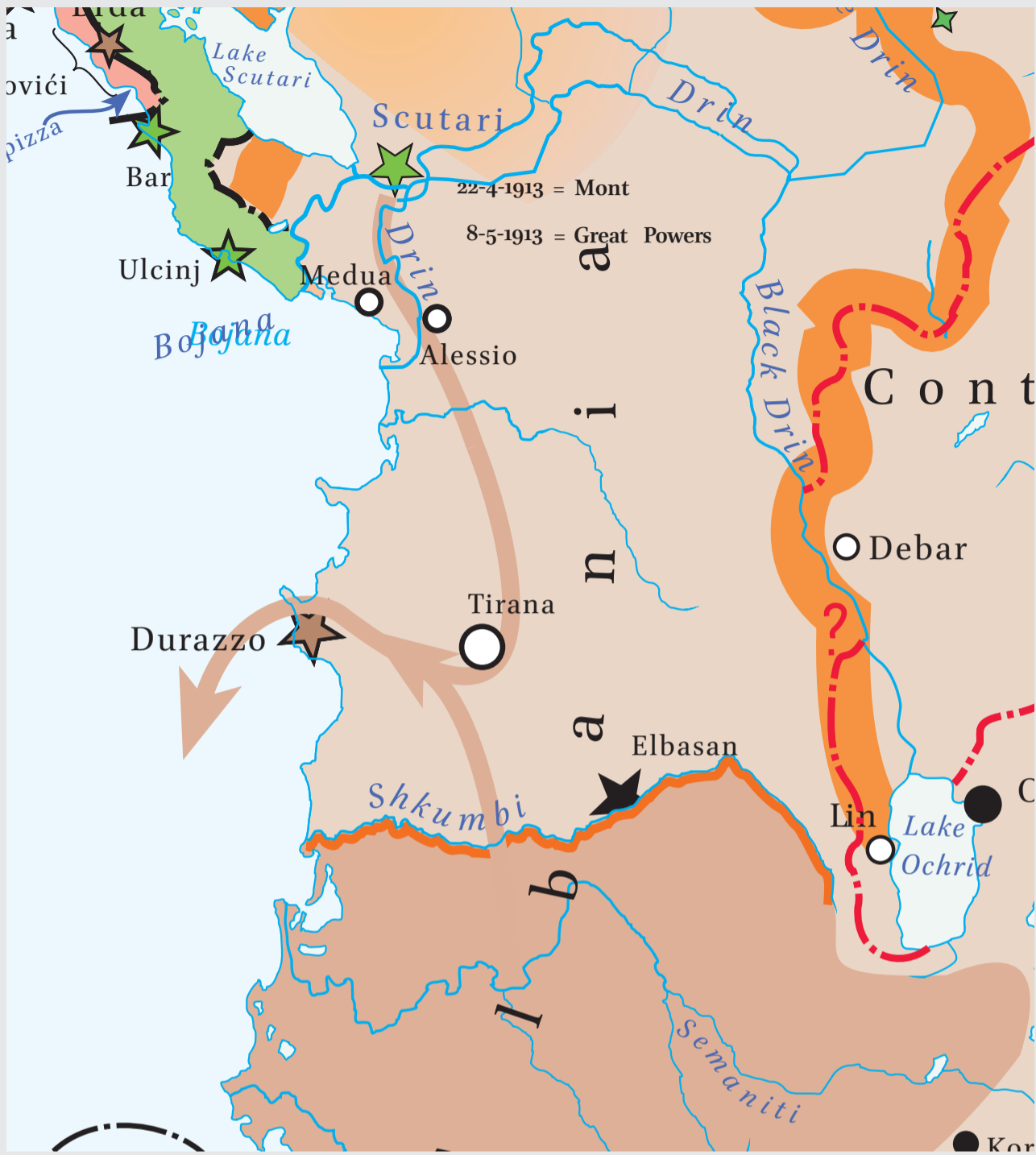
7.9 - The Bulgarian forces are divided in three armies, which focus on conquering eastern Macedonia, Adrianople (T. Edirne) and marching on Istanbul.



7.10 - At the Battle of Lüle Burgas (28 October-2 November 1912) Bulgarian forces defeat the Ottomans, forcing them to retreat to a line only 30 km from Istanbul. The First Balkan War has started.

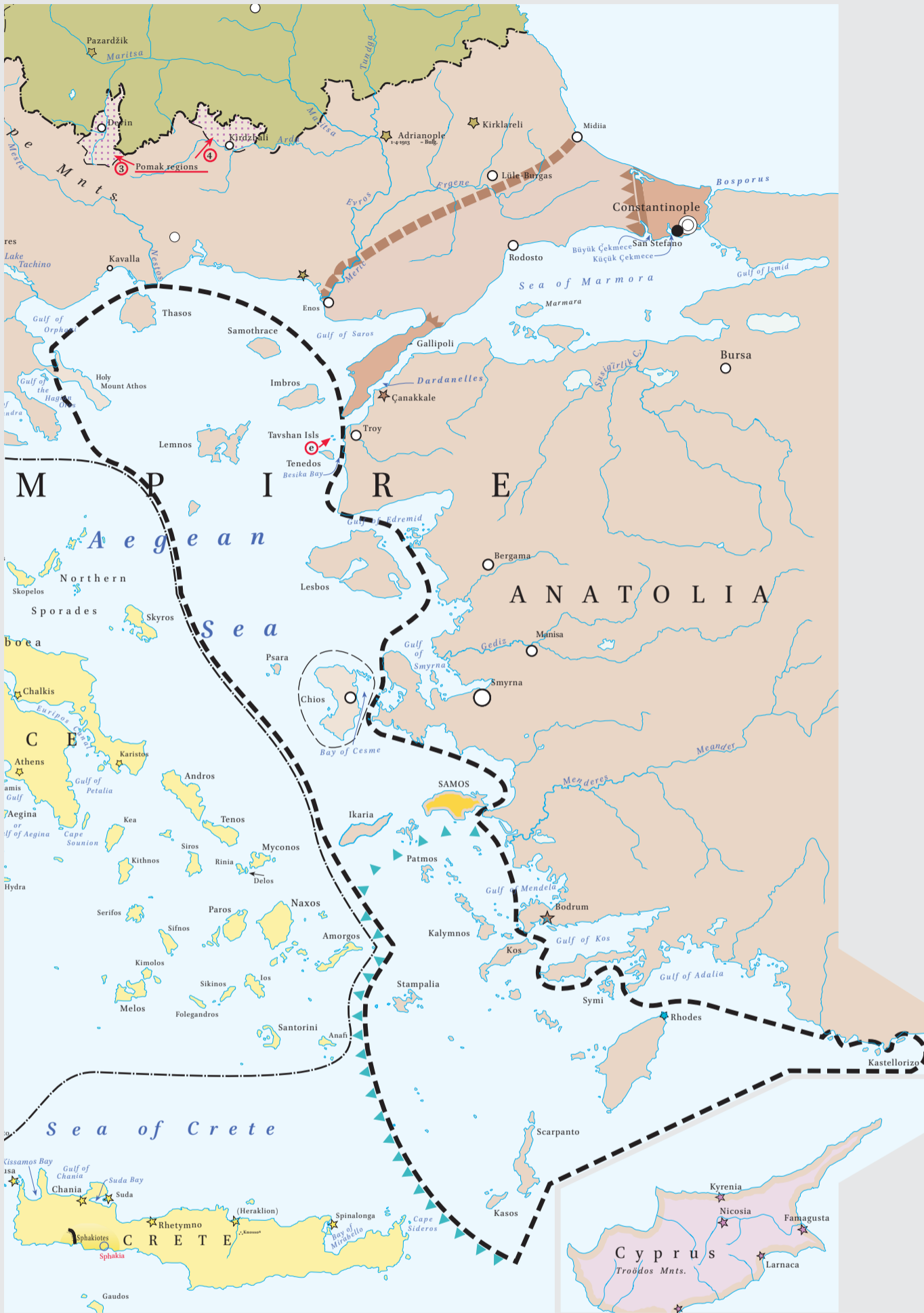


7.11 - "London"



7.12 - On 29 November 1912 Durrazzo (Alb. Durrës) is occupied by the Serbian troops





8.1 - On 30 January 1913 an armistice is announced, although fighting continues in several places. Some short-lived new borders are established during the London Conference of 1912-1913, which results in the Treaty of London, signed on 30 May 1913. The Great Powers decide that the members of the Balkan League acquire all lands west of the Enos-Midia line, with the exception of Albania. The Ottoman Empire formally recognizes the cessation of Crete to the Kingdom of Greece.



8.2 - The exact borders of an independent Albania remain to be determined by the Great Powers after the Treaty of London.



8.4 - Dissatisfied with the settlement of the First Balkan War, Bulgaria attacks its former allies, starting the Second Balkan War (1913). The attack on Greece starts on 26 June, that on Serbia three days later.



8.3 - The red lines demarcate the disputed zone in Macedonia, which the Balkan League states had agreed beforehand would come under Russian arbitration in case of a dispute. During the First Balkan War, however, both the Serbians and the Greeks conquer much more territory than Bulgaria had anticipated.



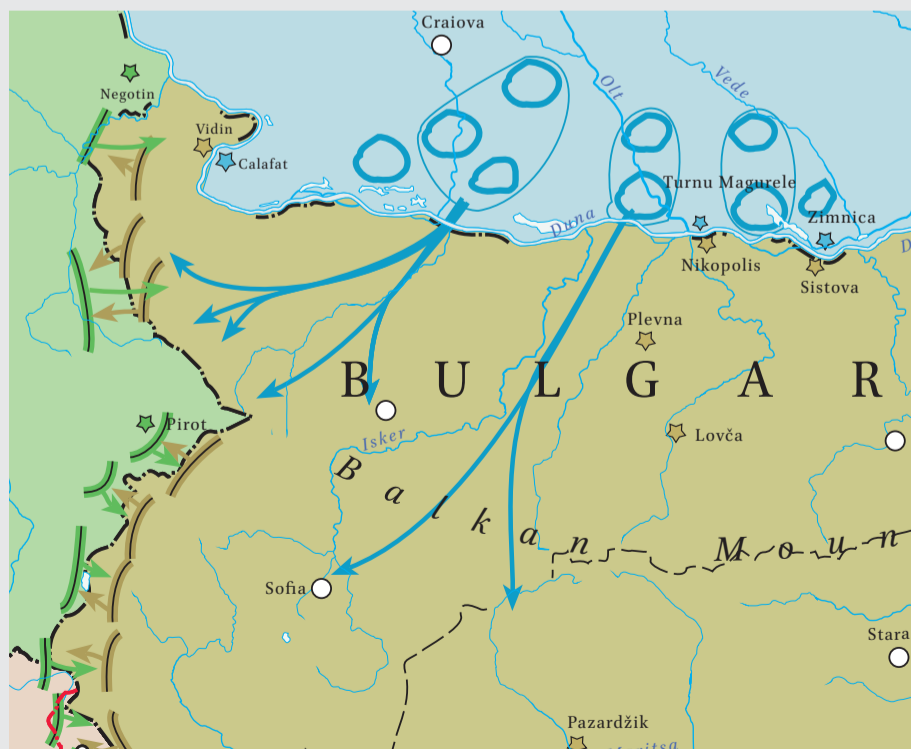
8.5a - By 29 June the Greek forces have stopped the Bulgarian advance and are ordered to counter-attack. On 28 June the Bulgarians burn Serres while retreating north.



8.5b - WAR 2.



8.5c - Romania's success stimulated the Ottomans to attempt to win back the territories in eastern Thrace it had recently lost. Regaining Adrianople (T. Edirne) is the main objective of the Ottoman intervention, which begins on 12 July. The Ottomans re-occupy Adrianople on 23 July. They then continue in pursuit of the Bulgarians across the border. Russia comes to Bulgaria's rescue, threatening to attack Istanbul with its Black Sea fleet, which causes a British intervention.



8.5d - On 10 July 1913 Romania declares war on Bulgaria with the explicit aim of ending the Second Balkan War, not attacking Bulgaria itself. By 23 July Romanian forces approach Sofia. The Romanian intervention would prove to be decisive.



8.6a - On 10 August 1913 the Treaty of Bucharest is signed by Romania, Bulgaria, Serbia, Montenegro, and Greece. Bulgaria is forced to cede the southern Dobruja to Romania.



8.6b - At Bucharest Serbia gains a large territory, including and beyond the contested zone, stretching as far south as Monastir. The border between Greece and Bulgaria is also redrawn in the former's favour. Bulgaria too gains two areas to the south.



8.6c - On 29 September 1913 the Bulgarians and the Ottomans sign the separate Treaty of Constantinople, which formalizes that eastern Thracia is again Ottoman territory.



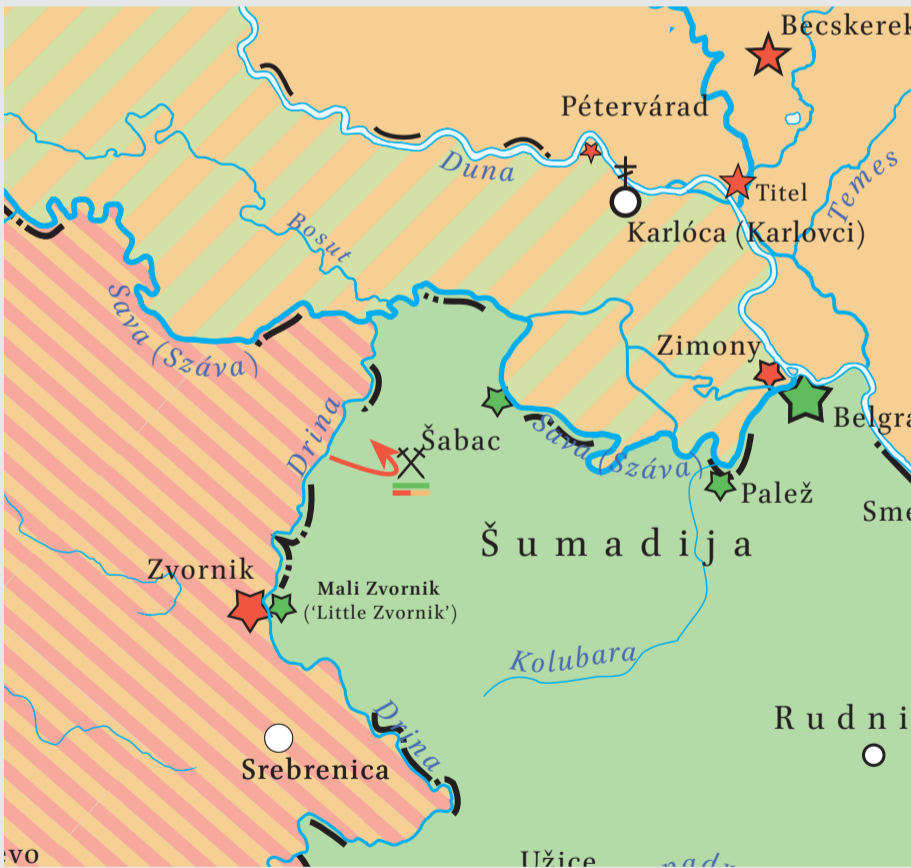
8.7 - The Great Powers had made Albania independent through the Treaty of London in May 1913. On 21 February 1914 the short-lived Principality of Albania is established formally.



8.8 - San Stefano.+Exarch.



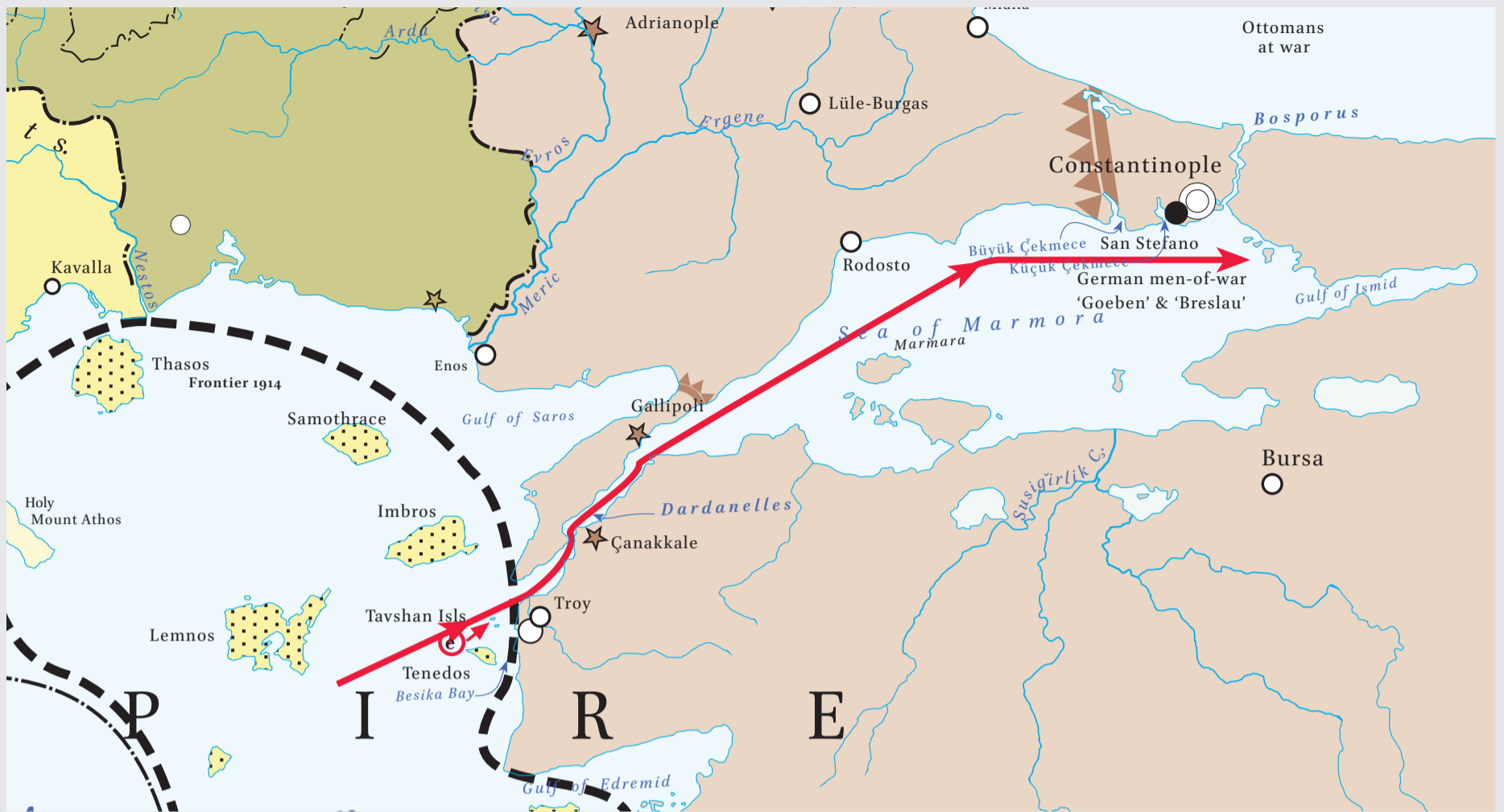
9.1a - On 18 August 1914, Russian forces invade Bukovina and Austrian eastern Galicia. By 3 September, they have conquered its principal city of Lemberg.



9.1b - Between 15 and 24 August 1914 the Battle of Cer is fought around Cer Mountain between Serbia and Austria-Hungary. The Serbs win a pyrrhic victory.



9.1c - The First World War is triggered by the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria and his wife on 28 June 1914 in Sarajevo. During the month of August hostilities erupt in various places in southeast Europe. Soon after diplomatic relations between Serbia and Austria-Hungary have been broken, Serbian reservists cross the border.



9.1d - On 4 August 1914 two German men-of-war, called *Goeben* and *Breslau*, are at sea when they receive orders to go to Istanbul. They manage to evade the British Mediterranean fleet and reach the Ottoman capital. After their transfer to the Turks in a fictitious sale (so as not to undermine Ottoman neutrality in the war), they become part of the Ottoman navy.



9.2 - In September 1914 Prince zu Wied, the ruler of Albania, flees his capital of Durazzo (Alb. Durrës) in the wake of a Muslim revolt.



9.3a - In October and November of 1914 Hungarian and Russian troops collide along the border of Bukovina and eastern Galicia, but the situation remains the same.



9.3b - After the Battle of Cer and the Battle of Drine soon after it, the Austrians attack Serbia on 5 November. The Serbs resist strongly at Kolubara, but their lack of ammunition makes them withdraw further. Austro-Hungarian troops enter Belgrade on 2 December.



9.3c - In December 1914 Italy attacks the Albanian port of Vlorë.



9.3d - By early 1915 Italy has occupied Valona (Alb. Vlorë) and its vicinity.



9.4 - From 29 October 1914 the Ottoman navy, including the two re-named German cruisers still under German command, attacks the Russian ports of Odessa, Sebastopol, Feodosia, Yalta and Novorossiysk. The attack, which had not been ordered by the Ottoman government, forced the Ottoman Empire into the First World War as an ally of Germany.



9.5a - Between 1 December and 13 December 1914 the Austro-Hungarian army manages to stall the advance of the Russians in the Battle of Limanowa.



9.5b - 1914 dec



9.5c - In December 1914 Greek troops occupy Northern Epiros again. They would stay for two years



9.5d - During the third Austro-Hungarian invasion of Serbia in 1914, the Battle of Kolubara is fought between 16 November and 15 December. The Austrians briefly occupy Belgrade, but by 15 December they have abandoned it again.



9.6 - In the first months of 1915, the Allies (Great Britain and France) use the island of Lemnos as a naval base.



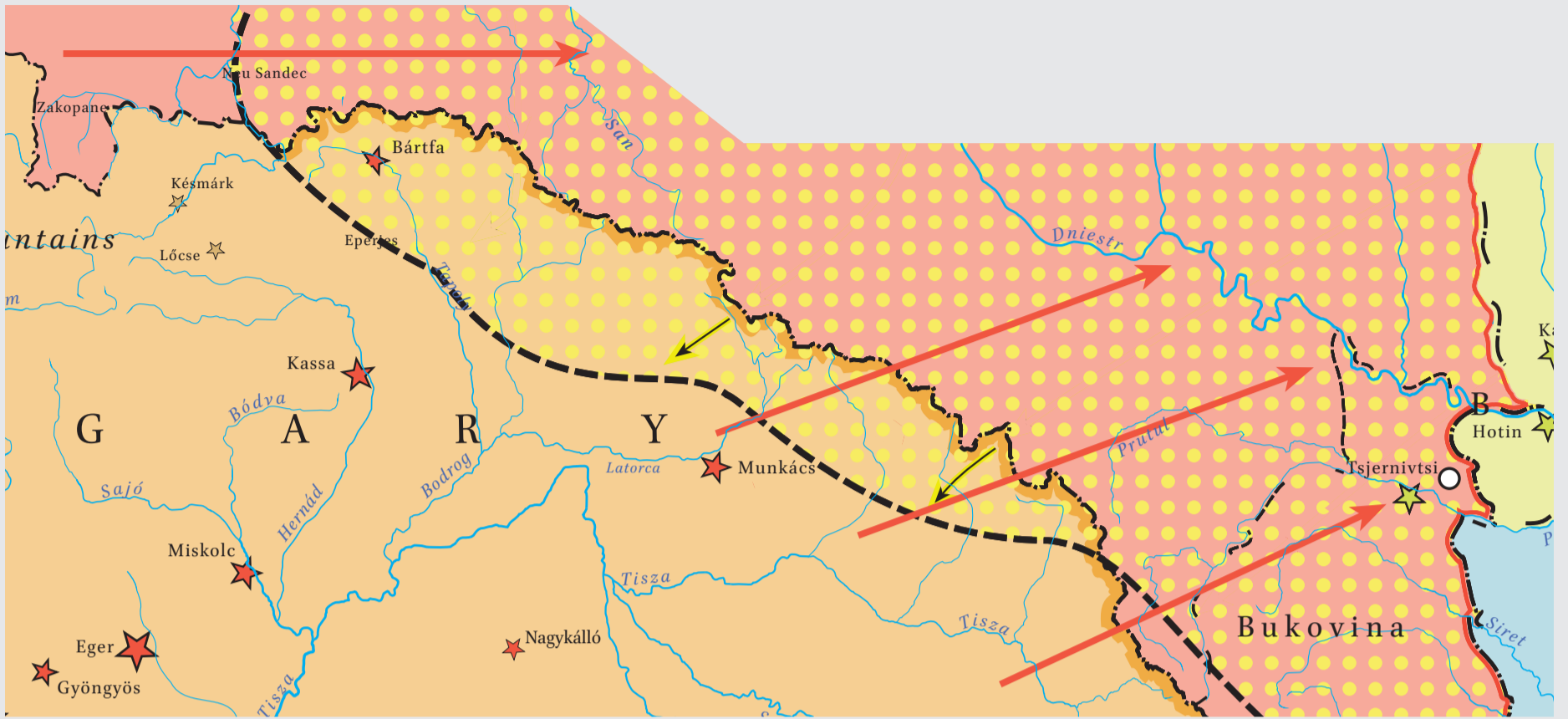
9.7a - The Treaty of London, a secret pact between Great Britain, France, and Italy, was signed on 26 April 1915. On the condition that Italy changes sides and declares war on Germany and Austro-Hungary, the Allies make several territorial promises to Italy, Serbia, and Montenegro. One of them is that Italy is promised direct control over the port of Valona (Alb. Vlorë), which it has just occupied. Over the rest of Albania Italy is promised a protectorate.



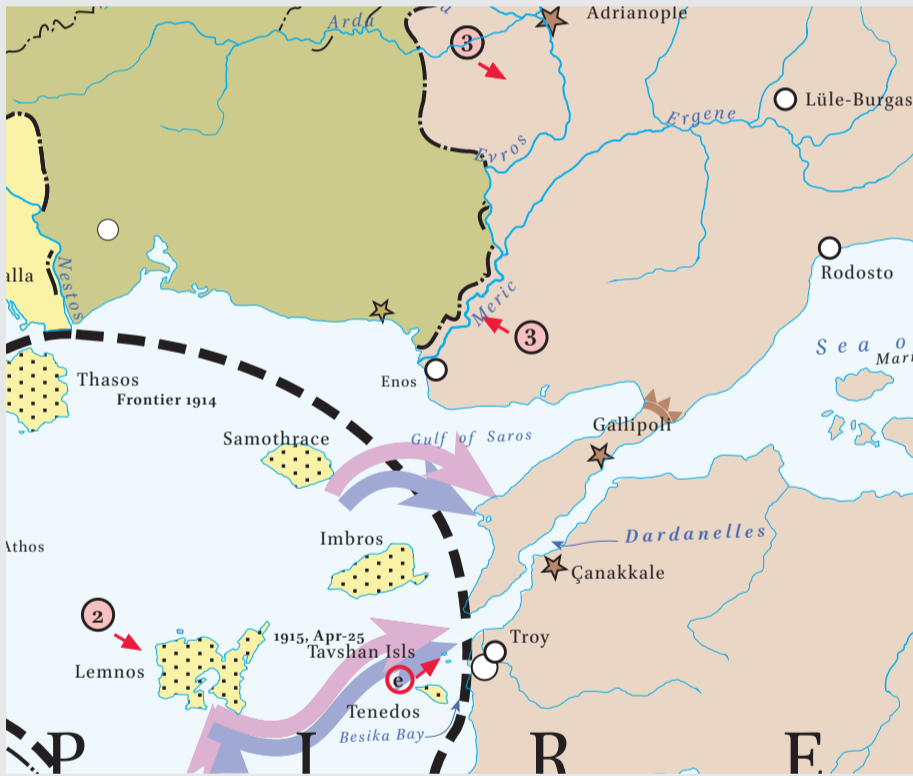
9.7b - The pink line demarcates the territorial promises along the Dalmatian Coast made to Italy with the conclusion of the Treaty of London.



9.7c - The islands of the Dodecanese, occupied by Italy since early 1912, are promised to Italy under the secret Treaty of London (1915).



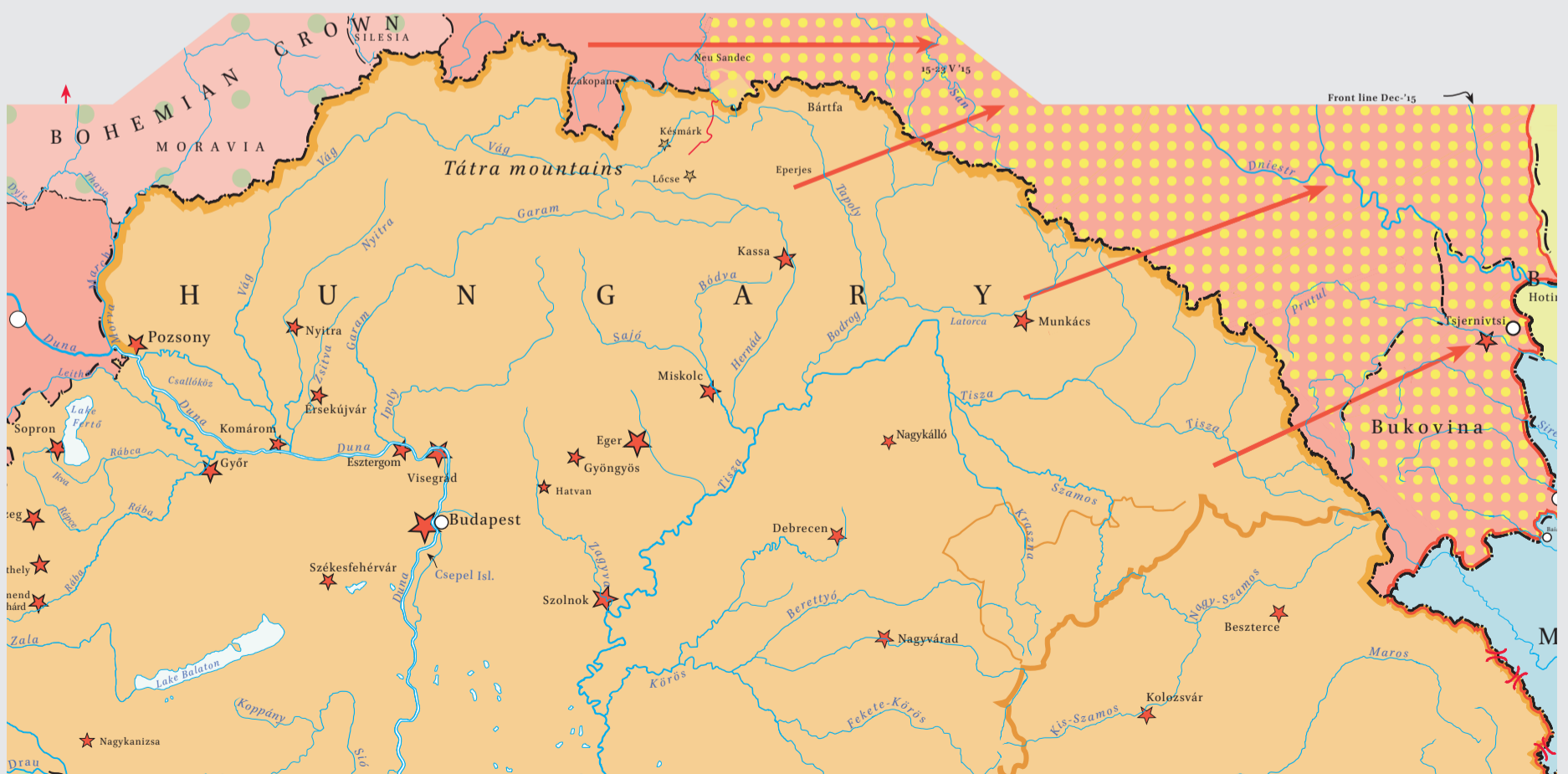
9.8a - The Russian occupation of eastern Galicia lasts until June 1915, when Austro-Hungary regains control over it.



9.8b - In early 1915 the Great Britain and France take control over Lemnos, Tenedos, Imbros, Samothrace, and Thasos. They use the islands as a springboard for the Gallipoli Campaign, which starts on 25 April 1915.



9.9a - On 25 April 1915 the Allies (British, Australian, New Zealand) land on the Gallipoli peninsula on six beaches, but they advance only a few kilometres from the coast. Within days the Turks, led by Mustafa Kemal, attack, driving the Allies back to the beaches. As reinforcements arrive on both sides (the French joining the Allied forces), the Allies' plan for a quick occupation becomes impossible. The Ottomans successfully block an Allied attack on 6-7 May and launch a counter-offensive on 19 May with disastrous results. On 24 May a truce is agreed to bury the thousands of casualties in no man's land. In June and July fighting is resumed both on land and at sea, neither side achieving decisive victories. An Allied attack in August failed, and the front remained stable with trenches on both sides separated by no-man's-land.



9.9b - In June 1915 the Austrians regained control over Galicia and Lodomeria, which Russia had occupied in September 1914.



9.10 - On 7 October 1915 the Austro-Hungarians and Germans attacked Serbia from the north. On 14 October the Bulgarians join them, attacking from the east on two fronts.



9.11 - The Serbs are forced to retreat deep into Albania through Montenegro.



9.12a - The defeat of Serbia at the hands of the Austro-Hungarians, Germans, and Bulgarians in the autumn of 1915 leads Great Britain and France to move troops from the Gallipoli peninsula to Greece. In early October 1915 they open a second front at Thessaloniki. In the last week of November 1915 heavy rains flood the trenches on the Gallipoli peninsula, forcing the Allied troops to evacuate. By 20 December 1915 they have fully retreated.



9.12b - In December 1915 Italian forces once again land at Valona (Alb. Vlorë) with the aim of pushing back the Greeks from northern Epirus.



9.13 - In January 1916 the Serbs are still in Albania; the Italians have occupied Valona and its vicinity; the Greeks are expanding in northern Epirus; Bulgarian troops are still active in southern Serbia; French and British troops are building up forces around Thessaloniki; while French forces occupy Corfu on 11 January.



9.14 - Between 18 January and 21 February 1916 some 150,000 Serbs are evacuated to Corfu on Allied vessels from various Albanian ports, including occupied Valona. The Allied forces remain put around Thessaloniki until the summer of 1916, receiving Serbian reinforcements from May onwards, while Italian forces are active in northern Epirus. In July the Bulgarians' attempt to invade Greece is halted at Lake Dorian. British forces advance on Seres in October 1916.



9.15 - On 29 November 1916 the French occupy Korçë and its surroundings, establishing the Autonomous Albanian Republic of Korçë there, which lasts until 1920.



9.16a - The division of Albania: In March 1916 the Greeks annex Northern Epirus, but they lose the area to the Italians in 1917. The French control Korçë, while in the spring of 1917 northern Albania is invaded by Austro-Hungarian troops



9.16b - On 18 August the Romanians start the Struma Offensive, invading Greece, where they meet weak opposition from French forces and the Greeks, who had been ordered by the King not to resist. This leads to a schism within Greece, where the former Prime Minister Venizelos assumes control over the Thessaloniki area, opposing the King.



9.16c - From 4 June to 20 September 1916 the Russians launch the Brusilov Offensive in the Bukovina region. It is the largest victory of the First World War, but at a great loss of life. As a result Romania joins the war on the side of the Allies.



9.16d - Between 27 August 1916 and 18 September the Romanian army, in its first campaign as part of the First World War, invades Transylvania advancing c. 100 kilometres into enemy territory.



9.17 - The Romanian invasion of Transylvania triggers Austro-Hungarian counter-attacks on several fronts from 26 September until 25 October 1916, when the Romanian forces are routed. But they still manage to halt the Austro-Hungarian and German advance on Bucharest.



9.18 - The Romanian invasion of Transylvania leads to an attack from northern Bulgaria in the southern Dobruja. The Bulgarians invade on 1 September 1917. Turtucaia surrenders on 6 September, other cities as far north as Silistria follow soon.



9.19 - In July and August 1917 the Bukovina region is taken back by the Austro-Hungarians, ousting the Russian occupying forces.



9.20a - In the wake of the February Revolution and its impact on in Russia, the Moldavian Democratic Republic is pronounced on 15 December 1917.



9.20b - On 9 April 1918 the Moldavian Democratic Republic enters a union with the Kingdom of Romania.



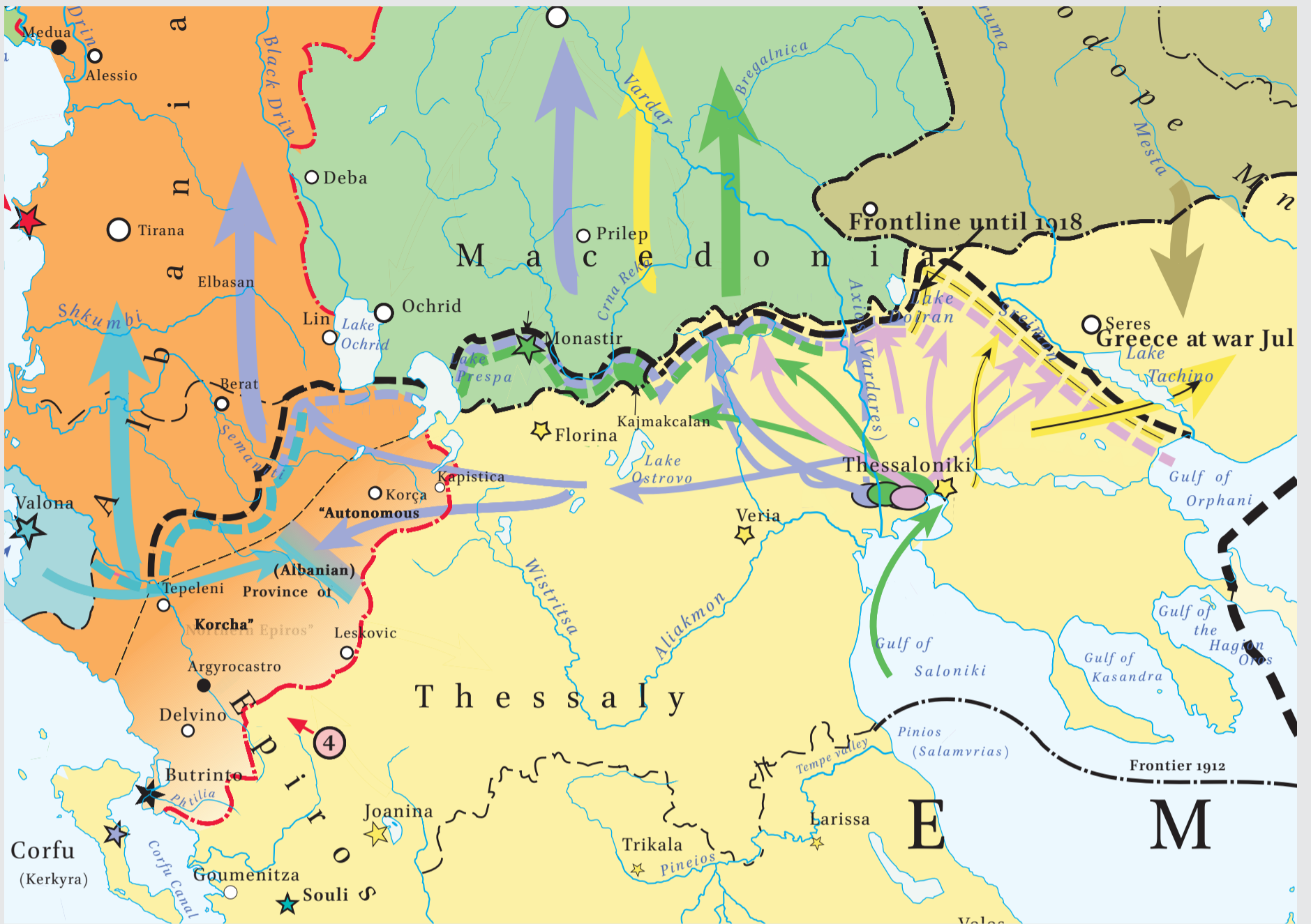
9.21 - On 7 May 1918 the Central Powers – Germany, Austro-Hungary and Bulgaria – conclude the peace Treaty of Bucharest with Romania. The southern part of Dobruja, occupied by Bulgaria in September 1917, is ceded to Bulgaria. The rest of the Dobruja region remains under control of the Central Powers. In return, the Central Powers recognize the union of Romania with Moldavia.



9.22 - 1918 jun



9.23 - 1918 jul



9.24 - 1918 september - october.



9.25 - S.Stef.+Exarch.



9.26 - Situation 1918

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