

# The Impact of Political Variables on the Ottoman-European Hegemonic Conflict in the Mediterranean before the Battle of Lepanto in 1571 CE

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**Abstract:** The political variables that contributed to the development of hostilities between European states and the Ottoman Empire in the region will be examined in the paper "The Impact of Political Variables on the Ottoman-European Hegemonic Conflict in the Mediterranean before the Battle of Lepanto in 1571 CE". The paper examines how these elements affected the state-state struggle and concentrates on the time leading up to the Battle of Lepanto in 1571 CE. The study will go into the alliances and diplomatic ties between states that contributed to the conflict's escalation as well as other political and military factors. The study will also look at how the conflict has affected the societies involved and the political ties between governments. The study will employ archival materials and a range of references to present a thorough overview of the conflict and its effects on the political variables. Additionally, both analytical and inductive methodologies will be used in our work.

**Keywords:** Ottoman Empire, Holy League, Mediterranean Sea, Battle of Lepanto, Franco-Ottoman Alliance.

## 1. Introduction

### 1.1. The concept of conflict and a historical, cultural, and geographic overview of the Mediterranean Sea

Terminologically speaking, a "conflict" is defined as an environment of competition in which disputing parties recognize their inherent contradictions and work toward achieving their objectives at the expense of the other. Disagreement, discord, and distinctions within or between groups, as well as between individuals, give rise to this interaction condition. According to Simon and March, "conflict" is the term used to describe a shift or disturbance in routine behavior that impairs the dynamics of decision-making. Conversely, some believe that a state of open or overt competition between people or organizations is what is meant to be described by the term "conflict." Conflict is nothing more than an action taken by one person or group to keep another person or group from realizing their goals [1].

The Mediterranean Sea dominated the international scene for hundreds of years. But with the advent of geographical exploration in the fifteenth century AD, the political center of gravity gradually shifted to the Atlantic Ocean. The Pacific Ocean has taken the role in more recent times. The Mediterranean Sea dominated the international scene for hundreds of years. But with the advent of geographical exploration in the fifteenth century AD, the political center of gravity gradually shifted to the Atlantic Ocean. The Pacific Ocean has taken the role in more recent times. The Mediterranean Sea, sometimes referred to as the White Sea, the Inland Sea, or the Sea of Rome, is a well-known body of water with a rich history that offers access to numerous global trade routes, including the Silk Road. The greatest civilizations in history, spanning Asia, Africa, and Europe, emerged from this maritime region [2].

This relatively large sea, which lies between the three Old World continents, has multiple outlets, including natural ones like the Strait of Gibraltar between Morocco and Spain, which divides Europe and Africa and links the Mediterranean Sea to the Atlantic Ocean. It is surrounded by land on all four sides. Another natural outlet that connects the Sea of Marmara to the Aegean Sea and the Mediterranean and divides Asia and Europe is the Dardanelles Strait, which is among the world's narrowest navigable straits [3].

In general, one of the world's most important historical regions is the Mediterranean basin. From the ancient Syrian civilizations to the Pharaohs, Romans, Phoenicians, Amazigh, Islamic, and contemporary European civilizations, some of history's greatest civilizations have arisen on its shores. The Mediterranean Sea continued to be one of the world's

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most significant waterways following the fall of the Roman Empire. Trade continued to flourish between major European cities like Genoa and Venice and other nations like Indians and Eastern peoples. But until the Suez Canal opened in 1869, the importance of the Mediterranean was diminished by the discoveries of the New World (the Americas) in 1492 and the Cape of Good Hope in 1488.

The importance of the Mediterranean increased again after the discovery of oil as the main waterway for transporting crude from the world's largest production centers in the Arabian Gulf to Europe and America through the Mediterranean and Atlantic. The location of the Mediterranean Sea has been an important point of strategy for all countries bordering it. It serves as a link between three continents and two oceans, and great nations with histories have emerged on its shores [4].

Due to various factors, the Mediterranean has been a battlefield since the dawn of history until now, with some of the most famous historical conflicts taking place within it. These include the period of Roman rule and its many wars, especially with Carthage, the young empire that defeated the Romans across the Mediterranean under the leadership of Hannibal before the Romans retaliated by crushing the Carthaginians and destroying their civilization in 202 BC [5].

In addition to the wars of the Greek and Minoan empires on Crete, Alexander the Great's campaigns, Islamic wars, the Crusades, wars of the Ottoman Empire with European countries, and both World Wars, up to the last major operation known as the Dawn of Odessa against Libya in 2011 [6]. The Mediterranean Sea has been closely and organically linked to all historical periods through which the world has passed, including international conflicts and the control of large parts of it. This connection is evident in the naval power struggles between the Spanish and English in the Battle of the Armada, as well as between the Ottoman Empire and European nations in 1571. The increased international conflict over the Mediterranean basin and control over it is a manifestation of this close link.

With the emergence of the Ottoman Empire as a power in the western basin of the Mediterranean Sea, and the formation of an Ottoman presence in Algeria starting from the 16th century AD, this marked the rise of Islamic maritime activity. Through declaring loyalty to the Ottoman Empire, Algeria was able to expand its political boundaries to the maritime domain through its fleet. These naval powers clashed with the European fleets led by the Kingdom of Spain under the leadership of the Ottoman Empire, resulting in an international conflict between the two shores of the Mediterranean Sea between the European powers and the Islamic powers in the Mediterranean basin [7]. We notice that during the 16th century, the powerful Ottoman sultans, especially Sultan Selim I and Sultan Suleiman the Magnificent, continued the long-term policy initiated by their grandfather, Sultan Mehmed the Conqueror, in an attempt to create a global power.

Sultan Selim I was able to achieve a significant part of this goal by subduing the Safavids in the Battle of Chaldiran in 1514 and the Mamluks in Syria and Egypt in 1516-1517, as well as vast areas of Europe. Historian Stanford Shaw says, "Sultan Selim I came with the ambition of renewing the strong policies to achieve the goal of Sultan Mehmed the Conqueror in establishing a global empire, but Sultan Selim was more concerned with the land aspect than the maritime aspect, perhaps due to the emergence of the Safavid threat in the east. However, during the reign of his son, Sultan Suleiman the Magnificent, the Ottoman Empire reached the peak of its greatness on land and sea. His land armies were able to reach the outskirts of Vienna, the capital of the Roman Empire, while his fleets were able to extend Ottoman influence on the western Mediterranean and subjugate most of the areas and sites along the coasts of North Africa, wresting them from Spanish domination.

However, we must question here whether the maritime achievements of Sultan Suleiman resulted from a maritime policy that was established in the Ottoman capital, continuing the policy initiated by Sultan Mehmed the Conqueror, or whether they were a response to changes that occurred on the western side of the Mediterranean Sea " [8]. Here arises a question about how the Ottoman state was able to extend its control over large parts of the coasts of North Africa at a time when Ottoman ships were not designed to sail long distances. On the other hand, we must understand to what extent European expansionist policies, which reached their peak in the era of Emperor Charles V, one of the Sultan's main rivals during the 16th century, played a role in provoking Ottoman reactions regarding the maritime aspect of the conflict between the two empires.

We notice that Ottoman history constitutes an interconnected unit that enables us to understand the later background of its activities in North Africa. It also explains to a large extent the ease with which they were able to redirect their forces there. When Sultan Suleiman the Magnificent ascended the throne, he, like his grandfather Sultan Mehmed the Conqueror, began calling for leadership of the Islamic world, and often expressed his ambitions for global sovereignty.

The researcher believes that this high confidence was derived from being a leader of the Islamic world and the ruler of the most powerful Islamic state at that time [9]. 20/2/2021 Key developments of 1571 (mainly, Lepanto). It has been viewed 27/10/2023 <https://justworldnews.org/2021/02/20/key-developments-of-1571-mainly-lepanto/>. And as Khalil Inaljik confirms, after the year 1453, the Ottomans declared this supremacy based on the claim that no other Muslim

ruler since the time of the Rashidun caliphs had ever achieved such success in protecting and enhancing the interests of the Islamic world, and that the Ottoman Sultan was the caliph of the Muslims and the protector of the religion. Furthermore, when the Mamluk state disappeared as a result of Ottoman expansion between 1516 and 1517 AD, the Ottomans became the masters of the holy places in Jerusalem and the Hejaz.

According to [10], Sultan Suleiman also spoke with great pride about this, saying, "I am Abdullah and the master of the world... I am Suleiman, whose name is repeated in prayers in the holy cities of the Islamic world." [10]. Since 1453, the concept of Rome had been looming in the imagination of Ottoman state politics. Khalil Inalcik [10] considered Ottoman support for France and the Protestant movement as a long-term plan aimed at opening Rome and unifying the two Roman worlds. This policy directed against both the Holy Roman Empire and the papacy prevented Christian Europe from uniting against the Ottomans [10]. On the other hand, the idea of two empires coexisting was unacceptable to the Ottomans. Thus, from their perspective, Charles V was not an emperor but only a king of Spain. This was evident in 1530 when Charles V was crowned emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, intensifying the conflict between him and Sultan Suleiman the Magnificent. The stage was set for conflict, with religious claims and expansionist ambitions, not limited to land but also extending to areas of influence at sea.

The Mediterranean was one of the areas of conflict between the two empires, but both rulers avoided direct confrontation [11]. At this stage of the conflict, privateers became an active element in the war between the two sides, representing what is now known in modern political terminology as "proxy wars." The conflict escalated after a series of attacks by Spain on coastal sites in North Africa to track down Muslims who had fled Spanish persecution in the Iberian Peninsula and began organizing themselves to seek revenge against their oppressors. The first Spanish campaign in the region was directed at the port of Oran in 1505 [12]. In this sensitive historical stage, the Spanish challenge emerged in the western Mediterranean, imposing a new task on the Ottomans to protect Muslims in areas far from their naval power center. At this stage, powerful naval leaders appeared, taking upon themselves the task of protecting Islamic coasts in North Africa, where Muslims fled to escape Spanish persecution.

Here we must ask ourselves: What was the role played by these new naval leaders in enhancing Ottoman influence in those regions? Answering this question leads us to talk about two prominent figures in Ottoman maritime history, the brothers Aruj and Khairuddin Barbarossa, who took upon themselves the task of continuing Ottoman conquests in North Africa and protecting Muslims there.

During this conflict between Spain and the Ottoman Empire, several political changes emerged that affected the conflict between the Ottoman Empire and Spain, which represented Europe at that time. What were these changes?

### *1.2. Study Questions First political variable: The Battle of Preveza in 1538 CE and Europe's defeat in the Holy League.*

The Battle of Preveza had a significant psychological impact on the European political scene, and several political issues and variables in the European and international arena changed dramatically. These changes included:

The Holy League's defeat at the Battle of Preveza marked the beginning of a change in politics. Venice's withdrawal from the Ottoman-European war and the 1540 treaty it signed with the Ottoman Sultan, which guaranteed its last stronghold in Greece, Morea, signaled the start of these changes. Still, the war between the Ottomans and the Habsburgs raged on [12]. A series of brutal Ottoman naval attacks against the southern Italian region of Calabria occurred in 1537.

The Ottomans also managed to seize several important islands near the Greek and Italian coasts. Raids on the fleets of opposing European powers continued as well. (Oglo .n.d). Faced with this growing threat, Pope Paul III\* (Pope Paul) conducted intensive negotiations with the leaders of Catholic Europe and succeeded in forming and mobilizing what became known as the "Holy League Fleet." The fleet was led by Emperor Charles V of Spain and the Holy Roman Empire, who allied with the Republic of Venice, one of the largest economic and military powers in southern Europe, as well as the Italian Republic of Genoa, the Knights of Malta, and Portugal.

The goal of this massive naval gathering was to destroy the Ottoman fleet in the Mediterranean and eliminate the legend of Kheir-ed-Din Barbarossa. The overall command of the Holy League fleet was given to the famous Genoese sailor Andrea Doria, one of Kheir-ed-Din Barbarossa's top opponents in the Mediterranean. The European fleet consisted of over 300 varied ships, mostly Spanish, and included more than 60,000 fighters, while the Ottoman fleet consisted of only 122 ships and 12,000 fighters [13]. The collision between the two fleets occurred above the waters of the Ionian Sea, separating the western coast of Greece and the southeastern coast of Italy, not far from the site of the great Battle of Actium 16 centuries earlier, which decided the fate of the Roman Empire and the Middle East after the Roman commander Octavian defeated his rival Antony, who was allied with Cleopatra VII, the queen of Egypt. ( Rafferty : From Pirate to Admiral: The Tale of Barbarossa, <https://www.britannica.com/story/from-pirate-to-admiral-the-tale-of-barbarossa>) .

It is noteworthy that years ago, and near the Greek port of Preveza, a smaller naval battle took place between Kheir-ed-

Din Barbarossa and his opponent Andrea Doria\*, which ended in Kheir-ed-Din's victory and the seizure of seven ships from Andrea's fleet. When Kheir-ed-Din Barbarossa learned of the European Crusader naval alliance against him, he immediately headed his fleet from the Aegean Sea towards the western coast of Greece, overlooking the Ionian Sea. Upon the advice of his advisor Sinan Pasha, Barbarossa ordered the occupation and fortification of the Greek port of Actium and heavily installed Ottoman artillery inside it. This port was located in a vital location at the entrance to one of the bays, separated from the port of Preveza, which would later be named after the imminent battle [13].

A few days later, the European Crusaders made an attempt to take Preveza by land, but the Ottoman garrison put up a fierce fight, making their invasion unsuccessful. On the evening of September 28, 1538, Andrea Doria was compelled to relocate miles inland, beyond the reach of Ottoman artillery. In collaboration with his advisors, he devised an offensive strategy to divert Kheir-ed-din Barbarossa's fleet from the coastal strongholds that offered him protection from behind [14]. At dawn, the Europeans were surprised by some fierce Ottoman naval attacks led by the famous sailor Turgut Reis, causing chaos for hours in the much larger European fleet. Doria regained balance, distributed his ships in different directions, and began his counterattack taking advantage of the beginning of the wind. However, his primary focus was to lure the main force of Kheir-ed-Din's fleet into the open sea, where the numerical superiority of the Europeans would show its advantage [15].

On the other hand, the Ottomans benefited from relatively calm winds in the areas where the European fleet was stationed, especially Ajnaba, and they pushed forward with their fast ships, colliding with many of their enemies' vessels and succeeding in occupying some of them after fierce clashes. The Ottomans derived a qualitative advantage here that was represented by not relying on wind like most of the Crusader ships, where thousands of European slaves were under the captivity of Saladin and were utilized to row the fleet's ships [16]. It was noteworthy that the majority of Spanish and Genoese ships belonging to Andrea Doria's fleet did not participate in the battle fervently, and some attributed this to Andrea's fear of suffering painful losses in his fleet that would require years of rebuilding. Others pointed out that Andrea Doria was happy that most of the brunt of the battle was on Venice's ships, the long-standing adversary of his hometown Genoa, so he wanted to preserve his forces and equipment [13].

Despite many Ottoman ships being heavily hit by the cannon fire of the Venetian ships in particular, none of them were recorded as sunk, while around 400 Ottomans were killed and twice as many were wounded. On the other hand, losses on the opposing side were much more severe, with thousands killed or injured and over 3,000 Crusaders taken captive. Additionally, the Ottomans succeeded in destroying 13 enemy ships and sinking them, while capturing 36 others [13]. Despite the appeals of other leaders, Andrea Doria forcefully withdrew from the Crusader fleet, returning to a port far from the battlefield and under his control. This served as a final declaration of defeat against the smaller but more vital and resilient fleet of Barbarossa [14].

The sudden defeat had negative repercussions on European powers, as the possibility of effective joint action against the common Ottoman enemy was shaken, and the Ottomans imposed themselves and became the toughest challenge in Mediterranean naval domination for decades to come, until the naval victory of Lepanto in 1571 against a new European alliance. The following year, in 1539, Barbarossa added more islands in the Aegean and Ionian Seas, and he had no real rival at sea. Also, in 1540, the Republic of Venice was forced to sign a humiliating peace treaty with the Ottomans, committing to pay compensation worth 300,000 ducats for its participation in the war against the Ottomans, and recognizing Ottoman sovereignty over many Greek regions previously under Venetian rule (Goffman,2002).

The open war between the Ottoman state and Spain for dominance over the southern coast of the Mediterranean Sea would continue, and one of the most notable chapters of this war was the success of the Algerians in repelling the Great Charles V's campaign against Algiers in 1541, as well as the naval battle of Gerba near Tunis between the Ottoman and Spanish fleets, which ended in another naval victory for the Ottomans, followed by their successful expulsion of the Spanish from Tunisia in 1574. Of course, subsequent conflicts would not have taken this path and manner if the outcome of the naval confrontation in Preveza in 1538 had taken a different turn, where the Mediterranean would have become purely Spanish-European, and the naval power relied upon by the Ottoman state in the Mediterranean under the leadership of Barbarossa would have been destroyed. (Pust 2012).

### *1.3. Second political variable: The Franco-Ottoman Alliance during the 16th century and its impact on political variables in international policy.*

After a few days, the European Crusaders tried to take Preveza by land invasion, but the Ottoman garrison put up a fierce fight and prevented them from succeeding. On September 28, 1538, Andrea Doria was compelled to relocate miles inland to avoid being hit by Ottoman artillery. He collaborated with his advisors to devise an offensive strategy that would entice Kheir-ed-din Barbarossa's fleet to abandon the coastal strongholds that shielded his rear [14]. Francis I's fleet joined the Sultan's fleet in southern Italy very late, and Sultan Suleiman abandoned his attack on Naples to turn to Corfu Island in Greece (Belkacem 1985). According to the Franco-Ottoman agreement, Khair al-Din's fleet joined the French fleet in their war against the Habsburgs, and helped the French regain Nice in 1543. In 1551, the Ottomans



managed to expel the Spanish from Tripoli. The Spanish attempted to fight the Ottomans again near the coasts of Djerba in 1560 but were defeated. Similarly, the Ottoman fleet was unable to seize Malta from the hands of the Knights of St. John, who had taken refuge there after being expelled from Rhodes Areas of the Knights of St. John, 1522-1530 Ce (Goffman,2002).

One of the results of France's alliance with the Ottoman state was that their agreement stipulated that the Ottoman state should make its war destination Naples and Sicily, and Spain instead of attacking Austria, which is defended by all the emirates and kingdoms of Germany since it is part of the German alliance and an independent country. French armies would enter Italy through the Piedmont region of northwestern Italy when the Ottoman armies entered from the Kingdom of Naples. However, the failure to include the Republic of Venice in this alliance and its aggression towards them was a reason for the failure of all these plans [14].

The Christian public outrage against the Franco-Ottoman alliance helped this, and Francis I was hesitant to risk being condemned by his Christian religion by allying with an Islamic state to fight against a country that shares his faith. Sultan Suleiman wanted revenge on the Republic of Venice for not joining his alliance, even though he was a neighbor to them and never attacked their country. He sent the naval commander Barbarossa with around a thousand ships to besiege the island of Corfu, as mentioned in previous paragraphs. Perhaps this is the reason why the Ottoman Sultan shifted his focus from Naples to fighting the Greek island belonging to Venice at that time.

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However, France's hesitation to advance due to public opinion, as we mentioned earlier, was the reason for the failure of this project. If it had succeeded, the entire Italy would have entered under Ottoman rule. The matter ended with peace between King Francis I and Emperor Charles V, when they signed the Treaty of Nice in 1538. As for Venice, the war between them and the Ottoman state continued, ending in late 1538 with Venice ceding Malvasia and Napoli di Romagna from Morea (the Peloponnese peninsula in southern Greece [14].

In regard to Austria, the fighting between them and the Ottomans lasted for a long time, with victory often on the side of the victorious Islamic soldiers. Finally, a peace agreement was reached between them, but correspondence continued until 1547 because they did not agree. French ambassador Gabriel Dramont sought to prevent reconciliation, hoping to renew relations between his country and the Ottoman state, but the death of Francis I in March 1547 helped complete the reconciliation. The matter was settled between them on June 19, 1547, with a five-year truce on the condition that Ferdinand - the King of Austria - pay an annual tribute of thirty thousand ducats for what remained under his control in Hungary, and that the Kingdom of Hungary remain under the rule of its last prince, John Zápolya, under the protection of his mother Isabella and the guardianship of the Ottoman state [14].

These European and international political variables led to the expansion of the Ottoman naval fleet and a change in its strategic plan from the coast of the Mediterranean Sea to the coast of the Red Sea, after tightening control over the coasts of the Mediterranean and the Spanish\* expansions therein. This conclusion is supported by the widening activity of the Ottoman fleet and the change in its expansionist strategy towards the Red Sea. The Ottomans seized Suakin and Massawa, expelling the Portuguese from those waters. In 1538, an Ottoman fleet sailed across the Red Sea and faced the Portuguese in the Battle Diu Naval\* near the coasts of Calicut, India. While the Ottoman fleet was defeated, this battle was a major factor in shaking the Portuguese sultanate's power in Asian seas. Additionally, the Ottomans took control of the coast of Abyssinia, which includes portions of the coasts of Eritrea and Somalia. This helped to restart trade via Muslim nations between Asia and Western Europe. In [17] Trade was redirected to land routes from Astana to Aleppo and Basra due to the Portuguese control over the Asian seas. Basra had become part of the Ottoman state, which contributed to the revitalization of the Ottoman economy, military, and naval power.

Among the external factors that affected the speed of Ottoman expansions on the Mediterranean coasts, we move to the most important internal variables of the Ottoman state policy that affected those successes. Sultan Suleiman was preoccupied with conflicts and strife among his family members, especially his sons, during his late reign. Most notably, his son Mustafa was causing chaos in Asia Minor, almost depriving the Ottoman army of its excellent cavalry divisions known as "Sipahi." This matter ended with Mustafa's killing in 1553 with the help of the Sultan's wife, Lady Hürrem, and the assistance of the Grand Vizier Rüstem Pasha. However, the internal strife did not end with the death of Mustafa. Conflict arose between Selim and Bayezid, Lady Hürrem's son, which ended with Bayezid's death in 1561. In

1566, Sultan Suleiman the Magnificent died after a reign filled with conquests and victories [18].

## 2. Conclusion

Several conclusions can be drawn from these variables, including:

Stricter control over Spanish expansions in the western Mediterranean was the primary goal of Ottoman power in various Mediterranean regions.

After the Ottoman Empire had established its dominance over the Spanish incursions in the region, these political factors on the European and global stages led to an extension of Ottoman naval operations and a modification of its strategic plan from the Mediterranean coast to the Red Sea. The increase in Ottoman naval activity and the modification of its expansionist policy toward the Red Sea lend credence to this conclusion.

Many of Europe's riches and naval might, particularly the Spanish fleet, were lost as a result of the continent's disintegration and loss of alliances. Additionally, it allowed the Ottoman navy, under the command of Kheir al-Din Barbarossa and later Turgut, to sail freely across the Mediterranean [19], [20] and [21].

Europe and the Ottoman Empire's policies regarding their expansions in the Mediterranean were greatly impacted by the Battle of Preveza. The outcome of the conflict signaled the Ottoman navy's full ascent in the eastern Mediterranean, a development that was uncontested until the Battle of Lepanto in 1571.

Additionally, it led to European political fragmentation, resulting in the loss of wealth and important commercial areas for Europe. The Ottoman Empire exploited these variables to its advantage in its expansionist strategy, whether in the Mediterranean or the Red Sea [22], [23] and [24].

The conflict during this period was not a clash between religions as many historians have described it as a struggle between Christianity and Islam. Rather, it was a struggle for international leadership, both within Europe itself and the East. Moreover, it was a competition for commercial interests. We have seen countries such as France and Venice signing peace treaties with the Muslim Ottoman Empire [25], [26] and [27]. France even allied with it and asked for its support in wars against Christian states like Spain. This alliance and conflict continued throughout the sixteenth century (\*). There was also a conflict within Europe between Spain and England, as seen in the Armada War (1585-1604), as well as a conflict between Spain and Portugal that ended with Spain's control over Portugal.

Additionally, there was the Spanish-French conflict. Therefore, this conflict was about power struggles, spheres of influence, and commercial interests, rather than ideological clashes. This conflict is closer to current international power struggles. One of the Ottoman Empire's mistakes was its eagerness to ally with France without considering allying with Venice, a Mediterranean commercial state, and a strong ally with similar ambitions and commercial interests in the Mediterranean basin [28] and [29]. Thus, Mediterranean countries must look into creating alliance opportunities within the basin instead of outside it, and we have the Ottomans as a perfect example.

The naval battle of Diu in 1509 did not receive the fame and attention it deserved. However, its direct and indirect military, economic, and geopolitical results played an undeniable role in shaping a new world with different balances from those witnessed in previous centuries. It turned the conflict into a naval one between the Mediterranean and the Red Sea and between different global powers.

## Conflict of interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict regarding the publication of this paper.

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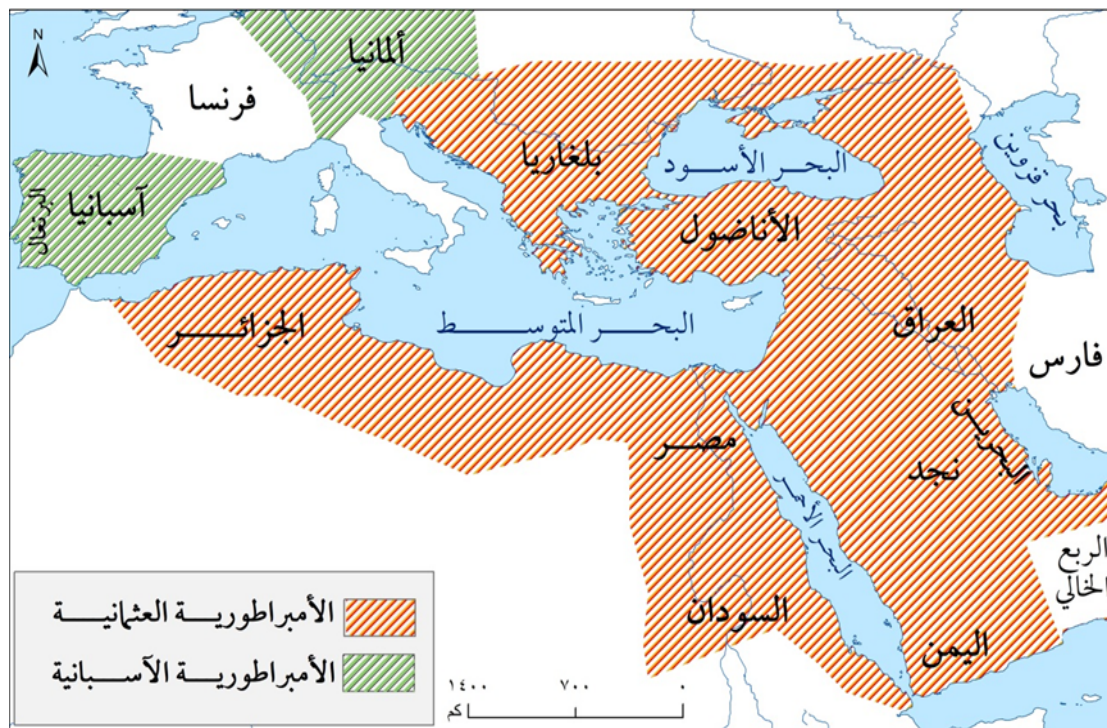
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## Appendices



Map (1): Map of Mediterranean Countries Geographically.



Map (2): Expansion of the Ottoman and Spanish Empires in the early 16th century.





Map (3) A picture showing the Mediterranean Sea almost closed on all sides.