

Ottoman Kırklareli
and its Hinterland in the 19th Century

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ABSTRACT

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The present study seeks to explore the economic position of Kırkkilise between 1801 and 1902. Connected to this, the importance of the region for Istanbul is questioned. The study is based on the Ottoman State Archives. It is divided into four chapters. Chapter one is an attempt to analyze the position of Kırkkilise that supplied Istanbul with coal and wood. Chapter two examines Samakocuk which was the iron processing center of the region. It also provides a general picture of Ottoman mining system. Chapter three examines viticulture. This section aims to investigate the significance of viticulture in the economy of Kırkkilise and its hinterland. In the last part, attempts at improving the trade of the region in the nineteenth century are discussed.

ÖZET

TEZİN TÜRKÇE ADI

Lale Uçan

Bu çalışma Kırkkilise ve hinterlandının 1801- 1902 yılları arasında ekonomik yapılanmasını ele almaktadır. Buna bağıntılı olarak bölgenin İstanbul için önemi üzerinde durulur. Çalışma ağırlıklı olarak Arşiv Belgelerine dayanmaktadır. Çalışma dört bölüme ayrılmıştır. Birinci bölümde, İstanbul'a odun- kömür sağlayan bölgenin analizi yapılır. İkinci bölüm de , Osmanlı madencilik sistemine bağlı olarak bölgenin demir üretim merkezi olan Samakocuk anlatılır. Üçüncü bölümde bağıcılığa ayrılır. Bölgedeki bağıcılığın Kırkkilise ve hinterlandı için önemi üzerinde durulur. Son kısım 19. yüzyılda bölgenin ticaretini geliştirme çabaları anlatılır.

To my family

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ABBREVIATIONS

- BOA. :Başbakanlık Osmanlı Arşivi
- BEO. :Bâb-1 Âli Evrak Odası
- A. DVN. MKL. :Sadâret Mektûbi Umum Vilayet
- A. MKT. :Sadâret Mektûbi Kalemi
- A. MKT.UM. :Sadâret Mektûbi Umûm Vilâyet
- AÜDİTCD. : Ankara Üniversitesi Dil Tarih Coğrafya Dergisi
- B. MMK. İGE: Bâb-1 Defteri Maden Mukâtaâsı İstanbul Gümrük Emni
- C. BAH. :Cevdet Bahriye
- C. BEL. : Cevdet Belediye
- C. DRB. :Cevdet Darphane
- C. İKTS. :Cevdet İktisat
- C. MAL :Cevdet Maliye
- DH. MUİ. : Dâhiliye Muhâberat-ı Umûmiye İdaresi Belgeleri
- DUİT. :Sadâret Evrakı Divân-ı Hümayûn Kalemi Dosya Usûlü Envanter
- DTOG. : Dersaadet Ticaret Odası Gazetesi
- HH.: Hatt-ı Hümayun
- İ. DH. : İrade Dâhiliye
- M HM. :Mühimme Defteri
- ML. : Mâliye Kısmı Mütferrik Defteri
- ML. MSF. : Masârifat Muhasebeciliği Defteri
- MV. : Meclis-i Vükelâ Mazbataları
- OMAM. : Orman Mekteb-i ‘Alisi Mecmûası

ŞD. HU. : Şûra-yı Devlet Husûsi

NGG. : Nezaret Gelip Giden Defteri

VGG : Vilâyet Gelip Giden Defteri

YA. RES . : Yıldız Sadâret

INTRODUCTION

Istanbul has been a center of attention in the course of historical development, particularly a center of consumption. Meeting the needs of Istanbul was the priority. It was among the priorities of the center to provision the crowded population of Istanbul. A wide hinterland had been developing for the provisioning of the capital. Certain regional organizations were formed within this hinterland.¹ Kırkkilise and its surroundings were among these. What was the importance of this region for Istanbul? Our aim is to understand the role of Kırkkilise and its environment within this structure.

Istanbul, the greatest city of the empire, was a center which had been processing and distributing raw materials. It exported more goods than it imported. The most important role of Istanbul within the empire was to serve as a market.² Therefore, the Ottoman administration had a provisioning policy to meet Istanbul's needs of food and raw material, to organize and supervise the transportation of goods to the city.³ For this purpose, regional organizations were formed in many parts of the empire. Provisioning Istanbul was crucial in supplying, on the one hand, the royal kitchen, kitchens of notables and military, and on the other, kitchens of the city population.⁴ The maintenance of food was not sufficient for this requirement. The

¹ Suraiya Faroqhi, "İstanbul'un İaşesi ve Tekirdağ Rodosçuk Limanı (16- 17 yy), " *ODTÜ Gelişme Dergisi Türkiye İktisat Tarihi Üzerine Araştırmalar*(1979-1980): 139.

² Robert Mantran, *17. Yüzyılın 2. Yarısında İstanbul 2*, trans. Mehmet Ali Kılıçbay and Enver Özcan (Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu, 1990), 80-81.

³ İlber Ortaylı, *Tarih Boyunca İstanbul Semineri 1*, ed. Mübahat Küçüköğlü (İstanbul: İstanbul Edebiyat Fakültesi Tarih Araştırmaları Enstitüsü, 1989): 63-65.

⁴ Faroqhi, "İstanbul'un İaşesi," 140.

arrival of the food supply to the city was an important stage in the act of provisioning. The destination and departure points of all vehicles was Istanbul. It is geographically at the intersection of the roads from the Balkans and Thrace and the maritime lines of the Black Sea and Marmara. Therefore, sea trade was more affective on the trade life of the capital than land trade. There were many ports on the shores of the Black Sea, Marmara and Aegean Seas. In general, there was a one-way traffic among these regions since the transportation of goods to provinces from Istanbul was rare and limited.⁵ At this point, it could be said that the food and raw material demands of Istanbul might have hindered the development of sea towns. In the regions which had the responsibility of meeting the needs of the fleet, the military and the palace, the means of urbanization were quite weak.⁶

The main principle of provisioning which was the essential principle of Ottoman economic policy was interventionism. In order to maintain this principle, the empire interfered in manufacturing and trade to increase the supply of goods, improve the quality and decrease the prices of goods. The agricultural products in which the interference and regulations were made on the highest level were consumed in the districts. Agricultural production first of all met the needs of these units. It was not allowed to bring the production out of a district unless the need of that district was met.⁷ The amount exceeding the need of the district was reserved for the needs of the military and the palace. And the amount left was dispatched to the

⁵ Mantran, İstanbul, 83.

⁶ Faroqhi, "İstanbul'un İaşesi," : 363.

⁷ Mehmet Genç, "19. yy da Osmanlı İktisadi Dünya Görüşünün Klasik Prensiplerindeki Değişmeler," *Divan* 6 (1991/1): 2.

center of the empire. After this gradual supply of the needs, the amount left was allowed to be sent to the cities and regions of the empire that were in need.⁸ The empire began to gradually give up provisioning as an economic policy in the 1840's and it was abandoned only after the 1860's.⁹ How did this process work for Kırkkilise and its hinterland? The provisioning of cities especially of Istanbul was the main priority of the empire's economic policy. Investigation of the historical development of provisioning in a certain region could shed light on the economic organization of the empire in small cities.

Geographically, Kırkkilise¹⁰ is the most hilly part of the Thrace. It was surrounded by Istranca Mountains in the north and Ergene plains in the south. Edirne, Kırkkilise, Pınarhisarı, and Vize route divides mountainous regions from plains. At the north of this route begins the mountainous region which is made up of Istranca Forests. The south of this route is plains and valleys.¹¹ Vize is located at the southeast foot of the Yıldız Mountain,¹² and Demirköy is surrounded by the Black Sea in the east, by Bulgaria in the north and by the Vize region in the south.¹³

To investigate the situation of Kırkkilise within this context of provisioning. First of all, I question to what extent Kırkkilise and its environment supplied Istanbul, be it palace or city population. What were the kinds of goods and the

⁸ Genç, *Osmanlı İmparatorluğunda Devlet ve Ekonomi* (Beyoğlu, İstanbul: Ötüken, 2000), 88.

⁹ Genç, "19.yy da Osmanlı İktisadi Dünya Görüşü," 6.

¹⁰ See appendix, map1, *Kırklareli İl Yıllığı* (Kırklareli:Kırklareli,1973), 45.

¹¹ Ahmet Korkut, *Serhat Şehri Kırkkilise* (İstanbul: Dizerkonca Matbaası, 1959), 8.

¹² *Kırklareli İl Yıllığı*, 1967, 171.

¹³ *Ibid.*, 167.

manner of organization transporting them to the capital? I have tried to investigate this inner structure which was formed in Kırkkilise and its hinterland.

The study is focused on Kırkkilise and Vize.¹⁴ But by revealing the governmental organization in the region, its capacity in provisioning the center could be better understood. In 1831, Kırkkilise and Vize appear as independent *livas*. In 1846-1847 these *livas* were included in the administrative jurisdiction of the province of Edirne. In 1854 they became districts (*sanjaks*). In 1867 Kırkkilise was a district within the central *sanjak* of Edirne, and Vize within another *sanjak* of the city, that is, Tekfurdağı. By the year 1867, we see Gümülcüne, Tekfurdağı, Dedeagaç, Gelibolu and Kırkkilise among central *sanjaks* of Edirne, the province. Six districts have constituted the *sanjak* of Kırkkilise, namely; Midye, Tırnova, Babaeski, Ahtabolu, Vize, Lüleburgaz.¹⁵

Various and huge demands by the janissaries who were employed in the Ottoman palace in Istanbul and by the city population deeply affected the agricultural production and even manufacturing in the surrounding regions of the empire which could easily be reached by the sea.¹⁶ The region which was in a way the courtyard of Istanbul transported its products there by sea. All these indicate that, the transportation expenses were relatively low from this region, and in addition, it was geographically a controllable area.

¹⁴ See appendix, map. 2, Edirne Vilayet Salnamesi, 1301/1883.

¹⁵ See “..Cumhuriyet döneminde bütün sancaklara vilayet adı verilince Kırkkilise de vilayet merkezi olur. O zamana kadar Kırkkilise olan adı 20 Aralık 1924 tarihinde 537 sayılı kanunla Kırklareli’ne çevrilir ..” *Yurt Ansiklopedisi*, 7th ed. , s. v. “Kırklareli.” İstanbul, Anadolu Yayıncılık A.Ş. , 1981: 4812.

¹⁶ Faroqhi “ İstanbul’un İaşesi, ” 139.

In the 19th century, an important change took place in interregional trade. European countries had fast developing industries and had big demands for raw materials and agricultural products. The products of Ottoman cities which were raw materials for manufacturing were directed to these foreign markets. At this point, it is necessary to look at whether this development has affected the position of the region in question for this study. In other words, did Kırkkilise and its hinterland continue to provision Istanbul in the nineteenth century when the empire had a more active trade? It is seen that the region continued to produce for the Istanbul market. However, one can also look at whether the region began to export any products? It appears that, on the local scale some changes in the destination of the products had occurred.¹⁷ Having these questions in mind I will try to put under scrutiny the economic organization of Kırkkilise and its environment on a micro scale.

One of the reasons for the choice of this region as the subject of my study is to understand the influence of small settlements on the Ottoman trade. Many studies have been carried out about the cities like Istanbul, Izmir, Selanik and Trabzon which were significant in terms of the history of Ottoman trade. Nevertheless studies on small settlements with a population of more or less than thousand are not sufficient. It would be useful to get information about economic and social structure of most parts of the empire to illustrate the social characteristics of the towns which were administrative centers of the districts.¹⁸ The fact that they were the main

¹⁷ Sevgi Aktüre, "Osmanlı Devletinde Taşra Kentlerindeki Değişmeler." *Tanzimattan Cumhuriyete Türkiye Ansiklopedisi*, 4 (1985): 891.

¹⁸ Tevfik Güran, *Osmanlı Tarımı üzerine Araştırmalar* (İstanbul: Eren, 1998), 12.

organizational units of the empire, and had a number of tens of thousands within the geographical boundaries of the empire contribute to the significance of the issue.

Lack of secondary literature on Kırkkilise highlights the importance of the archival sources but also is an obstacle to examining the subject. Nevertheless, this study has made use of both secondary literature and archival documents. The secondary literature deals mostly with the natural sources in the region which were iron, forest and grape.

We see that the mine issue, which is the subject of the second chapter of thesis, has been neglected in the literature. The mines of the empire which were among the main sources of income have been neglected as a subject matter. For instance, even today we do not have definite information about the mine sources of the empire. Likewise, the methods of manufacturing and the administration of these mines are not yet clear. Among the few studies on mining in the empire one can mention the one by Ahmet Refik.¹⁹ Within this study, 73 documents from the *Divan-ı Hümayun Mühimme defters* (registers of important affairs) belonging to the years 1559-1785 have been transcribed. Another work is Robert Anhegger's three volumes study called *Beitrage zur Geschichte des Bergbaus im Osmanischen Reich*. In this study mines in the European part of the empire that were in use until the 18th century were illustrated.²⁰ Roads Murphy²¹ and Charles Issawi²² had also studied mining in

¹⁹ Ahmet Refik, *Osmanlı Devrinde Türkiye Madenleri 967-1200* (İstanbul: Devlet Matbası, 1931).

²⁰ Robert Anhegger, *Beitrage Zur Geschichte des Bergbaus im Osmanischen Reich*, 1 Europaische Türkei, Bd 1 (İst:1943), p. 200 – 210.

²¹ *The Encyclopedia of Islam*, 5th ed., s. v. "Mineral Exploitation in the Ottoman Empire." Leiden, Brill, 1995.

²² Charles Issawi, *The Economic History of Turkey 1800- 1914* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1980), p. 210-218.

the empire. Fahrettin Tızlak's study called *Keban-Ergani Yöresinde Madencilik*²³ makes use of archival sources, mostly *sicils* (court records) and interprets them. Mines of Keban- Ergani have been shown in detail. Policies of the state pertaining to the mining, processing and distribution of mines, and relationships between the center and the mining regions are explained.

There also exist studies dealing with forests within a general framework and laws related to their administration. Halil Kutluk, in his work called *Türkiye Ormancılığı ile ilgili Tarihi Vesikalar*, illustrates historical documents without interpretation.²⁴ Other studies dealing with the same issue with similar perspectives are; Çağlar Yücel's *Türkiye Ormanları ve Ormancılık*,²⁵ Dr. Ing. Ali Kemal's *Türkiye'de Ormancılığın Temeli, Şartları ve Kuruluşu*,²⁶ Franz Heske's *Türkiye de Orman ve Ormancılık*.²⁷ There are also articles on the issue. Salih Aynural's article

²³ Fahrettin Tızlak, *Osmanlı Devletinde Keban-Ergani Yöresinde Madencilik 1775-1850*(Ankara:Türk Tarih Kurumu,1997).

²⁴ Halil Kutluk, *Türkiye Ormancılığı İle İlgili Tarihi Vesikalar 1202-1341*(Ankara: Tarım Bakanlığı Orman Genel Müdürlüğü, 1967).

²⁵ Çağlar Yücel, *Türkiye Ormanları ve Ormancılık* (İstanbul:İletişim Yayınları,1992).

²⁶ Ali Kemal, *Türkiye de Ormancılığın Temel Şartları ve Kuruluşu* (Ankara: Türkiye Ziraat Enstitüsü, 1936).

²⁷ Franz Heske, *Türkiye de Orman ve Ormancılık* (İstanbul: Hüsni tabiat, 1952).

“17. yyda İstanbul’un Odun ve Kömür İhtiyacının Karşılanması” is quite relative to our study since it deals with the issue of provisioning the center in the 17th century as far as wood and coal were concerned. It demonstrates which regions met the needs of İstanbul and the manner of transportation by using archival sources. Some scholars deal with viticulture in the region. Ali Rıza Dursunkaya gives information about the development of viticulture in Kırklareli.²⁸ Among other studies on the same issue are the works of Ahmet Korkut,²⁹ Nazif Karaçam³⁰ and Osman Yalçın.³¹ In these books, we see information about the administrative structure, production and geography of the region particularly during the second half of the 20th century. There are also some data about grape harvesting in the 19th century in the work of Ali Rıza Dursunkaya .

This present study is composed of four parts. The position of Kırkkilise and its hinterland in the 19th century is studied within the so far discussed context under the following titles: forests, iron, viticulture and activities for the development of trade in the region. The system of provisioning and its aim is illustrated for the case of Kırklareli.

In the first part, position of Kırkkilise and its hinterland is studied in relation to other regions which supplied İstanbul with coal and wood. Administrations of the *Tersane-i Amire* and *Tophane-i Amire* which buy timber from the region, their way of purchasing, and the problems they had with the producers are

²⁸ Ali Rıza Dursunkaya, *Kırklareli 1* (Kırklareli: Yeşilyurt Basımevi, 1948).

²⁹ Ahmet Korkut, *Serhat Şehri Kırklareli* (İstanbul: Dizerkonca, 1956).

³⁰ Nazif Karaçam, *Bütün Yönleri ile Kırklareli ve İlçeleri* (İstanbul: Yaylacık, 1970).

³¹ Osman Yalçın, *Kırklareli* (İstanbul: Özyürek, 1960).

demonstrated. After putting forward the reasons for destruction of the forests in the region, the situation in Kırkkilise and its environment as far as forests were concerned is explained. In addition, the technical formation (ovens used and the methods of burning) of the charcoal which was sent to Istanbul is illustrated. At the end of the first part, ways of selling fuels, transportation of products, the ports and machines used for transportation are explained.

In the second part, Samakocuk, which is the iron processing center of the region, is explained. After a general discussion of the mining system in the Ottoman Empire the organization (which was established in Samakocuk) is illustrated. Then, the position of Ahbolu and Aydos which have provisioned Samakocuk are dealt with in this part. The exploration and management of the mines, types and amount of mines processed, and the influence of the seasons on processing are also looked at. The workforce, types of materials that were used and the problems faced with in terms of labour are dealt with. At the end of the second part, the reasons for the decline in the amount of processed mine are discussed.

The third part of the study is about viticulture. The location of vineyards in the region and the amount of yield are explained. The activities of vintage are also illustrated. Problems of the grape growers and reasons for the decline in grape growing are also among the subjects dealt with in this part.

In the last part, attempts at improving the trade of the region in the nineteenth century are mentioned. Introduction of foreign capital to the region, conditions of the mine agreement signed with the British Empire are explained. At the end of this part, attempts to prevent the processing of mines by the Ottoman administration are illustrated.

The main source of this study is archival documents. The Şura-yı Devlet catalogues were useful for the aspect of following events. After that the Cevdet classification was the most useful source for this study.

Cevdet Tasnifi: This classification includes the catalogues concerning structural units of the empire. The catalogues numbered 65-114 are about jurisdiction, military systems, naval systems, municipality, interior and exterior affairs, the imperial mint, administration of pious foundations, economy, education, finance, the administration of public works (*nafia*). Among these, the most useful catalogues are that of the imperial mint, finance, economy, interior affairs, and the military system.

İrade Katalogları: Out of 54 catalogues belonging to the period of 1255-1309 (1839-1891), twelve which date from 1262-1273 (1845-1856) were scanned.

Hatt-ı Hümayun: 32 of the catalogues belonging to the period of 1125-1273 (1713-1856) which includes the handwriting of the Sultan were scanned.

Baş Muhasebe Kalemi: These are the most important *defters* concerning the Ottoman financial administration. The catalogues numbered 596-601 (1480-1853) were looked at.

Bab-ı Ali Evrak Odası Sadaret Evrakı Mektubi Kalemi, Mühimme, Deavi, Divan-ı Hümayun Kalemi, and Umum Vilayet catalogues which are included in the *Bab-ı Ali Evrak Odası Catalogue* were scanned.

Şura-yı Devlet Catalogue: These were catalogues sent from *Sadaret* to *Şurayı Devlet* giving information pertaining to cities. The ones numbered 848-851 were scanned. The catalogues belonging to the period of 1285-1327 (1868-1909) are scanned.

Bab-ı Ali Evrak Odası Nezaret Gelen- Giden Defteri Katologu: It is inclusive of the documents sent to and coming from state offices. The catalogues of naval

administration numbered 30-51, of the interior affairs numbered 52-122, of forests and mines numbered 564-570, 1289-1336 (1872-1917), of *Tophane* numbered 641-649, 1290-1325 (1873-1907) were looked at.

Vilayet Gelen- Giden Defterleri: These are independent catalogues related to cities. The numbered 479-483, 1291-1327(1874-1909) and 475-483, 1321-1327 (1903-1906) looked at.

Ayniyat Defteri: These *defters* include documents called *tezkires* sent from the *Sadaret Dairesi* to other state offices and cities. *Edirne Ayniyat Defteri* bearing the number 819-820-821, and *defters* belonging to naval administration dating from 986-993 and from 1213-1220 (1798-1805) are also looked at. The catalogues of *Dahiliye*, *Ticaret*, *Nafia* numbered 1594-1597 (1884-1890), and *Bahriye* numbered 1585 (1884-1889) were looked at.

Maden Mukataası kalemine Bağlı Birimlere ait Defterler: This was one of the offices of the Finance ministry. The catalogues of *İstanbul Gümrük Emni* numbered 622 was examined .

Meclis-i Vükela Mazbataları: Out of the catalogues inclusive of decrees on interior and exterior affairs of the empire issued by a committee composed of *şeyhülislam* and ministers and headed by *Sadrizam*, the ones numbered 948-954, 1298-1341 (1880-1922) were looked at.

Dosya Usulü İradeler: *İrades* are classified not according to the ministries and offices they were belonging but according to the subject.

Mühimme Defterleri (Registers of Important Affairs): The numbered 240 was scanned.

In addition, *Salnames* (Yearbooks) of Edirne belonging to the years 1870, 1872, 1874, 1884, 1886, 1888, 1891 are scanned.

Orman Mekteb-i Alisi Mecmuası: A magazine in Ottoman Turkish which dealt with technical and economic aspects of forests, and also with education. It was published irregularly and reached ten issues.

Dersaadet Ticaret Odası Gazetesi: It is a journal in Ottoman Turkish. A regular classification of it has not been done yet. About our subject the issues dated 1302-1317 /1884-1899 are looked at.

CHAPTER ONE

FORESTRY

In this chapter I will mainly focus on the place of the forest products that were one of the main sources of income for Kırkkilise and its hinterland in the economic and social structure of the region. In particular, I will consider, after the Tanzimat, where the forest products were sent which roads were followed and what kind of procedure was followed by the institutions that bought these products. Moreover, there will be information about forest laborers. In the last section, we will deal with the issue of the point of view of the state relating to the existence of the forests in Kırkkilise and its hinterland and to the region at the end of the 19th century.

It was important for the center to meet the necessities of the inhabitants of Istanbul. The need for wood and coal to burn for heating purposes was also included in this task. The charcoal and firewood needs of Istanbul were provided by regions that were close to the capital city. In particular, Şile, Kandıra, Şeyhler, Taşköprü, Midye, Terkos, İstiranca, Çatalca and Silivri were the main centers ³² for providing firewood and charcoal.³³ Kırkkilise and its hinterland had tremendous potential for these needs. Especially on the Rumeli shore of the Black Sea there were all kind of trees in Midye, Saray and Vize. In Kırkkilise and its hinterland, there was an imperial grove where oaks and hornbeams constituted the majority of trees.³⁴

³² See appendix, map. 3, P. M. Bijişkyan, *Karadeniz Kıyıları Tarih ve Coğrafyası* (1817-1819), trans. Hrand D. Andreasyan (İstanbul: İstanbul Edebiyat Fakültesi Basımevi, 1969), p. 137.

³³ Salih Aynural, "18. yy da İstanbul'un Odun Kömür İhtiyacının Karşıllanması." *Osmanlı Ansiklopedisi* 5 (1999): 229.

³⁴ Edirne Vilayet Salnamesi, 1287/1870, 167.

A- REGIONS THAT MET THE FUEL NEED OF ISTANBUL

One of the important needs of Istanbul was that of fuel, that is firewood and charcoal. These were provided by the closest regions. In particular , forested areas of the eastern and western coasts of the Black Sea were potential areas. Kırkkilise and its hinterland were also included in this area. When we classify these regions into groups, we see a picture as follows: areas in the first group located in the region from Amasra to Kandıra, the second group of area located along the coastline that extends from Ahtabolu to the exterior of the Bosphorus, and lastly, the area which extends from Şile to Körfez was assigned for the needs of fuel.³⁵ The areas that provided fuel to Istanbul were separated as firewood areas and charcoal areas.

1- **Areas that provided firewood:** Firewood for baths constituted one forth of the wood that was sent from firewood areas. It was prepared by cutting hornbeam and beach trees in 60-300 cm diameters. These trees generally grew on the slopes of spacious valleys. Forests around Sakarya, and Alablı were the potential regions for this type of cuttings. They were not so thick as other types of wood like kitchen wood, bakery wood and stove wood that were cut from oak, hornbeam and *dişbudak* which were in 30-40 cm in diameter. For this type of firewood the forests around Kandıra were suitable.³⁶

2-**Areas of Charcoal:** Forests that met the needs of charcoal for Istanbul were divided into three groups: Forests that belonged to individuals, state-owned

³⁵ "Mahrukat Meselesi." *Orman Mekteb-i Alisi Mecmuası* 8-9 (1914): 226.

³⁶ Ibid. , 227.

mirî (belonging to the state) coalbins that were located in villages and coalbins that were located in and used by two or more villages.

Forests that belonged to individuals were the forests in the Rumelian coast of the Black Sea and in Şile and Beykoz. The owners of these forests did not meet with a problem in the production as they protected these areas well and used appropriate methods of cutting. But, as these first regions were located in the coastal areas of the Black Sea because of both topographic structure and climate, the owners encountered some difficulties in the transportation of these products. Second type the, state-owned coalbins were located in a village and used as a kind of a *baltalık*³⁷ a grove or a forest that was assigned to meet the fuel need of a certain town or a village. Strangers from other villages were not allowed to come and use this coal. Only the inhabitants could use this coal. The other type of coalbins which were commonly used by two or more villages, were destroyed more than other types of coalbin areas mentioned above. The reason could be that as these areas were used commonly, they could not be protected effectively.³⁸

Forest areas in the region were separated into certain parts, for example: Midye, the first part of state-owned forest; Ayatodori, second part of forest; and forests of first and second parts of Büyük Eğrigöz in Midye Forest.³⁹ The amount of authorized charcoal production in these forests and their prices were determined annually. There were records where the number of the contract or the license, the

³⁷ *baltalık* : A district within which the inhabitants of a village had the right to cut fire wood.

³⁸ " Odunluk ve Kömürlük Mevkileri, " OMAM 8-9: 229.

³⁹ BOA. , ŞD. EDİRNE, 1939/22, (34); (51), (H. 1320, M. 1902).

date and names of tax-farmers or owners of license were registered. The aim of this system was to provide continuous production without a breakdown.

3-Control of Fuel Areas

To protect forests which was one of the sources of income of the region was another important issue. As forest products that were sent from the region were used especially in military facilities, it became more important to protect the area. Forests were under the control of forest guardians who could be either cavalry or infantry. Forest guardians were generally selected out of people who worked in the army. They resided around the forest that they protected. The cavalry forest guardian was responsible for an area of 8,000 *dönüms* and he worked with at least two infantry forest guardian. The area for the charcoal production was determined by infantry forest guardians. Both cut trees and charcoal could not be taken from their places and sent to other places without the permission of cavalry forest guardian. Cuttings that exceeded these amounts could be possible only with the permission of the Sublime Porte. If a person wanted to take charcoal or firewood and timber that was more than one carriage out of the village that had a state-owned forest, he had to inform the forest guardian. He would take a document called *şehadetname* (a testimonial) indicating that he was permitted guardian.⁴⁰

⁴⁰ BOA. , *İRÂDE DAHİLİYE* 33929, B-9, (H.1278-M.1861).

4- Institutions that Bought Timber from the region: *Tersane-i Amire* and *Tophane-i Amire*

a- *Methods of Buying the Products and Related Problems*

When we evaluate the policy of these two institutions in the region and their methods of working such a picture emerges: As Kırkkilise and its hinterland were among the regions that met the timber needs of the *Tersane* and *Tophane*, there was a network of relations between these administrations and the region. Forest areas that were reserved for these administrations took a great place in the region. Therefore, these administrations tried to control the protection of the area and transportation of timber.

They took the necessary timber from the region in three main stages. In the first stage both *Tersane* and *Tophane* administrations informed the provinces and sanjaks about the amount, the number and the bulk of timber that they needed a year before . There was no problem for this stage.

In the second stage, officials were sent to the region to control the trees. After cutting, trees were sent to Istanbul for the *Tersane* and *Tophane* administrations. Firstly, the type, the bulk and the order number of the acceptable trees were recorded, then the same procedure was applied to the unacceptable trees. Necessary trees were selected by the officials of the Forest Administration, the *Tersane* and *Tophane* and then they were stamped and numbered according to the office that they were related to .⁴¹ Officials had a right to separate rotten or useless trees. Even these useless trees were left in the forest to sell to some other places. For instance, in one case, it was

⁴¹ BOA. , *AMKT 110/16*, (H. 1264, M. 1847).

found that the size of the cut 1180 timber that was necessary for the *Tersane-i Amire* was found unsuitable, but as they were brought to the ports with a labor force and money it was decided not to leave the villagers in difficulty and to pay them the expenditures of cutting and transportation that had been agreed previously, in other words, the amount was not deducted. People were admonished to be more careful from then on.⁴² Therefore, we see that the commission decided in favor of the producers. By using unsuitable cuts in some other fields, the producers were not left in a difficult situation.

The third stage was to determine the prices and to establish committees that involved in the process of price determining when it was necessary. The worth of the accepted trees was determined according to their bulk and in comparison to other timber brought to the ports. The amount of the submitted trees was paid out of the budgets of the *Tersane*, *Tophane* and the Forest Administration. Trees that had some problems in their worth were evaluated by a committee that was established by the Forest Administration and the *Tersane* and *Tophane* Administrations.⁴³ In the building of *kalyon* a war ship with both sails and oars or *fırkateyn*⁴⁴ timber that was cut inappropriately was used. In this case, an official was sent to the region to distinguish the use of different types of timber in different types of vehicles.⁴⁵

⁴² See "... 1780 kıta kerestenin ekserisi câb ve endâzesine tevafuk etmemiş ise de bunlar mezkûr keresteyi emek ve akçe sarfıyla iskelelere indirilmiş olmalarına mebnî hangi sefine kerestesinin câb ve endâzesine tevafuk eder ise ahaliye gadr-ü vukûa gelmeyecek sûrette icab eden ücret-i katiyyesinin ve nakliyyesinin evvel fiyat ile mahalleri emvâline verilüb..." BOA. , C. BAH. 10271, (H.1274, M. 1847).

⁴³ "Tersane ve Tophane-i Amire İdarelerine Muktezi Kereste Tedârik ve İtası Hakkında Nizâmname." *Takvim-i Vekâyi*, 2 Muharrem 1287 / 3 Mart 1870, sec. 1207, p. 1-2.

⁴⁴ *fırkateyn* : Referring to the two tiers of guns.

⁴⁵ BOA, C.BAH. 1027, (H. 1274, M.1857).

Sometimes these aroused some problems in deciding cuts, in the areas where inappropriate cuts could be used, and the amount of money for these cuttings. Committees were established to solve such problems.

5- The Destruction of Forests

The reasons for forest destruction in the region could be either the attitude of the state officials, or the settlement of immigrants .

a- The Attitude of State Officials

We see that government officials played an important role in the destruction of forests. These officers worked for the government, but acted to protect their own interests. They allowed illegal tree cutting in the forest without permission. Some groves in the region belonged to individuals. Sometimes without the permission of the owners of these groves, trees were cut down. And by selling the individually-owned groves to some other people, state officials gained unjust money, as in the case of a certain Numan whose property was sold by forest officials.⁴⁶ Moreover, by arranging fake deeds, the areas that were not groves could be shown like groves. These activities were disturbing peasants who were engaging in the production of charcoal and firewood.

Also, it was allow to cut wood and transport coal from mountains that were known as *cibal-i mübaha* (a mountain that everyone could benefit from), hence, no one could claim the ownership of these mountains. And also there was no need to pay a tax. In spite of this, people who worked in charcoal production sometimes met with unjust intervention of the influential state officials. As some of these illegal acts

⁴⁶ See "... Midye kazsının Hamidiye karyesinde Numanın ba sened-i hâkane-i uhde-i tasarrufunda bulunan Ayatodori namındaki baltalığın orman me'murları tarafından mîri malı adıyla cebren bi'l-müzâyede fîrûhatına teşebbüs olunması..." BOA. , *ŞD. EDİRNE*, 1933/7, (H. 1319, M. 1900).

were carried out by state officials, the matter took a different dimension that could be interpreted as the indication of the weakness of government control.⁴⁷ Thus, unjust gains of these officials led to complaints. These prepared a suitable ground for the destruction of forests.

b- The Settlement of Immigrants

It is known that in the 19th century, many people migrated to the Ottoman Empire from the Balkans, Crimea and Caucasia because of various reasons.⁴⁸ Of course, although cultural atmosphere was similar, it was very difficult for immigrants to leave their own environment and to come to a different world of production and climate and this sometimes caused some problems. First of all, to meet with different conditions on land, in the type of the production and technical tools caused them to experience difficulties in the process of adapting to the new environment. Particularly, methods and the type of the production of the immigrants in their homelands were completely different from their new environment.⁴⁹ So, these issues could easily be come reasons for conflict between local people and immigrants.

⁴⁷ See "... Asitâne-i seâdetümde kâin kömürcü tâifesi gelüp bunlar Istranca dağında kat ve hark itdükleri kömürü arabalara tahmîl ve Silivri nâhiyesin de Papaslı iskelesine indirüb anda kayıklara vaz ve def-i müzâyaka-i ibadullah içün Asitane-i se'âdetümde mahzenlerine nakl ve fûrûhat eyledükleri kömürden kimesne tarafından hilaf-ı şeru kânunen akçe mutâlebesiyle rencide olunmaları iktiza etmez iken mahall-i mezkûra çeken kömür arabalarından Yenice karyesinin subaşı ve Çeltükçi Çiftliği kethüdaları sizler bizim topraklarımızdan mürûr-u ubur itmeğe öküzlünüz sulanup ve otladursunuz sizden ayak basdı ve sulak akçesi aluruz diyü teaddi vü rencide itmeleriyle mukaddema hilaf-ı şeri şerîf te'addileri men-'i ekid ile men-'i def alınmak içün yedlerine yüzellidokuz tarihiyle müverrah emr-i ali ita ve o'l vakitten berü kimesne tarafında kömür arabalarından akçe mutâlebesiyle rencide olunmayub asude-i hal üzre arabalar mürûr-u ubur iderler iken ..." Ahmet Tabakoğlu et al. , eds. , *İstanbul Ticaret Tarihi*, (İstanbul : İstanbul Büyükşehir Belediyesi Kültür Daire Başkanlığı, (1997), hüküm nu: 689: 159.

⁴⁸ Donald Quataert , *An Economic and Social History of the Ottoman Empire 1300-1914*, ed. Halil İnalcık and Donald Quataert (Cambridge; NewYork: Cambridge University Press, 1997), 793.

⁴⁹ Faruk Kocacık, " Balkanlardan Anadolu ya Yönelik Göçler 1878-1890, " *Osmanlı Araştırmaları* 1(1980): 177-186.

Immigrants who were settled in the Vesilikoş grove of the *kaza* of Midye wanted to engage in agriculture and animal husbandry in the 19th century. This affected negatively the local people who worked in the forest, as they made their living by cutting trees and sending them to Istanbul. By opening agricultural lands and grazing their animals, immigrants caused a great damage and the amount of the damage was determined as 50,000 *kuruş*.⁵⁰ Again, immigrants were settled in the Ayaspaşa area of Kırkilise sanjak of the province of Edirne. Beside damaging the forests by grazing animals, it became a problem for peasants who made their living in this area. Yet, the immigrants were allowed to graze their animals in a determined area by paying pasture prize without violating other parts.⁵¹

Lack of organization in the settlement of immigrants, the abuse of privileges that were given to immigrants and the use of forests without permission by immigrants were great problems for forests in the region. As the region was on the migration route, this destruction was rather serious. As a result, one of the chains of the forest destruction was the settlement of immigrants.

Having dealt with the forest in the region in terms of their topographic distribution, control by the center, and the factors that caused their destruction, now I will study the products that were obtained from these forests.

⁵⁰ See "... muhâcirinin kat' eyledikleri kereste ve hatbın ve mezzûrâtın telefâtından 50.000 gurûşa müteceviz zararı olduğundan" BOA. , *YA. RES. 1910/71*, (H. 1300, M. 1882).

⁵¹ See "... hayvanları içün tayin olunacak dâireye tecâvüz etmemek şartıyla münâsib miktar mera' ücreti i ' ta eylemeleri ve badema hükümetçe kurra-yı mezkûraya muhacir gönderilmeyüb gideceklerden bi'l ihrâc halî haricin muhafazası ..." BOA. , *YA. RES. 105/51*, (H.1315, M. 1897).

B- FOREST PRODUCTS

1- The Amount of the Product

Among the regions that had to send fuel to Istanbul, İzmit and its surroundings were very important. When we compare the production in Kırkkilise and its hinterland for the year 1313/1895 and for previous years, we realize that their share was not so big. While Midye and Ahtabolu were sending 30,000 *çeki*/6.773.94 kg, 200,000 *çeki*/45.159.600 kg. were coming from Alablı, Filyos and Amasra and 30,000 *çeki*/6.773.94 kg. from Gemlik, Mihaliç and Kapıdağ, 50,000 *çeki*/11.289.9 kg. from Karabiga, Kemer and İzmit and lastly the Black Sea and Körfez ports were sending 350,000 *çeki*. For coal, 30 million *kıyye*/38.4 kg⁵² was coming to Istanbul from Ahtabolu, Midye, Çatalca and Çorlu, 28 million *kıyye*/35.840.000 kg. from the sanjak of Iznik and, 15 million *kıyye*/19.200.000 kg. from Salonica and remaining 2 million *kıyye*/2.560.000kg. was sent systematically from Gemlik and Biga.⁵³

In 1315/1899, the sending of 625,200 *kıyye*/800.256 kg. was demanded immediately from ports of Midye, Ayapolis and Panayır and 665,000 *kıyye*/851.2 kg. from ports of İyneada, Karaağaç port, hence 1 million 312,200 *kıyye*/1.679616 kg. coal from the region.⁵⁴ Again, in 1315, 106,250 *kıyye*/136 kg. coal from İyneada and 70,000 *kıyye*/89.600 kg. coal from Midye⁵⁵; 102,000 *kıyye*/130.56 kg. coal from Midye and 97,250 *kıyye*/124.48 kg. coal from İyneada was sent to Istanbul.⁵⁶ As a

⁵² *kıyye* : The Ottoman weight of four hundred dirhems. (1 *kıyye*: 1.28 kg.).

⁵³ OMAM. , 7-8: 199-200.

⁵⁴ BEO. , *Edirne Vilayet Gelen- Giden Defteri* 565/157, (H.1315, M. 1897).

⁵⁵ Ibid. , 565/168 (H. 1315, M. 1897).

⁵⁶ Ibid. , 565/169 (H. 1315, M. 1897).

result, Kırkkilise and its hinterland was a region that continuously sent firewood and coal to meet the fuel needs of Istanbul.

2- The Establishment of Furnaces and the Method of Burning

Peasants who worked in a forest mostly engaged in cutting trees and producing charcoal. Charcoal was in demand. After cutting from mountains and groves, woods were burnt in coal furnaces called *torlak* and it became charcoal. At the first stage, the important thing was to decide the suitable areas in order to establish furnaces.⁵⁷

This was important for the peasants of the region. And for charcoal, certain areas were assigned in the forests. For instance, the charcoal areas in the Menupesto Forest of the region were Halkalıbayır, İstavroz, Evranoz and Demircitarlası. There were totally 218 *torlak* areas.⁵⁸ The region that was located near to the road on which water and firewood was carried through was especially chosen to provide the organization in the work. Windy areas were not suitable for this work due to the risk of the spread of fire. Soil had to be neither too hard nor too soft because of the fact that if on hard soil water would remain on the surface while firewood was burning. As a result coal that remained on the ground would be unrefined. And if soil was too soft, then the coal could turn to ash, as the fire would be burning excessively.

⁵⁷ See appendix, *OMAM*, 10: 278.

⁵⁸ BOA. , ŞD. EDİRNE, 1939/22, (H.1320 , M.1902).

After the determining of the place, furnaces were established. Then, it was determined which type of wood would be burnt in which furnace, as firewood was burnt in two types of furnaces. The first type were furnaces that burnt from the top and the second type were furnaces that were burnt from the bottom. Charcoal was provided by establishing technically different types of established furnaces: To use furnaces that burnt from the top, several holes were opened 0.3 m. distance from each other. With the aid of the channel that was opened on the top of the furnace, bushes that were put around the column at the center were burnt. The fire was effective to about 0.4 or 0.5 m. below the furnace. Due to this reason, the channel was covered with grassy soil. After igniting the furnace, the hearth over the column was kept closed for 5-6 hours. Then, by opening slowly, wood pieces were out to the places that remained empty after burning. Until it became charcoal, the process was repeated at first twice in 24 hours then once. The resin odor that was coming out of holes that were opened on the top of the furnace and the decrease and then the disappearance of the blue-colored fumes were the signs of transformation into charcoal. After that the holes were completely closed. In the deep furnace, fire diffused and other holes opened in time, because it was not enough only to close holes in the time of a storm or in hot weather. By using dust and soil the effect of furnaces was reduced. The complete collapse of the ruddy furnace was a sign that the coal had burnt well. Soil over the furnace would be opened by using rakes. After taking some coal, it was closed again.⁵⁹

⁵⁹ OMAM. , 10: 282.

Furnaces, which burnt from the bottom, were burnt from the hole and bushes were put around it. As fire leapt towards the center, white fumes coming out the furnace would become black. This was the sign of the start of burning. At the same time, holes over the furnace were covered with several tools. To burn firewood, hard trees were selected. The quality of coal that was produced from hard trees was higher than coal that was produced from soft trees. On the other hand, because burning a hard type of tree needed a lot of time, it sometimes created problems. The most practical way was to burn different types of trees in different furnaces.⁶⁰

⁶⁰ Ibid. : 283.

C- PEOPLE WHO WORKED IN CHARCOAL PRODUCTION

In the region people worked in firewood and charcoal production. So, many peasants who inhabited the villages around this region made their living by selling wood and charcoal to the capital city. People who worked in the production of charcoal could be categorized as woodcutters (*baltacılar*), and heads of charcoal *kömürcübaşı*.

Among woodcutters, who migrated here from the other parts of the Empire as temporary workers, seasonal workers and temporary inhabitants. So, there were many people who were seeking jobs in agriculture by wandering around some of the regions of the Empire.⁶¹ Our knowledge about the direction and the density of movements of seasonal laborers is very limited. It is known that the need of laborers for the agricultural areas of Rumelia, Silistre and Edirne was met around Tırnova, Niş and Şehirköy. But, they were not sufficient. To find the necessary laborers for the regions where agriculture was prevalent, sometimes administrative measures had to be taken.⁶²

Laborers met their needs for forests around Kırkkilise and its hinterland.⁶³

They could possibly be laborers who undertook the job of woodcutters⁶⁴ and they

⁶¹ Kasaba, "Batı Anadolu da Göçmen Emeği," *Osmanlıda Toprak Mülkiyeti ve Ticari Tarım* (1988): 119-120.

⁶² Güran, 67.

⁶³ See "... öteden beri Uzunca Abad ,Hasköy ve Filibe ve Tatarbazarı re ' ayaları gelüp Istranca dağlarından odun kat ' ve kömür hark ile kurra-i merkûma iskelelerine nakl ve iskelelerden dahi peyderpey kayıklarla tahmîl vaktü zamanıyla Asitane-i ' aliyyeye nakl olunarak..." BOA. , C. BAH. 1570, (H. 1205, M. 1790).

⁶⁴ Hasan Yüksel , *Osmanlı Döneminde Keban –Ergani Madenleri: 1776-1794 tarihli Maden Emini Defteri* (Sivas: Dilek Matbaası, 1997): 43-49.

were called after *baltacılar taifesi*.⁶⁵ Although their main job was to cut trees, they also carried firewood from the forests to the port by *bargirs*,⁶⁶ carriages and mules. And they paid taxes for the transported wood per *bargir*, carriage and mule under the names of *balta hakkı* and *kazılma*. Moreover, they also burnt produced charcoal and transported it to ports.⁶⁷

Local people could also be woodcutters. But, in some regions, woodcutters who came from outside were seen more valuable than local woodcutters as their performance was found insufficient.⁶⁸ Yet, these outsiders could only work with the person who brought them. The arrival of woodcutters from outside led to an increase in the variety of jobs. At the same time, the region was a ready potential area for woodcutters.

Particularly, during the time of fuel scarcity in Istanbul, woodcutters were found immediately. Woodcutters who came from outside were sent to necessary areas. In this period, taxes per *bargir*, mule and carriage were not demanded from woodcutters. Forest overseers and grove guardians were ordered not to make things difficult for them.⁶⁹

Firewood and charcoal that were carried from mountains and groves to ports were transported here by carriages or animals. It was forbidden for a carriage that

⁶⁵ BOA. , C. BAH. 1570, (H. 1205, M. 1790).

⁶⁶ *bargir*: That takes a load or burden.

⁶⁷ See "... baltacılar her an yerlerinden ve yurtlarından bargir, katır ve arabalarla mevâd-ı mezkûra sevk ve irsal olunmak üzere lâzım gelen mahallerde bu def'a mahsûs-u imrar-ı 'aliyyem tasdîr ve baltacı tâ'ifesinin balta hakkı ve kazılma ve bargir ve katır ve arabalar başına vesâ'ir virgû mutâlebesiyle..." BOA. , MHM, 240/968, 1238/1822, p. 258.

⁶⁸ Yüksel, 43-44.

⁶⁹ BOA. , MHM, 240/960, p. 255.

carried charcoal to transport firewood and vice versa except for vital situations.⁷⁰ Some of these carriages and animals were the property of the peasants who engaged in transportation, others belonged to captains and people who engaged in the firewood and coal trade in Istanbul.⁷¹ Moreover, some of the woodcutters could also have carriages and animals.⁷² Therefore, we can say that woodcutters were the main figures in the organization of providing fuel to Istanbul, as they engaged in woodcutting, charcoal burning and transportation.

The head of coal production *közürcübaşı* was the person who was responsible for the burning of charcoal and controlling the laborers.⁷³ Moreover, among the responsibilities of the *közürcübaşı* protecting the people who provided coal and making sure that they burnt only oak charcoal and making possible the transportation of charcoal to ports. They would control each stage of the charcoal production in their regions.⁷⁴ Now, I will continue with the process of selling these products.

⁷⁰ İstanbul Ticaret Tarihi, hüküm no: 495, 110-111.

⁷¹ Aynural, 563.

⁷² BOA. , *Mühimme Defteri*, 240/960, p. 255.

⁷³ Tızlak, 115.

⁷⁴ Yüksel, 137-138.

D-THE SALE OF THE PRODUCT

1- Methods of Selling the Product

Firewood and charcoal were sent to Istanbul in several ways. Firstly, firewood and charcoal merchants in Istanbul went directly to the regions of production and bought cut wood and produced charcoal.⁷⁵ Then, they loaded these commodities onto the ships and sent them to Istanbul. As a second method, peasants who dealt with firewood and charcoal brought these goods to ports and sold them to the captains. The captains took them to Istanbul. They played a genuinely important role in the stage of charcoal sale. Peasants sold firewood and charcoal that they brought to ports to captains in an order, which was called *nöbet usulü*. The number of ships in each port was determined. Therefore, it was forbidden for other ships to carry wood and charcoal from these ports. Yet, during any time of coal and wood scarcity in Istanbul, to speed up the shipping, some other ships were sent to these ports. Moreover, it was not allowed to carry coal and firewood from other ports that were not assigned for this affair.⁷⁶ As a last method, producers sold products directly by bringing wood and charcoal to Istanbul.⁷⁷

There were also three ways of paying coal and wood from producers. The first one was buying wood and coal from the peasant with its current value and paying the amount in advance. The current value had to be mainly the real market

⁷⁵ Aynural, 565.

⁷⁶ See "... Şile iskelesinde olan rüe'sa-yı sefâyine rızâlarıyla narh-ı rûzisi üzre bey' idüb rûesâ-yı merkûmlar dahi kendi beynlerinde cari olan nîzâm-ı kadîmleri üzere bey' -i merkûma gelen kömür ve hatbı bunlardan nevbet ile sefinelere vaz' ..." İstanbul Ticaret Tarihi, hüküm no: 212, 314.

⁷⁷ Ibid. , 565.

value of the commodity.⁷⁸ The second was to buy wood and charcoal in return for meeting some of the needs of producers and sometimes paying them in advance a certain amount of the whole price. People who lent money were called capitalists *sermayeci*. With the last method, which was called *selem usulü*, producers gained money for the commodities that they cut, produce or transfer by selling them to merchants in their villages or in ports and then spent this amount to meet their own needs. And then, these producers sent commodities via the same merchants.⁷⁹ Merchants lent producers money in return for the sale of the commodity below the real market value that it would get during the harvest season.⁸⁰

2- Problems in the Sale of the Product

a-Problems Between Charcoal Producers and Profiteers

The producer faced three groups of problems in coal selling in the region . First of all there were problems with profiteers, secondly officials and finally coal sellers.

The appearance of profiteers (*muhtekir*) in the forests could be a sign of the region's potential. Their activities disturbed both local people who made their living in this area and the inhabitants of Istanbul. Of course, because of these kinds of activities, people who made their living by cutting wood in mountains and burning charcoal had to work for lower prices.⁸¹ It was very suitable environment for profiteers when peasants could not sell their products. First we need to ask, who were

⁷⁸ Güran, 20.

⁷⁹ Aynural, 565.

⁸⁰ Güran, 136.

⁸¹ BOA. , C. İKTS. 1430, (H. 1230, M.1814).

the profiteers? Profiteers could be both inhabitants of the region and strangers who came from the other parts of the Empire. For instance, one of the inhabitants of Vize, Ferhat Bey, sold coal on the black market, and this led to the selling of coal in Istanbul with a higher price than its real value.⁸² Among profiteers who came from other parts of the Empire, we see *Laz taifesi*.⁸³ We come across them as individuals or as a group. *Laz taifesi* must be considered within the group of profiteers. These *Laz taifesi* were an illegal group active in the region. One can evaluate their existence in the region in two ways: This could be considered as a signal of the importance of the forest potential because they came from different places and worked there. It shows also the power of the group in the region. The fact that they came from different places consolidated their power because they took some of the profits of the manufacturers. Although this group came from outside the region, they managed to earn their living unofficially. And even though the residents of the regions were uncomfortable about their presence, they worked for these people. We can consider this fact as a sign of the power they had over the inhabitants. What was the government's attitude to these profiteers? It was the duty of the *mübaşir* (a person who engaged in a job that should be done by the state) who was appointed to control forests and ports. It was required from people who cut wood on mountains not to sell their wood to *Laz taifesi* or to other profiteers. Instead of this, it was announced that

⁸² BOA., *AMKT. 133/100*, (H. 1234, M.1818).

⁸³ BOA., *C. BLD. 1570* (H. 1205, M. 1790).

firewood should be sold to captains after carrying them to the ports. And *mübaşirs* were to control the situation by inspecting ports.⁸⁴

b-Problems between Charcoal Producers and Merchants

The right of sale for charcoal was given to certain groups. The state limited the number of charcoal merchants who acted as agents, and this led to the emergence of some illegal groups. Thus, the producer did not have many choices in the marketing stage. The main problem in the region was the narrowing of the market by merchants. The balance between the center and merchants differentiated depending on the degree of the power of local authorities and the central authority and also on the distance of regions. The control over merchants was gradually declining when the distance increased.⁸⁵ The control of merchants in provinces was rather loose. Hence, the breakdown in the control prepared a suitable ground for usurpations of producers.⁸⁶ As the value of the sold product was not paid to the peasants by merchants who bought it, they had to seek their rights in the courts. For instance, a certain Mehmet who was a producer from Korfu Kalye of the *kaza* of Midye, could not get the money that he was due from the coal that he sold.⁸⁷ Again, in the capital city, two people who were coal sellers, Hacı Ali and Osman, bought 50,000 *vukiyye* /

⁸⁴ See "...bundan akdem zikr olunan kuzzalarda ve Istranca dağında bazı muhtekirlerin olûp reaya fukarasını kadim karlarından men ' ve kendü taraflarından odun kesdirûb ve kömür yakdırûb ziyâde baha ile fûrûhat..." *İbid.*

⁸⁵ Şevket Pamuk, *Yüz Soruda Osmanlı Türkiye İktisat Tarihi 1500-1914* (İstanbul: 1990), 179.

⁸⁶ Ahmet Tabakoğlu, "Osmanlı Ekonomisinde Fiyat Denetimi" *İktisat Fakültesi Mecmuası* 43/1-4 (1984-1985): 179.

⁸⁷ BOA., *A.MKT. DV. 68/81*, (H.1269, M. 1852).

6400 kg. coal from Paskal, but they did not pay his money.⁸⁸ Another example is the conflict between some of the residents of the sanjak of Vize and a coal merchant, Selim. Peasants sold charcoal that they produced to Salim. But the peasants found themselves indebted to Selim.⁸⁹ Generally, in the region, the producer sold the coal to the tradesman and thus sent it to Istanbul. However, many illegal problems arose due to this relationship built between the Istanbul market and the region.

We see that the organization which was established between peasants and charcoal merchants could easily become an area of conflict in the marketing stage of the commodity. In this situation, peasants tried to find alternative ways, because they wanted to sell their product in the way that they wanted. Thus, they wanted the center to inform them about whether or not they could sell their products to whomever they wished, that is to market their products by themselves.⁹⁰ This initiative of the peasants could be seen as a step to break monopolies on the regional trade. They wanted to undertake the marketing of the product in order to overcome the obstacles that they met constantly at this stage. The fact that the government favored some particular groups of tradesmen was the biggest source of the trouble. Because of that, the markets were getting narrower, which affected the producer negatively. The producer had problems in selling the products and could not get back what they expected.

⁸⁸ BEO. , *AMKT. DV. 193/82*, (H.1264, M.1847).

⁸⁹ BEO. , *AMKT. DV. 151/68*, (H.1264, M.1847).

⁹⁰ See "... ahâlinin hark ve 'imal eyediği kömürü istedikleri mahalle satmalarında mahalli ve Derseadetçe bir güne mahzûr var mıdır yokmudur ve bu vesîle ile borçlu olanlar dahi hark ettikleri kömürün ashâb-ı matlûba vermeyübde sâi'r mähalle satmaları..." Ibid.

c-Problems between Charcoal Producers and State Officials

State Officials in *kaza* of Vize and *kaza* of Midye of the sanjak of Kırkilise disturbed the people who were working in woodcutting areas. They in a way forced the local people to provide fuel for their own needs.⁹¹ To end this situation, people sought a solution from the state by sending petitions frequently. For instance, in a petition sent by İsmail Ağazade, it was explained how the inspector of the forest of Midye and the cavalry official made things difficult in inspecting and loading products. People who were charged with the protection of forests in the region sometimes engaged in illegal tasks. For example, in 1324/1906, Emin Efendi who was the Forest Cavalry Official of Midye smuggled charcoal from Menupesto Forest, which belonged to the state. In another case, after an investigation a tax-farmer, Yaşar Efendi, was found guilty of assisting in the smuggling of charcoal. Again, Mustafa Ağa who was the cavalry forest official in Istranca embezzled an amount of money out of the forest revenue of months of July and August.⁹² State officials sometimes usurped their position against producers.

⁹¹ BEO. , NGG. , 569/29319, (H. 1310, M. 1892).

⁹² BOA. , ŞD. EDİRNE 1939/22, (H. 1320, M. 1902).

E- TRANSPORTATION OF THE PRODUCT

Transportation was one of the important stages in meeting the necessities of Istanbul.⁹³ Thus the transportation system of the region cannot be evaluated separately from the production mechanism. Transportation by ship was more advantageous since its cost was quite low.⁹⁴

1- Ports that Sent Products from Kırkkilise and Its Hinterland to Istanbul

As most food and raw material needs of Istanbul were carried here by way of sea, the state was interested in a system that linked the ports of the Aegean Sea and the Black Sea to Istanbul.⁹⁵ As part of a wide organization, there were some ports that were assigned for meeting the fuel needs of Istanbul.⁹⁶

Sea transportation was the most important means of transportation of Kırkkilise and its hinterland to Istanbul. Hence, the regional ports participated in a trade organization in the Rumelian costs of the Black Sea.⁹⁷ They were closely related to Istanbul. In this trade organization, certain parts that were located in towns

⁹³ Mantran, *İstanbul*, 84.

⁹⁴ Güran, 72-73 .

⁹⁵ Serap Yılmaz, " 1823 'te İstanbul İle Osmanlı Eyaletleri Arasında Deniz Yolu İle İlişkiler. " *Osmanlı Ansiklopedisi* 3 (1999): 638.

⁹⁶ See "... Yoros kazasına bağlı Ali Bahadır, Tarlabası ve İkiyakalı ; Kandıra nâhiyesine bağlı Dikili, Cebeci, Deliklikaya; Şile'ye bağlı Kabakoz, Akçakilise, İsa, Yorguncu , İmralı, Mahmud deresi ;Midye nâhiyesine bağlı Sandal iskelesi, Silivriye bağlı Papash islelesi; Şeyhlere bağlı Kumceğiz ve Kefken iskeleleri idi..." Aynural, 564.

⁹⁷ See "Ermeni Deresi, Midye , Siroz , Ayapoli, İyneada, Filagor, Ahtebolu, Kirpialtı, Çingane iskelesi, Süzebolu, Proz, Birgoz. "Halil Kutluk, *Türkiye Ormancılığı İle İlgili Vesikalar 1487-1923*(Ankara: Tarım Bakanlığı, 1948), 685.

that had coasts were reserved for the transportation of firewood and charcoal to Istanbul. We see among *kazas* of the sanjak of Vize that transported commodities to Istanbul, Saray and Erekli. In, Erekli, Sultan Çiftliği, Eski Erekli and Diyebazlı ports were the ports that were assigned for this task. Nefsi Midye, Demiriye and Istavroz ports were the ports of the *kaza* of Midye which again served this aim.⁹⁸

As a result, regions and ports on the western coast of the Black Sea that were assigned for Istanbul took a great place. Among 22 centers, there were three active ports that were located in Vize, Midye and İyneada. These three ports played a major role in the trade with Istanbul. They became important centers in taking the grape of the region to Istanbul. Of course, this port contributed to the economy of the region.

2- Types of Ships, Their Cargoes and the Crew

It was very important to choose proper ships for the Black Sea, as the sea receive storms. When we look at the types of ships that linked the region to Istanbul, we see *çektirme*, *brik martiko*, *çenber*, *beş çifte*, and *çatalkıçlı*.⁹⁹ The number of people in these ships as crew was at most twelve for *beşçifte*, seventy-five for *çektirme*, twenty-two for *birik*, forty-four for *çenber* and eighty-eight for *matriko*. These ships were not so big in size. *Matriko* was the largest ship that could carry up to 300 tone.¹⁰⁰

⁹⁸ BOA. , *AMKT. 107/53*, (H.1264, M.1847); *AMKT. 110/16*, (H. 1264,1847).

⁹⁹ İsmail Oğuz, “ M. 1822 Tarihinde İstanbul Limanındaki Bir Haftalık Deniz Ticareti Mal, Vasıta, Mürettebat. ” (PH. D. diss. , Balıkesir Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Tarih Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı , 1995): 20-23.

¹⁰⁰ *İbid.* , 21.

These vehicles were sent loaded especially with charcoal and timber. But, these ships were sent from Istanbul to the region as unloaded. In the documents, there is no record of the name of a passenger. Non-Muslim, especially Greek-Orthodox people constituted the majority of captains.¹⁰¹

In 1823, when we evaluate the sea link between Istanbul and provinces by using the data of a single week, we reach some general conclusions: Firstly, almost all ships that left Istanbul toward the Marmara and the Aegean were unloaded. Secondly, most of the ships were small in size. Lastly, the fleet was generally composed of *çektirme*.¹⁰² And, the local trade of Kırkkilise and its hinterland was more or less similar to this picture.

The fact that vessels coming from Istanbul to the region were empty, was a result of the characteristic feature of the center. As it had been in the previous periods, the feeding system that survived during 19th century, has been the base of that feature. The fact that the tonnage of the vessels was not that big, doesn't mean that regional trade was unimportant. The purpose was providing a continuous service to Istanbul, be it big or small.

¹⁰¹ BOA. , *BMMK İGE* 270, *genel no:* 23649, (H. 1238, M. 1822).

¹⁰² *Yılmaz*, 642.

CHAPTER TWO

IRON

In this chapter we will mainly focus on the nature of relations that were established between the miners of the region and Istanbul. This includes the analysis of the production of the iron ore, the administration of mines, the production season and its amount. Moreover, the position of Ahbolu ¹⁰³ and Aydos ¹⁰⁴ which were two regions that were responsible for meeting the needs of miners that worked in Samakocuk will be illustrated. And also, we will deal with the importance of sea trade on the economy of the region.

Samakocuk was a settlement area of the nahiye of Midye where the inhabitants engaged in mining. Mines in Samakocuk had also been used before the 19th century. For instance, during the conquest of Istanbul, Mehmed II used iron mines of Samakocuk in casting artillery. Again, Selim II appointed K labiř Ahmet Pařa for the administration of Demirk y ¹⁰⁵ mines and also for this aim he sent laborers to Europe.¹⁰⁶ In another instance, in a petition sent by the inhabitants of Samakocuk ¹⁰⁷ of Midye (*nahiye*) of the *sanjak* of Vize, people explained that they had been, for a long time, sending charcoal to Istanbul by burning wood and charcoal in Korfukalye, İneabad and Ayapolu groves and also producing *helon* (raw iron) for

¹⁰³ Ahbolu: It is a city in Bulgaria.

¹⁰⁴ Aydos: It is a village in Bulgaria .

¹⁰⁵ Demirk y, known as Samakocuk, is a settlement between Vize and Karadeniz.

¹⁰⁶ Karaçam, 184-185.

¹⁰⁷ See appendix, map 4, Edirne Vilayet Salnamesi 1301/ 1883 .

the Tersane-i Amire.¹⁰⁸ Of course, the expression of “a long time” was the indication of the service of the region to Istanbul for years in the development stage of this region. Therefore, iron played a great role in the progress of the region. Iron was one of the sources of income of Midye. In Samakocuk of Midye raw iron was mined especially for the Tersane-i Amire and *helon* was submitted to the dockyards in Kasımpaşa.¹⁰⁹ Again from the ateliers of Samakocuk *humbara*¹¹⁰ *yuvarlak*¹¹¹ and *dane*¹¹² were sent to Tophane, Hasköy and Kasımpaşa.¹¹³ Especially, in the Tophane-i Amire, artillery casting was carried out in places which were called *imalathane*, *karhane* and *dökümhane*.¹¹⁴ It is understood from the documents that the state used iron that was mined in this region in the military facilities. The Tersane-i Amire and Tophane-i Amire met their iron needs from Samakocuk.

¹⁰⁸ BOA. , C.İKTS. 1430, (H.1230, M. 1814).

¹⁰⁹ BOA, C. BAH. 1648, (H.1229, M.1813); C. BAH. 3688 (H. 1237, M. 1821).

¹¹⁰ a kind of military equipment which was made of iron. It was a round piece of equipment and the inside was empty.

¹¹¹ Again a kind of military equipment.

¹¹² missile

¹¹³ See “... Hasköy ve Kasımpaşa da matlub buyrulan timûru tamamen edâ ve teslîm eyledüklerini ve timûr mübâyası humbara ve yuvarlak ve dânelerin külliyyetlû helonun mevcûdadına mevkût olmaktan nâşi Samakocuk karyesinin...”BOA. , C.ML. 20679, (H.1216, M. 1801)

¹¹⁴ Salim Aydıöz , “ Tophane-i Amire Müştemilatı. ” *Osmanlı Ansiklopedisi* 5 (1999): 651.

A-THE MINING POLICY OF THE OTTOMANS ANDSAMAKOCUK

The importance of iron for the state will be understood better, when the use of iron that was processed in Samakocuk in the military facilities of the state like the Tersane-i Amire and Tophane-i Amire is considered. Due to this fact, the approach of the state to the iron mines was rather meticulous in providing constant production and administration. They also tried to provide for the administration of mines in the region without confusion and disorder. As a rule the Ottoman State accepted continuous production in mines and took every measure to obtain this.¹¹⁵

As a result, it can be said that the state took the monopoly of the production of mines and distribution of these products¹¹⁶ because of the importance of mines both all over the Empire in general and in Samakocuk in particular. This monopolistic approach to mines showed itself in the consideration of the state as its own asset so that the production distribution occurred only according to rules that were established by the state. Moreover, this monopoly could also be observed in the determination of marketing areas and of the amounts of these products.¹¹⁷

¹¹⁵ Fahrettin Tızlak, *Osmanlı Döneminde Keban- Ergani Yöresinde Madencilik 1775-1850* (Ankara, Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi 1997), 4.

¹¹⁶ Quataert, *The Ottoman Empire 1700-1922*, 71.

¹¹⁷ The Encyclopedia of Islam, 5th ed. s. v. "Madin. "

1- The Administration of Mines

The administration of mines in the Ottoman Empire was a complicated subject. The main reason of this could be that the methods of mine management were not the same in all of mines throughout the Empire. That is to say, the management of mines changed according to the needs of time, the type of the mine and the interest of the state. But, this does not mean there were not common techniques in the administration of mines. For instance, whatever its administrative way, the connection of mines to villages and *kazas* with some responsibilities and also exemptions were maintained continuously provided constantly without any change in time. That is to say, the administrative methods of mines sometimes changed according to time and place but the management models remained the same in principal and they were applied without change.¹¹⁸

The state determined the way of administration of mines because of the *mirî* regime that was applied also to mining. This approach could be seen clearly in mines that were especially used for the military.¹¹⁹ About the working mechanism of the mining sector we can say that as they were the most abundant source of the Empire, they always remained in the hands of the state¹²⁰ as *mukâta'a*¹²¹.

In the Ottoman practice an individual had a right to manage the mine if in his field a mine was found or if he discovered a mine in an abandoned area. The method

¹¹⁸ Donald Quataert, "19. yy da Osmanlı da Madencilik,": 914.

¹¹⁹ Ziya Enver Karal, *Osmanlı Tarihi* 8 (Ankar: Türk Tarih Kurumu, 1976): 245-246.

¹²⁰ Vedat Eldem, *Osmanlı İmparatorluğunun İktisadi Şartları Hakkında Bir Tetkik* (Ankara: Türkiye İş Bankası, 1970), 91.

¹²¹ *Mukâta'a*: A branch of the public revenue of farmed out for a term of years for a fixed sum, the farmer collecting the dues for his own account.

that was followed in the mines of the Ottoman State was called *emanet*. In this method, the state sent an official *emin*. Moreover, depending on the size of the mine and the number of laborers; sufficient capital was also given to the official. And also sending mining products to Istanbul was one of the *emins*' responsibilities.¹²²

2- The Exploration of New Mines and Opening Them to Management

To start the management of a mine, two main stages were needed. The first stage was the exploration of a mine and getting permission from the mint. Bringing in the necessary services for the administration of a mine was the second stage. In the Ottoman State, the opening of a mine was possible only with the permission of the Ministry of Mint.¹²³ We see the concern of the state about mines in the orders that were sent to administrators. It was ordered to locate the places of new mines between Edirne and Filibe on a map.¹²⁴ The center applied some methods for the exploration of new mines. One of them was sending some people with the name of *arayıcı* (explorer) to explore new mines.¹²⁵ In the second method, people who were appointed as *Maden Emni* undertook investigations for new mines. Lastly, people who informed the state about the possible regions of new mines were rewarded.¹²⁶

The procedure of getting the permission was that first of all the *emin* of a mine or the notables of a certain place examined the explored mine that was found in their own region of authority. Then, if the administration required, an example from

¹²² Tızlak, 11.

¹²³ Yüksel, 95.

¹²⁴ BOA. , C. DRB. 928, (H. 1281, M. 1864)

¹²⁵ Neşet Çağatay, " Osmanlı İmparatorluğunda Maden İşletme Hukuku, "AÜDİTCD 2/1 (1943) : 121.

¹²⁶ Tızlak, 140 .

the mine would be sent to the Mint in Istanbul. If the minister of the Mint believed in the administration of the mine, he would inform the grandvizier. Then, the grandvizier would inform the Sultan of the situation to send an order for the opening of the new mine.¹²⁷

After getting the permission, services to the mine or the mining region had be obtained.¹²⁸ Then, a sufficient number of laborers and miners were employed under his management. Moreover, depending on the size of the mine and the number of laborers, sufficient capital was given to the *emin*. The *emin* spent this capital to fulfill the production in the mine systematically and to sell these products in the name of the state.¹²⁹

Laborers were one of the important components of the mines in the Ottoman mining sector.¹³⁰ Moreover, in this sector, there were some people who carried needed charcoal and stump to the region. Furthermore, there were again some people who carried raw iron and the processed product to required places and provided the needs of miners and their animals. Lastly, there were guardians who were hired to protect mines and miners. As a result, either directly or indirectly mining was an important source of income for many people in this area.¹³¹ In the administration of Ottoman mines, there was a division of labor between villages that were located

¹²⁷ Ibid. , 95.

¹²⁸ Yücel Özkaya, *17. Yy da Osmanlı Kurumları ve Osmanlı Toplum Yaşantısı*, (Ankara: Kültür ve Turizm Bakanlığı, 1985), 299.

¹²⁹ Yüksel, 13.

¹³⁰ Çağatay, "Osmanlı İmparatorluğunda Maden Hukuku.": 117.

¹³¹ Fahrettin Tızlak, 2.

around the mine region. As it was forbidden for laborers to leave the region, the *emin* of a mine was responsible for cases among laborers or between laborers and others.¹³²

Again, a military force was sent to the region to provide security. After these, the settlement needs of people who would work there were met. Therefore, houses for these people were built to meet the necessities of these people, along with shops. Moreover, to provide the fulfillment of religious duties of these people, mosques, churches and so on were constructed. Lastly, stables for the animals of the *emin* and other people and also for the animals that were used to carry ore and coal were built.¹³³ Therefore, each mining region was a kind of settlement area.¹³⁴

3- The Relation Between Samakocuk and Its Dependent Areas

Food needs of laborers of mines and money to meet these needs were paid as tax by people who lived in other towns and villages.¹³⁵ And some areas which were also connected with mines provided coal for mines, and in return for this, they were exempted from the tax. The daily needs of laborers and other people who were coming in from outside were met systematically. Their needs were provided by the surroundings. That is, their needs were brought near them by the mine administration.¹³⁶ For example; in a proposal presented by Yusuf Ağa, to the

¹³² *I.A.*, 5th, 976.

¹³³ Tızlak, 96.

¹³⁴ Faroqhi, *Towns and Townsmen of Ottoman Anatolia: Trade Crafts and Food Production in an Urban Setting* (Cambridge: 1984), 23.

¹³⁵ Adnan Giz "Demir Üzerine," *İstanbul Sanayi Odası Dergisi* 5 (1970): 21.

¹³⁶ Tızlak, 186-217.

Sublime Porte, there was an indication of an organization to meet the needs of miners by the inhabitants of the *kaza* of Aydos. From Aydos, 6000 *kile*(bushel)/145.290.000 kg of *hinta*(wheat), 4000 *kile*/96.860 of cornelian cherry and 2000 *kile*/48.430 of rye were sent to Samakocuk.¹³⁷ Again, in the documents we see that for the needs of laborers who were working in the ateliers of mine casting and in the production of ore, *helon* and *yuvarlak* were sent from Aydos by sea.¹³⁸ Accordingly, food for coal miners was brought to the region thanks to an established system. Aydos was an important part of this system. The region was divided according to its potentials. Samakocuk was only expected to meet the food need of this region.

a-Problems that Arose in the Places that had a Connection with Samakocuk:

Ahbolu and Aydos were two regions that were responsible for meeting the needs of miners that worked in Samakocuk.¹³⁹ The peasants who were living in *kazas* of Samakocuk had left their homeland because of one of the imperial campaigns. In 1249/1833 they were once settled in a *kaza* of the sanjak of Çirmen, but then their return to the homeland was ordered. Some of them returned, but as many of them opposed, there arose some problems. Once, the inhabitants of Ahbolu were serving as *kömürkeş* people who worked for coal in the mine and *helonkeş* people who worked in the production of ore- for the Dökümhane-i Amire. So, in this situation, there occurred a crisis. To provide the return of these people to their homeland, the volvoda of Ahbolu sent an order to the governor of Çirmen. On the other hand, the

¹³⁷ BOA. , *HH.* 1653, (H. 1237, M.1821).

¹³⁸ BOA. , *HH.* 16462, (H.1235, M.1819).

¹³⁹ BOA. , *HH.* 16462, (H.1235, M 1819); C.İKTS. 453, (H. 1249, M. 1833).

inhabitants of Ahbolu complained about their situation in the court and they demanded the return of peasants who had migrated to Edirne, since the remaining people were burdened with the responsibilities of these people in the production of *helon* and *dane yuvarlak*. Hence, as a result of this situation, they were in difficulty.¹⁴⁰ This situation in Ahbolu was affecting negatively both the inhabitants of the area and Samakocuk, which the area was connected to The center however always tried to provide continuity of the system's working .The inhabitants of the region who made their living from mining were more dependent on the Ottoman State than other regions. Mining had a special place in the Ottoman economy. Undoubtedly, it was the case in the 16th century, in the 19th century too, iron was necessary in the first degree the production and the marketing and also the inhabitants of the region were controlled more strictly by the Ottoman State.¹⁴¹ Ahbolu and Aydos were regions meeting the food needs of Samakocuk. When the connection between these regions was lost due to several reasons this, brought about problems as mentioned above.

¹⁴⁰ See "... Samakocuk Dökümhâne-i Amiresine merbût kömürkeş ve helonkeş olmağla mâdû'z zikr kaza-i âhire hicret ve iskân eden re 'âyanın dahi Samakocuğa müretteb hark ve nakl edecekleri kömür ve helon ve dâne ve yuvarlaklardan hisseleri olan hizmetleri dahî gerû kalanlarının üzerine tahmîl olundukça tahammül edemeyüb bâki kalan re 'âyamız dahî bir taraftan hazar etmekte..." BOA. , C.İKTS. 453 (-----).

¹⁴¹ Faruqi, *Towns and Townsmen*, 187.

B-PRODUCTION

1- The Construction of Institutions of the Ore Production

After providing all the necessities for people who worked in mines, the institutions that would be used for the production and processing of ore were built. For instance, as the existent pits were not sufficient, new pits were built. To build a pit in Samakocuk not only the inhabitants of the region but also people who lived in the vicinity worked together. In this organization, there were the inhabitants of Kırkkilise, Edirne, Pınarbaşı, Saray and Vize. Required material and labor force for the building of a pit were sent from these regions to Samakocuk that was the center of mining.¹⁴²

As the pits of the Foundry were not sufficient, new pits were added which was required as part of an organization to broaden the Foundry. Of course, to provide the continuity of the Foundry new pits had to be added. The new pits required material and a labor force differentiated according to the size of the pit. For instance, el-Hac Yusuf Ağa, who was the *nâzır* of Samakocuk, founded a new pit with 70 ox carriages, 15 carriage and 155 people. The wages of these people were paid by the *nâzır*. Mimar Ağa would decide whether or not this number of people was enough for the mine,¹⁴³ as projects that were approved by the state were fulfilled by

¹⁴² BOA. , C. İKTS. 478, (H. 1236, M. 1845).

¹⁴³ See "... Samakocuk Nazırı el- hac Yusuf Ağa kullarının vârid olan bir kıt'a takrîr-i meâlinde. Samakocuk Karhânesinde mevcûd 3 kıt'a ocak arasına müceddiden bir ocak ve mahall-i münâsibine 3 ocak inşasına idâreten seniye-i teâllik idûb zıkr olunan ocaklar ile kömür cevheri içün 2 kıt'a-i kebîr mağazalar ebniyesine elzem taş ve kireç üçer saat mesâfeden celbi lazım gelmekte ... Kırkkilise kazâsından 30 kıt'a araba ve 50 nefer 'amele ve Edirne kazâsından 20 kıt'a araba ve 40 nefer duvarcı ve Pınarhisarı kazâsından 20 kıta araba ve 30 nefer 'amele ve 1 ocak 10 nefer kiremitçi ve tuğlacı ve Saray ve Vize kazâsından kezâlik 15 kıt'a .. 25 nefer 'amele emsâline nazaran yevmiyeleri tarafından verilmek şartıyla tertîb ve t'ayin..." Ibid .

mimarbaşı and his assistants. These officials were responsible for the general plan of each task and also for the organization of the work in the construction area.¹⁴⁴

2- Types and Amounts of Mines that were Produced in Samakocuk

The size and the type of *dane* and *yuvarlak* which were sent from Samakocuk Foundry were different. Ore was sent to Istanbul in different sizes and weights such as *yuvarlak*, *dane-i humbara*, *beş delikli dane*, *yuvarlak yatağı*, *kale kundağı*, *maden-i sefine misket* and *helon*.¹⁴⁵ Again, the diameters of *dane*, *yuvarlak* and *misket* were different.¹⁴⁶

The production of *yuvarlak* and *humbara* which were produced in the iron mine of Samakocuk was more stable than other products. So, it can be said that in the Foundry the production was mostly based on *yuvarlak* and *humbara*.

¹⁴⁴ Faroghi, Towns and Townsmen, 24.

¹⁴⁵ BOA. , A.MKT. 110/16, (H. 1264, M. 1847); ML. 360, (H. 1261, M. 1845).

¹⁴⁶ See..."In 1257: 75589 item *yuvarlak*, 33.473 item *dâne-i humbara*, 6628 item *dâne-i misket* ,a item *kal 'â kundağı*..., 77 item *ahen-i yuvarlak yatağı*.

In 1258: 116032 item *yuvârlak*, 36.677 *dâne-i humbara*, 112.306 'adet *dâne-i misket*, 1.282 item *beş delikli dâne*, 8.797 item *dâne-i helon humbara*.

In 1259: 75.146 item *yuvarlak*, 39.646 item *dâne-i humbara*, 108.849 item *dâne-i misket*.

In 1260: 91119 item *yuvarlak*, 61.482 item *dâne-i humbara*, 31.162 *kıyye dane misket*.

In 1261: 83.850 item *yuvarlak*, 5.0581 item *dane-i humbara*, 31.162 *dane-i misket* , 3.668 *kıyye ecnas-ı şikes dâne-i yuvarlak*, 333.326 item *yuvarlak* , 166.986 item *humbara* , 2182 item *beş delikli dâne-i humbara*, 435.369 item *dâne-i misket* , 6 *yuvarlak yatağı* , 10.748 *kıyye helon*.

In 1274: 24.000 item *dâne-i humbara*, 9200 *aded havan....*, *dânesi*, 500 *aded havan dânesi*, 22.500 item *yuvarlak*, 280.000 *misket dânesi*, 24.700 *aded havan...*, 2.900 item *humbara dânesi*, 4.800 item *beş delikli*, 50.000 item *misket dânesi...*" BOA, ML. 360, (H.1261, M.1845); ML 838, (H.1275, M. 1858).

In the diagram that was drawn for four years, we see that while the amount of the *yuvarlak* produced in 1258/1857 was 124,292, the minimum amount was 22,500 in 1274/1857.¹⁴⁷

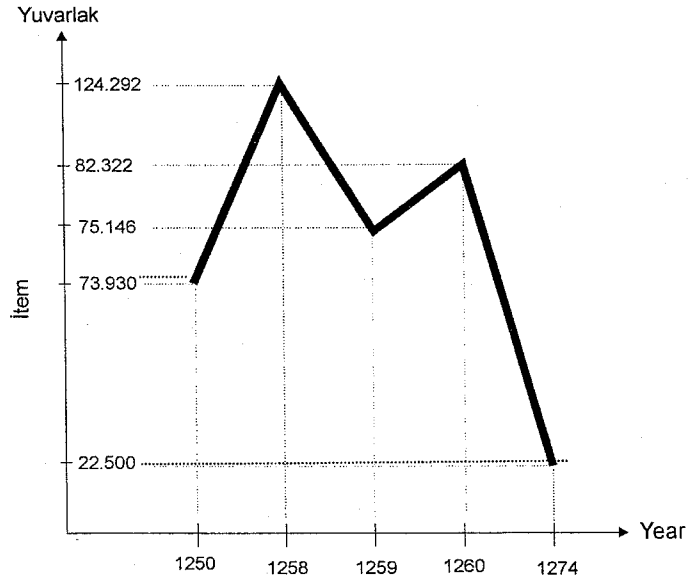


diagram 1¹⁴⁸

In this diagram, in the first four years there occurred an increase in *humbara* production, but in 1274/1857 a dramatic fall was under consideration. On the other hand, we see that the type of produced mine was diverse in 1274/1857 while the amount of the production was decreasing, the variety of production increased.¹⁴⁹

¹⁴⁷ BOA., ML. 360, (H. 1250, M. 1834).

¹⁴⁸ Ibid

¹⁴⁹ Ibid.

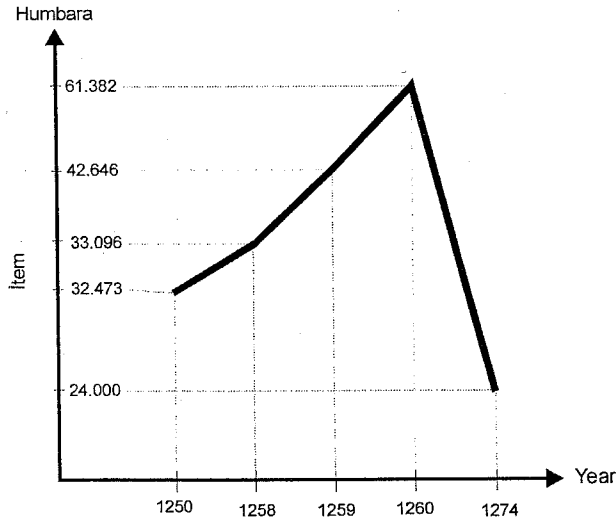


diagram 2.¹⁵⁰

The amount of the production changed each year. The type of the production was prepared with certain molds. Iron that was shaped in different sizes and weights was sent to the *Tersane-i Amire* and *Tophane-i Amire* Administrations for military facilities from the Samakocuk Foundry.

2- Season

The season was the most important factor that affected iron production directly. The season of processing in all the state-owned mines throughout the Empire was summer. Although the period was determined as between *Nevruz* –21 March- and *Rûz-ı Kâsım* –7 November, that is 7,5 months, generally the season started on *Rûz-ı Hızır* –6 May- and ended on *Rûz-ı Kâsım*.¹⁵¹ The aim of this seasonal program was to overcome the difficulties of winter, because it was very difficult to go to mines that were located in a mountainous region and to work and transport in the winter. On the other hand, droughts in the summer led to some problems in

¹⁵⁰ Ibid.

¹⁵¹ *IA.*, 5th, 976.

transportation. For example, in the beginning of the nineteenth century of *helon* that was submitted from the village of Samakocuk to *Tophane*, only 190,000 *vukiyye* /243.2 kg. could be carried to the ports and the remaining amount, that is 30,000 *vukiyye*/38.4kg. could not be sent.¹⁵² In addition, carrying coal that was used in burning furnaces, cuttings stumps and carrying them to mines or to places where furnaces were established was rather difficult. In the winter, it was very difficult to get the required heating degree that was necessary for ore processing and burning furnaces. Above all, it was required that processing in mines should take place in the summer to prevent problems that could possibly occur as a result of seasonal conditions. Again, the transportation was in the same scope as the transfer of ore that was processed in the mine to the ports was required. Due to these difficulties, the period of burning furnaces was rather limited.¹⁵³

So, seasonal conditions affected directly both production and transportation. For instance, in *Teşrin-i Evvel* 1257/1841, *kömürkeş*, *cevherkeş* and *ocakçıyan* laborers submitted 83,871 *kıyye*/107.354.80 kg.coal,¹⁵⁴ but in *Kanun-ı Evvel* 1257/1841, 419,5 *kıyye*/536.96 kg ore and 2,230 *kıyye*/2.854.4 kg. coal were submitted.¹⁵⁵ So, falls in production during months could be seen. Again, in

¹⁵² See "... Samakocuk karyesinin beher sene bervech ocaklık mübâyasından Tophaneye teslim ede geldikleri 220.000 vükiyye helondan 190.000 vükiyye helon hazır ve âmade ve iskeleye nakil edildiklerini irâd-ı cedîd defterdâr efendi etebandan mübâşir Mehmed kulları muvaciinde takrîr eylediklerini bu sene-i mübâreke de kurak ve suların killeli derkar ve bundan akdemce Midye havâlisinin muhafazasına Rumeli Valisi Hakkı Paşa Hazretleri tarafından yapıldı bir miktar asker ile mîr-i mirandan Süleyman Paşayı t'ayin ve irsal ve el-yevm karye-i merkûm muhâfazası ile ikâmet üzere olmağla zimmetlerinde bâki kalan 30.000 vukiyye helonu Ruz-ı Kasımdan 10 gün mukaddem eda ve teslîm müteahhid oldukların..." BOA, C.ML. 20679, (H1216.,M1801).

¹⁵³ *IA.*, 5th, 976.

¹⁵⁴ BOA., *ML.MSF.* 3139, (H.1257, M. 1841).

¹⁵⁵ BOA., *ML.MSF.* 3384, (H.1257, M.1841).

1259/1843, *dane* and *yuvarlak* that were produced in the Foundry were sent to warehouses in İne Ada two times on *Rûz-ı Hızır* and *Rûz-ı Kâsım*. The transportation amount to the warehouse in İyneada on *Rûz-ı Hızır* was 627,122 *kıyye*/802.716.16 kg. and on *Rûz-ı Kâsım*, it was 34,325. So, the production on *Rûz-ı Hızır* was rather high.¹⁵⁶

Mining was not a sector that could provide continuous operation. The schedule that was arranged to determine the working period was prepared according to seasonal conditions.¹⁵⁷

¹⁵⁶ BOA. , *ML. MSF. 4679*, (H. 1260, M. 1844).

¹⁵⁷ Yüksel, 35.

C-LABOR FORCE

1- Materials that were provided for mines and laborers

It was an important matter to obtain materials in order to manage the Foundry systematically, Foundry necessities such as hemp, flax, coal, ore basket, wooden *gürdal*, and for animals straw, oat, and vetch were met out of the Foundry's budget. Among the working people, there were directors, engineers, clerks, *kocabaş* (the head of the village council), woodchoppers, port officials, scribes, storekeepers, *serencar*, carpenters, molders, drivers, guardians, and gendarme. They were paid monthly *şehriyari*.¹⁵⁸

Laborers in mines were one of the main components in the production in mines, as they produced ore, which was the most difficult work.¹⁵⁹ What kind of division of labor existed among the group that was called *ocakciyan* laborers. It is very difficult to find an answer to this question in the documents. But, we can say that there were *cevherkeş* and *kömürkeş* groups, which were parts of the *ocakciyan* laborers. To produce ore in the mines, coal as a basic material was needed. People who carried or submitted coal to the mine were possibly known as *kömürkeş* laborers. And, people who mined iron were called *cevherkeş*. These people were taking their wages daily according to the amount of ore or coal that they submitted. Non-Muslim people constituted the majority of those that worked in the Foundry both as officials and laborers who worked as *ocakciyan*, *kömürkeş* and *cevherkeş*.¹⁶⁰

¹⁵⁸ See "... malûmât-ı mezkûra için ücret ve mübâye 'at bahâsıyla ma' lûmat-ı mezkûradan iskeleye nakil ve tenzîl olunanların ücret-i nakliyeleri ve badema ve memurî'n şehriyeleri..." BOA. , *ML.MSF* 4679, (H.1259, M. 1843).

¹⁵⁹ *IA.* , 5th , 976.

¹⁶⁰ BOA. , *ML.MSF* . 3196, (H.1257, M.1841).

For example, in *Kânun-ı Evvel* 1257/1841, all the people who worked as laborers in the mine and transporters were non-Muslims.¹⁶¹

2-Problems in Labor Force of Mines

It was the duty of the local state officials to find sufficient laborers for the mine. Regions that were engaged in mining were more dependent on the center than other regions. Especially, in time of a war people were forced to provide the enough number of laborers in the mines. Local governors tried to prevent the working of necessary laborers for other co-workers who were responsible for villages in the vicinity.¹⁶²

In a proposal that was sent by *Tophane Müşirliği* for the reorganization of the Samakocuk Foundry, it was required that in order to find necessary laborers officers should be used. But, they worked only to guard the foundry. Laborers would take their wages for the time they spent in the foundry.¹⁶³ Using military force to provide the necessary laborers could mean that both wages and working conditions of the mine were not satisfactory. Yusuf Ağa , who was the *nazır* of Samakocuk, demanded an ox carriage, bricklayers and unskilled construction workers from the *kaza* of Vize in order to build four new pits and two stores for the *karhane* of Samakocuk, but as their transfer was delayed, there occurred some problems.¹⁶⁴

¹⁶¹ See "... Panayot, Yorgi, Dimitri, Konstantin, Todori, Dimo, Dimitraki, Todoraki, Yani, Vasiliko, Yorgaki, Mihail, Nikola, Hristo, Anderya..." Ibid.

¹⁶² Faroqhi, *Towns and Townsmen*, 185-188.

¹⁶³ BEO. , *Edirne Ayniyat Defteri* 821/423, p. 148, (H. 1287, M.1870).

¹⁶⁴ BOA. , *C.DRB.* 699, (H. 1236 , M. 1820).

D-REASONS FOR DECREASE IN PRODUCTION AND SAMAKOCUK

The main reason for the decline of production in mines was the destruction of forest. There were different factors involved in this process of destruction, the main ones being the system of processing in the iron mines and the attitude of the villagers. The problem for the Foundry was the fall in the production that resulted from the destruction of forests where coal and stump were provided.¹⁶⁵ At this point, it should be emphasized that the coal required for the processing of ore had to be produced from high-quality fuel, because to get enough heat to melt ore, a lot of coal needed to be burnt. However, if coal was high-quality like oak charcoal, the necessary heat could be provided with a little amount. As trees in the vicinity of mines were exhausted in time, forests that were very distant began to be used.¹⁶⁶ To prevent this, it was required that forests should be under the control of the Foundry. As the decline in carriage of coal from remote places was decided, there arose transportation problems. If the coal was to come from distant regions by ship, the coal needed firstly to be carried from that region to the port and then from the port to the foundry. Another alternative was to get the coal from closer regions. In this case, forests around İyneada were found suitable on the condition that out of seven bridges that provided a link with İyneada four needed to be rebuilt and others needed to be repaired so that they could be open for transportation.¹⁶⁷

All these clearly show the harmful effects of forest destruction to the economic capacity of the region. For this reason, the state wanted the utilization of

¹⁶⁵ Tızlak, 146.

¹⁶⁶ BOA. , *AMKT.UM.* 295/73, (H. 1274, M. 1857).

¹⁶⁷ BOA. , *Edirne Ayniyat Defteri* 821/423, p. 148. (H. 1287, M. 1870).

coal mines by people. For instance, a coal mine in the Vize *kaza* of the sanjak of Kırkilise was given to Çorlulu Halil and İbrahim for 99 years.¹⁶⁸ In fact, this was a step to prevent forest destruction by promoting the usage of coal instead of charcoal which was provided from forests.

Another factor causing the destruction of forests was the attitude of the villagers. This issue can be followed in the archival documents. For instance, the last period of the nineteenth century, in a proposal sent to *Tophane-i Amire* upon the memorandum of the governor Ahmet Bey, it was explained that the forests around the Samakocuk Foundry had been mostly destroyed by villagers. It appeared that the villagers cut trees arbitrarily or they uprooted trees to open agricultural fields. For example, state officials sold these fields with a deed for agricultural use.¹⁶⁹ So, the point should be emphasized that the inhabitants of the area tried to change their forest villager position to agriculturalist. The inhabitants of the region whose main sources of income were forest and mine wanted to engage in agricultural production by opening new fields in this area.¹⁷⁰ Mining being hard¹⁷¹ and demanding and the reduction in iron production, caused the inhabitants to consider with cultivation.

¹⁶⁸ BOA, ŞD. HU. 1245/38, (H.1328, M. 1912); DUİT 17-1/17 (H.1334, M. 1915).

¹⁶⁹ bkz "... mezkûr dökümhane civârında vak'î ormanların ahâli tarafından ağaçlar kat' ile kökleri sökülerek tarlalar açılmakta ve işbu yerler arazi-yi mezbûraları cânibinden tapu ile satılmakta olduğundan ve mahalle-i mezkûrada bulunan timur ma'deni cevheri kum gibi ufak ve dâneli ve toprak ile melhût olarak ve yağmur yağdıkça su ile akarak derelerden mahsûsen açılmış olan çukurların içine sukût edüb badehû... tarlalar açılarak zira'at edilmesi cevherin yağmur suyu ile derelere inmeyüb tarlalarda toprak içinde kalmasına ve bu da böğle ces'im ve zengin bir ma'denin semerâtından istifâde olunmayup..." BOA. , Edirne Ayniyat Defteri 821/423, p.148 (H.1287, M. 1870).

¹⁷⁰ See "... mezkur dökümhane civarında vaki ormanların ahali tarafından ağaçlar kat ile sökülerek tarlalar açılmakta ve işbu birle arazi memurlar canibinde tapu ile satılmakta olduğuna..." BOA. , ŞD. EDİRNE, 1906/64, (H.1288, M.1871).

¹⁷¹ Tızlak, 141.

CHAPTER THREE

VITICULTURE

This section aims to investigate the significance of viticulture in the economy of Kırkkilise and its hinterland. Within the scope of this investigation, the vineyards in the region and their production capacities will be analyzed. Then, the conditions of grapegrowing in the region will be illustrated with special reference to the conditions that hindered its production. Lastly, the power relations between the center and the region concerning grape growing will be dealt with. That is, the policies of state concerning the vineyards and the reaction of grape growers to such policies are illustrated.

Viticulture was indispensable to agriculture. Although the land and climate in most parts of the empire were suitable for viticulture, the production remained moderate. To have a look at the situation in Europe is revealing when compared to that in the Ottoman Empire. In the beginning of the twentieth century, In France, the amount of fields with vineyards was 2.300.000 hectares, and although suffering from Filoksera, these yards were producing 1.5 milliard Franc annually. Similarly, in Italy and Spain, the corresponding numbers were 1.900.000 and 1.600.000 hectare, respectively. When we turn to the Ottoman Empire, it appears that although 2/3 of its lands were suitable for grape production, only a small part of it was under cultivation. Hence this part of agriculture remained underdeveloped.¹⁷²

When we look at the production of grape in Ottoman lands at the end of 19th century, such a picture emerges: in 1301/1883, 75.212.908 kilograms of grape was

¹⁷² *Derseadet Ticaret Odası Gazetesi*, "Memâlik-i Mahrûsa-i Şahânedede Bağcılık." 30 Rebiyyü'l-Evvel 1305/13 Mart 1888, sec. 159, p. 13.

produced and this yielded a profit of 145.906.429 *kuruş*, and in 1302, 84.487.185 kilograms of grape produced a profit of 182.889.545 *kuruş*. It appears that in 1302 production increased 9.247.277 kilograms, and parallel to this the profit had also increased 32.983.116 *kuruş*. When compared to the production of grape and the profit that it yielded in the above-mentioned European countries, it becomes apparent that relative numbers were rather low in the Ottoman Empire.¹⁷³

Although not very significant in the overall economy of the empire, it appears that grape growing in Kırkkilise and its hinterland contributed remarkably to the economy of the region in the 19th century. The products in this scope were grape, wine and *pekmez* (a thick syrup made by boiling grape juice).¹⁷⁴ Viticulture gained further importance in the region at the end of the 19th century, more specifically in 1305/1889. This development in the region was accelerated by the decline of grape production in France that was caused by *Floksera*. Therefore, France chose Thrace as the suitable place to get high quality grapes that were vital for its worldly famous wines of Bordeaux and Marcilia.¹⁷⁵ From then onwards, France became a permanent consumer of grapes of the region, especially that of Papazkarası. The amount of wine exported in 1889 from this region was 40-50 thousand hectoliter.¹⁷⁶

In accordance with this increasing demand for grape in the region, grape growing gained more importance in Kırklareli. In this period the region had undergone changes to be able to meet the demand. The available vineyards were

¹⁷³ *DTOG*, " Son İki Sene Zarfında Memâlik-i Mahrûsa-i Şahânenin Mahsûlatının Ihrâcatına Dair Cüdûl . " 4 Rebiyyü'l- Evvel 1305/ 20 Eylül 1387, sec. 151, p. 321.

¹⁷⁴ *Yurt Ansiklopedisi*, 7th ed. , s.v. " Kırklareli: " 4811.

¹⁷⁵ See " Kırklareli, Şarköy, Mirafte, Bedre, Üsküp " Ali Rıza Dursunkaya, 95.

¹⁷⁶ *DTOG*, " Kırkkilise Sancağı . " 8 Muharrem 1308/ 24 Ağustos 1890, sec. 295, p. 397.

improved, and widened. Additionally, new suitable areas were appropriated. They tried to increase the production capacity. The total amount of land that was reserved for grape production reached 55-60 thousand *dönüms* (1 *dönüm*: 920 or 1000 square meters).¹⁷⁷ Kırkkilise coming first, two other sanjaks, namely Vize and Midye were also involved in viticulture. In addition to its vineyards; Midye stood out for its natural sources like coal and timber. This was due to its topography which was stony and rich in forest. These contributed greatly to its economy.¹⁷⁸

As for wine production, the total amount of wine that was produced in Kırkkilise in 1305/1889 was 120-130.000 hectoliter. Out of this, 50-60.000 hectoliters were red wine, and 30-40.000 hectoliters were white. Other parts of Kırkkilise also yielded an annual amount of 20-25.000 hectoliters of red and white wine.¹⁷⁹ In 1307/1891, there were 3661 wine producers in Kırklareli, and they produced 6 million 602 thousand *okka* wine in this year. The revenue that it yielded was 639.583 *kuruş*.¹⁸⁰ In 1309/1891, the area with vineyards in Kırkkilise was 120,000 *dönüm*.¹⁸¹ The region exported some of its wine.¹⁸² In Midye, the total amount of vineyards in 1309/1891 was 1480. The corresponding number for Vize

¹⁷⁷ See "... Namazgah mevki'inden başlayıp , Ahmatça, Karakoç, Seyhandere'ye kadar olan bölge. Diğer bir kısım Bademlikten Koyunbaba yoluna, Eriklice, Karahıdır'a , Kavaklıya kadar olan alan. Hacılardan itibaren başlayıp Asılbey'e Balaban dan itibaren şehri dört bir taraftan çevrilmiştir..." Dursunkaya, 88.

¹⁷⁸ *Edirne Vilayet Salnamesi*, 1309/1891, 259.

¹⁷⁹ *DTOG*, " Kırkkilise Sancağı. " 8 Muharrem 1308/ 24 Ağustos 1890, sec. 295, p. 397.

¹⁸⁰ Dursunkaya, 96.

¹⁸¹ *Yurt Ansiklopedisi*, 7: 4813.

¹⁸² See "1 milyon 896,130 kilo şarap ihracatından 43936 kilo Tirysteya, 1.533000 kilo İskenderiye'ye, 30 bin kilo Bulgaristan'a, 100 bin kilo Rumeli Şarkiye gönderilmiş ve 100 bin kilo şarapla 500 bin kilo rakı İstanbul, Edirne ve civar kazalardan sarf edilmiştir. " Dursunkaya, 96.

was even higher 3926. The latter had also a factory producing *raki*.¹⁸³ It can be seen that Kırkkilise was the main center of wine production in the region. The Mustard (*hardaliye*) of Kırkkilise was as famous as its wine. There were shops selling Kırkkilise mustard in Istanbul, Şehzadebaşı and Direklerarası. It was in demand, especially in Ramadan, among the Muslim people who did not consume alcoholic drinks. The region also supplemented the market of Istanbul with *sucuk* (a sweet confection made of nuts coated with a paste made of grape molasses) with walnut and almond, various kinds of *pekmez*, and jams.¹⁸⁴

¹⁸³ *Edirne Vilayet Salnamesi*, 1309/1891, 259.

¹⁸⁴ *Yurt Ansiklopedisi*, 7: 4813.

A -VINTAGE

Vintage used to begin on the 27th of September according to solar calendar and lasted twenty days. Various groups of people were involved in this organization of gathering grapes.¹⁸⁵ *Doğramacıs* and *marangozs* (carpenter), *arabacıs* (driver or constructor of wheeled vehicles), *küpçüs* (earthenware jug-maker), *çömlekçis* (potter maker), and *tüfekçis* (gun-smith) participated in this organization. The artisans in the bazaar of *tüfekçis* were making knives and *bıçaklı zıvanas* for cutting the bunches of grapes and pruning the vineyard. Barrels of varying size for grape must (*dipli sıra fiçıları*) were also made. The barrels and boards for grape must that were produced in the region were both used in the domestic market and exported to surrounding areas.¹⁸⁶

The barrels were of great importance for having delicious wine. They, especially those used during vintage, needed to be cleansed carefully. Leaving them without cleansing and drying caused the wine stored in them to be spoiled. Barrels first had to be washed with water. Then they were dusted with sulfur. In this process of sulfuring, a sulfured wick was placed in a barrel. This prevented the barrel from spoiling. After getting the wick out, the stopper was plugged. The same procedure was repeated before pouring the wine to the barrel. This prevented the wine to have a bad smell. All these contributed to the fame that Ottoman wines had in Europe.¹⁸⁷

For *şirahanes* *doğramacıs* and *marangozs* were producing wooden baskets that could carry 5 to 10 *okkas* of grapes. *Arabacıs* were responsible for making and

¹⁸⁵ Karaçam, 78.

¹⁸⁶ *Edirne Vilayet Salnamesi 1293/1876: 131; Edirne Vilayet Salnamesi, 1288/1871, 175.*

¹⁸⁷ DTOG . “Şarab Kabı.”, 18 Muharrem 1307/ 3 Eylül 1890, sec. 246, p. 437.

repairing the vehicles to carry the grapes. *Küpçüs* and *çömlekçis* were making earthenware jars for *pekmez* and jam, and jugs for grape must. Hence these artisan groups were indispensable to viticulture. They were also vitally important in the economic activities of the region, especially in the of domestic market. The wood necessary to boil the *pekmez* were coming from the villages of Kırklareli. During vintage, day laborers were hired among the owners of vineyards and villagers to gather the grapes and transport them.¹⁸⁸ Parallel to the developments in viticulture, more people began to be employed in these crafts which in turn enlarged the economic capacity of the region.

Vintages involved two main stages. Gathering grapes and transporting them to *şaraphane*, the place where the wine was produced. The season was critical in vintage. Dry weathers without any dew were the most suitable for vintage.¹⁸⁹ Wet grapes would produce 5 – 10 % more grape must than the dry ones could but they were of lower quality. Vintage needed to last only one day. Gathered grapes were squeezed in the same day. In gathering the grapes, scissors and pocketknives were used. They were not gathered by hand not to damage them. They were gathered in baskets and saddles.¹⁹⁰ During vintage, tents and awnings were pitched along the road. Those *şirahanes* that were to send the produce the city were inspected by certain officials.¹⁹¹ In Thrace, wooden baskets made by Greek grape-growers were used in transporting the grapes. They could be carried by humans. Gathered grapes

¹⁸⁸ Dursunkaya, 101.

¹⁸⁹ DTOG. "Şarab." 26 Rebiyyü'l- Ahir 1306/ 30 Aralık 1888, sec. 208, p. 611.

¹⁹⁰ Arif Akman, *Şarapçılık* (Ankara: Ankara Üniversitesi 1952): 4-5.

¹⁹¹ Dursunkaya, 102.

were carried to the *şaraphane* by animals and vehicles. Grapes were not to be left so long in baskets or in a heap in hot weather. In many parts of Thrace, grapes were gathered in stone pools and squeezed there by foot. In some places these pools were called *şirahane* or *çaraş*. In Thrace, in small wine-producing factories which were not equipped with special equipment for squeezing grape or had no mills, grapes were squeezed by foot in wooden¹⁹² holed troughs which were put over big cylindrical barrels called *kados*.¹⁹³

¹⁹² They were made of wood called *çifit*.

¹⁹³ Necati Gönencer, *Şarap ve Şarapçılık* (İstanbul: Osmaney, 1945): 31-33.

B- PROBLEMS OF THE PRODUCERS

The history of viticulture in the town Kırkkilise, which was included in Edirne province goes as far back as two hundred years. The yield used to be sold through the *şirahanes* which were of three categories was determined on the basis of their storage capacity: *ala* (big) *şirahane*, *evasıt* (middle) *şirahane*, and *edna* (small) *şirahane*. Its price was determined in two ways. It was either farmed out (*iltizamen*) as it was the case in tax-collection or given on deposit (*emaneten*).¹⁹⁴ There were various authorities involved in the process of determining the tax (*öşr*/tithe) that was due to grape. Take for instance the example of Kırkkilise which was producing both wine and raki.¹⁹⁵ There the authorities involved were: tax-farmer (*mültezim*) who was farmed out to collect the taxes of a certain region by auction and paid a lump price to the central treasury, the notables of the region (*muteberan*), Kırkkilise Council of Administration (İdare Meclisi), and Council of Sanjak (Meclisi Liva).¹⁹⁶

There were problems that arose between these authorities and grape producers. The struggle between the tax-farmers and the producers was reflected in the documents to a remarkable degree. Tax-farmers sought to profit when they engaged in collecting taxes on behalf of the state. In auction, the tax-farmers offered the state a lump sum which was determined by taking into consideration the expenditures that a tax-farmer was likely to make in collecting taxes and the potential profit.¹⁹⁷ A certain amount of the price that was determined by the auction was paid

¹⁹⁴ BOA., ŞD.EDİRNE 1915/3, (19), (H. 1305, M. 1887).

¹⁹⁵ Edirne Vilayet Salnamesi, 1309/1891, 259.

¹⁹⁶ BOA., ŞD. EDİRNE, 1907/59 (3/1), (H. 1288, M. 1872).

¹⁹⁷ Şevket Pamuk, *Osmanlı Türkiye İktisadi Tarihi 1550-1914*, (İstanbul: Gerçek, 1990), 195.

through immediately, and the remaining was to be paid on an installment plan. In this kind of contract, it appears that the state, in a way, made use of the tax-farmer by making him pay a ready money to it.¹⁹⁸

With the declaration of the second Constitution, some changes were introduced to the system of tax-farming. They appear to have been mostly in favor of the tax-farmers. The role of local administrations increased in the process of farming out by auction, and it began to work in a more orderly. Tax-farms began to be sold by auction to candidates of tax-farmers in the presence of a commission composed of an official called *mal müdürü*, who was under the administrative suzerainty of the governor of the district (*kaymakam*), and Council of Administration that was made up of the notables of the region.¹⁹⁹

The amount of tax that was due to grape products in the town of Kırkkilise in 1288/1871 was calculated in the following way: Big (*ala*) *şirahanes* were supposed to pay 25 *kuruş*, middle (*evasıt*) ones 23 *kuruş*, and the small (*edna*) ones 20 *kuruş* as tithe (*öşr*). Upon the complaints of tax-farmers, a member of the Committee of Kırkkilise (Kırkkilise Meclisi), namely Tanaş Ağa, was sent to the town to inspect the situation. Tax-farmers claimed that the amount of tithe was determined on a lower level without any recourse to tax-payers, local notables, and the tax-farmers. After the inspection, Tanaş Ağa confirmed the claim of tax-farmers. Subsequently, the amounts were changed to 35 *kuruş* for big (*ala*) *şirahanes*, 30 *kuruş* for middle (*evasıt*), and 25 *kuruş* for small (*edna*) ones.

¹⁹⁸ Osman Okyar, *Türkiye İktisadi Tarihi Seminer: Metinler Tartışmaları*, ed. Osman Okyar and H. Ünal Nalbandoğlu (Ankara: Hacettepe, 1975), 233.

¹⁹⁹ Necdet Sakaoğlu "Mültezimlerin Aşar Toplama Yöntemleri," *Tarih Toplum*, 5 (1986): 5-7.

In the year 1304/1886, the amount the of tithe appears to have been changed in Kırkkilise: 37 *kuruş* for big (*ala*) *şirahanes*, 32 *kuruş* for middle (*evasıt*), and 27 *kuruş* for small (*edna*) ones. These numbers were also same in its two villages, namely Kavaklı, and Üsküp. In addition, it was also fixed by the Council of Administration in Kırkkilise that in retail selling, one *kayye* of grapes was sold at 10 *pare*, with 6 *kuruş* as tithe.²⁰⁰ Moreover, upon the request of the tax-farmers, a new arrangement was made concerning the prices, that is, a higher price than the one offered by the council was determined. In turn, this increase in the amount of tax affected the grape producers badly who were supposed to pay it.²⁰¹ They indicated their grievances by sending a petition (*istidaname*) to the governor (*mutasarrıf*) of the sanjak. Upon this petition, Enver Bey, the director of the provincial courthouse (Vilayet Adliye Müdürü) was sent to Kırkkilise for inspection. In his report, the director indicated that the prices determined by the council of the sanjak (Meclis-i Liva) as 45 *kuruş* for *ala*, 40 *kuruş* for *evasıt*, and 35 *kuruş* for *edna şirahanes* were not so high as to create a burden on the people.

It appears that the notables of the region had also played a significant role in the decision of the aforementioned director.²⁰² At this point, it is necessary to mention the intervention of notables in the power relations of the region. They were the group talking and deciding on behalf of the producers. The point that needs to be questioned is the degree of the sincerity of these notables. In other words, were they

²⁰⁰ BOA., ŞD. EDİRNE 1915/3 (36), (H. 1305, M. 1887).

²⁰¹ Ibid., (19).

²⁰² Ibid., (36).

really caring for the producers? It is hard to determine on the basis of the available documents whether they had usurped the producers. However, it is certain that they were affecting to a certain extent the process of determining the amount of tax that the producers were to pay.

Another authority involved in the process of determining the tax was the Council of Administration of Kırkkilise (Kırkkilise Sancağı İdare Meclisi). The prices determined by this council did not necessarily coincide with those offered by tax-farmers. If a tax-farmer found the prices offered by the Council to be low, he could easily apply to the Council of District (Meclis-i Liva) to complain. In turn, Council of District could increase the prices in favor of the tax-farmers.²⁰³

To acquire the revenue from the region, the center did not rely solely on the system of tax-collection that revolved around the tax-farmers and villagers. In other words, the process of tax-collection did not involve only the tax-farmers and villagers. There were commissions that were established to produce solutions to the problems that arose over tax-collection. But in the final analysis, it appears that these commissions were deciding mostly in favor of the tax-farmers. This paved the way for the emergence of two vitally important problems: a continuing increase in the amount of debt that the people of the town accumulated and who fled the vineyards. These are all indicative of disorders in the system of tax-farming that in turn affected the process of production negatively.²⁰⁴ The state, apparently, did not involve so vigorously in the process of wine production and fixing its price to the extent that it involved in other products of the region. For instance, it had a strict policy

²⁰³ Ibid.

²⁰⁴ BOA., ŞD. *EDİRNE* 1946/13, (H.1325, M. 1909).

concerning the forest products drawn from Kırkkilise and its hinterland. This situation can partly be attributed to the importance of coal and wood for the people of the empire, both military and *reaya* (subject people).

C- DECREASES IN WINE PRODUCTION

The main factors that affected viticulture in Kırkkilise and its hinterland were the state policy, Floksera, and the conditions of transportation.

The state's policy on the grape yield was causing problems between the center and the people of the region. The loose policy of the state concerning the grape producers in the region caused the producers not to have a remarkable income from viticulture. To exemplify state's loose policy one can mention the importation of cheap drinks (*müskirat*) and grain alcohol (*ispirto*) from other places, and the negligence in taking the measures to protect these producers.²⁰⁵ When looked at in detail, it appears that the expenditures a producer had to make in the process of grape cultivation were various: costs of transporting to *şirahanes* and *mağazas*, hiring a watchman, repairing the barrels and canisters, and real-estate tax, and tithe. For instance, in (H.1329, M1911) a viticulturist who produced 1000 *medre* (1 *medre*: 10-11.5 kg.) of wine could have an income of 3400 *kuruş*, out of which 2800 *kuruş* was spent for expenditures. That is, there remained 600 *kuruş* as profit. Considering that the same viticulturist had also to make a living for his family which consisted of more or less 5-6 people, and had to pay an annual amount of 200 *kuruş* as real-estate tax, it appears that he no longer deemed viticulture a profitable occupation.²⁰⁶ Another burden on the grape growers was another tax (*resm*) that they had to pay when they exported wine. Its amount was 1 % of the whole amount of export. They demanded this tax to be cancelled.

²⁰⁵ Ibid.

²⁰⁶ Ibid.

Floksera, affecting seriously the vineyards was another problem that the producers had to struggle. It was first appeared in Aydın, a province of the empire that was rich in vineyards. In Kırklareli, it was first noticed in 1323/1905, and within two years it had destroyed 22.000 *dönüms* vineyards out of a total of 55.000 *dönüm*. To prevent further damages, the state urged to take measures. The region was put in quarantine: no single plant, leaf, flower, sapling or tree from regions inflicted with Floksera were to enter the region. The viticulturists in the region who noticed signs of Floksera in their vineyards were obliged to inform the authorities about the situation. Upon such an informing, officials were sent to inspect the situation. If there was danger of Floksera in the vineyards in question, they were kept under inspection. Such controls were repeated by the order of the Ministry of Trade and Agriculture (*Ticaret ve Ziraat Nezareti*).²⁰⁷ In addition, grapevines from America began to be planted in the region to compensate for the losses. However, the result was not a success.²⁰⁸

Transportation was not without problems. Producers were demanding they transport their yield to ports that were closest to their location, instead of carrying them to the regions announced by the center. Furthermore, they did not want their yield to be transported by the mediation of wardens.²⁰⁹ That the center of town (*nefs-i Kırklareli*) was far from the shore and hence from the ports, and from the railway

²⁰⁷ BOA., *A DYN. MKL.* 15/10, (H.1296, M1881).

²⁰⁸ BOA., *DUI* 66-2/10-32; 66-2/10-1 (H. 1336, M. 1917).

²⁰⁹ *DTOG.*, sec. 159, p. 14.

road was a serious handicap for the grape growers and this in turn hindered the development of viticulture in the region.²¹⁰

In the final analysis, it appears that there was an ongoing process in the methods of grape growing in the region. This was concomitant with the decrease of the economic power of the region. Due to the above mentioned reasons, the region could not realize its potential in grape growing, and accordingly Kırkkilise and its hinterland could not become a stable supplier of grape products.

²¹⁰ BOA. , ŞD. EDİRNE 1946/3, (H. 1289, M. 1872).

CHAPTER FOUR

CONCLUDING REMARKS

A- KIRKKİLİSE AND TRADE

In the last quarter of the 19th century and at the beginning of the 20th century, some increase in the trade of Kırkkilise and its hinterland can be seen. The reasons can be the increase of demand for the production of the region and the coming of foreign capital to the region. Although there were some attempts to broaden the trade of the region by applying to the center, they failed. The inhabitants of the *kaza* of Midye demanded the despatch of ships twice a week from Istanbul to the port along the Black Sea coast. The answer of the center was the impossibility of sending the ship that belonged to Aziziye Company, as the trade capacity of the town was not satisfactory, thus, the arrival of the ship in port and its taking passengers did not meet the expenditure.²¹¹ In a proposal that was sent from Edirne on 19 July 1323/1905, it was written that the forests in *kazas* of Ahtabolu and Midye had been administrated for a long time and cut wood and produced charcoal which were sent to the capital city by private ships. It was explained that if a ship was sent to Ahtabolu and Midye ports twice a week and if suitable cuts from the abundant forests the region were sent by these ships, thousands of *lira* would be gained. The expression of “ship” (*vapur*) is very important. While previously used *sefine*, *çektirme* and so on were not so big in tonnage, now the expression “ship” (*vapur*) was used which could possibly be indication of trade in big size. Moreover, it was also stated that to prevent smuggling, coast-guard ships should be sent to the region.²¹² On the other hand, the impossibility

²¹¹ BOA. , *ŞD. EDİRNE* 1908/47, (H.1289, M. 1873).

²¹² BOA. , *DH. MUI* 29-2/3, (H. 1325, M. 1907).

of fulfilling these demands was indicated by the Ministry of Forest, Mining and Agriculture. In a document that was written by the governorship of Edirne on 16 June 1325/1907, we see that ports of Ahtabolu and Midye were not open to foreign trade. It was explained that with the control and permission of the Forest Administration, wood and charcoal were sent to Istanbul and this process and controlling fuel that would be sent outside would be a great expense for this office and especially this would affect the navy negatively. Moreover, it was again indicated that demanding 45 percent cash or voucher as a guarantee for wood and charcoal that would be sent from the region by *Rüsumat* Administration would create difficulties.²¹³

²¹³ BOA. , NGG. 15/3 , No: 232354, (H.1325, M. 1907).

B- FOREIGN CAPITAL

One of the reasons of the rapid development of the Ottoman trade after 1898 was the increase of demand for Ottoman raw materials by Europeans. Another reason was the railroads which were constructed with foreign capital.²¹⁴ The search for new markets, abundant and cheap raw material and the struggle to find new people by Europeans increased with the participation of Germany in the 1880's. Between the 15th and 18th centuries mines of the Empire were completely under the control of the State. Yet, rich mines of the Balkans and Anatolia were the closest regions to meet the needs of European industry.²¹⁵ In the 19th century and at the beginning of the 20th century, the period between 1886 and 1897 was the most active period of railway construction. In this period, with German capital railroads between Central Anatolia were constructed and with French capital railways in Syria, Macedonia and Western Anatolia were constructed.²¹⁶ This railway network both provided a link between interior regions and ports and reduced the cost of transportation. Foreign companies became agents of mining Ottoman natural sources to meet the necessities of European industry throughout the 19th century.

When this atmosphere was dominant in the Empire, England applied for iron mines in the region. The privilege of the administration of the iron mine and *demirhane* of Samakocuk the *kaza* of Midye of Edirne was given with an imperial

²¹⁴ Kasaba, *The World Economy*, 87-88.

²¹⁵ Quataert, *Workers, Peasants and Economic Change*, 79.

²¹⁶ Şevket Pamuk, *Osmanlı Ekonomisinde Bağımlılık ve Büyüme 1810-1913* (İstanbul: Türkiye Ekonomi ve Toplumsal Tarih Vafı, 1994), 36.

edict in 1328/1910 for 99 years to Hug Hanşal and Baron Sidney who were the citizens of England.²¹⁷

In the contract, the procedure of the opening of the iron mine and *demirhane* was determined. There was an item about the exploration of the region to open new wells, chimneys and roads and the procedure related to the buildings and underground of mining region to get the authorization. Tax-farmers would be interested in damages that might emerge. The important point was that whatever the process both the inhabitants and the area should not suffer any losses. If a kind of postponement or vacation was under consideration, the expenses would again be paid by the tax-farmer. The tax-farmer could not object to the construction of a building or a way for public benefit on the mining area. If in this area a mine was found, the activity could only begin with the approval of experts and the Ministry of Trade.²¹⁸

Consequently, items were prepared by considering the benefit of laborers and the inhabitant's benefits. The main point in the contract was the protection of existent social structure while the ground for economic development was prepared. At the same time, positions that could threaten security were avoided. Demands for the opening of the mine: After signing *şartname* and *mukavelename*²¹⁹ a complex period of delaying foreigners began English investors unable to get a positive response to their attempts. So, the foreign capital could not be effective in the region.

²¹⁷ BOA. , ŞD. HU. 1239/21 (6/1), (H. 1328, M. 1910).

²¹⁸ Ibid.

²¹⁹ See appendix, Ibid.

It was stated that although for the administration of the mine documents that were given to *Şura* by the Ministry of Forest and Mine, the documents were still not approved by the Ministry of Economy and *Nafia* despite the end of April. Moreover, 1 000 *Osmanlı lirası* as guaranteeing money was paid in March. As it was impossible to work in the mine in winter, foreigners demanded the conclusion as soon as possible.²²⁰

When we look at the problem of giving the concession of the administration of the iron mine and *demirhane* in the Samakocuk Village of the *kaza* of Midye of Kırkkilise Sanjak of Edirne, we see that Hug Hanşal and Baron Sidney stated that they were in a difficult situation. A petition demanded the promulgation of the imperial edict concerning the approval of the opening of Samakocuk mine and was sent to the Derseadet on 22 April 1328/1910, but it was not answered. So, as the process was postponed without a reason, there arose some problems. First of all, the month of June that was the most suitable period for mining ended and in winter mining was impossible and thus, all works were postponed to the next year. Moreover, the clients met with a great economic loss.²²¹

After a period of delaying, the privilege that was given to Hug Hanşal and Baron Sidney was cancelled with the imperial edict that was sent on 5 February 1328.²²²

When we evaluate the case, we see that the cancellation date of the privilege was 1913 the beginning at the Balkan Wars. So, we can say that it was cancelled for

²²⁰ BOA. , *ŞD. HU 1239/21 (5)*, (H.1328, M. 1910).

²²¹ BOA. , *ŞD. HU. 1239/ 21(9)*, (H. 1328, M.1910).

²²² BOA. , *Meclis-i Vükela Mazbataları 244/ 38*, (H. 1334, M. 1915).

security reasons . On the other hand, between 1910 and 1913 a delaying policy for foreign entrepreneurs was implemented. Yet this led to a cessation in the production and hence, the area of movement of the region was narrowed down by the State. One of the reasons for the delay could have been that the State did not want to give trade opportunities to foreigners. When we look at the region generally, we see that the region had possibilities for foreign trade but because of the policy of Istanbul, these possibilities could not be realised.

CONCLUSION

Some cities preserved their significance during the structural change that occurred to meet the raw material needs of Europe in the 19th century. On the other hand, some of them gradually increased their importance in Ottoman organization.²²³ When we evaluate this question in terms of the connection of the region with Istanbul and the system within itself, we can come to certain conclusion:

The connection of Kırkkilise and its hinterland with Istanbul was a disadvantage for the region. However, it was an advantage for Istanbul during the 19th century, because the goods coming from the region went to Istanbul with low transportation costs.

No doubt in the 19th century Vize was more advantageous than Kırkkilise as for as location is concerned. This was rooted in its proximity to the sea . The trade to Istanbul took place via ports in Rumeli coast of Black sea. Kırkkilise on the other hand was located further than the coast. The railway was constructed in Kırkkilise at a later period. The railway between Istanbul, which was 318 km. long, was built during 1868-1869, but this was connected to Kırkkilise during 1911-1913.²²⁴ Therefore, sea transportation was an important means for the region's trade, and didn't lose its significance during the 19th century. On the other hand, the volume of maritime activity in the ports of the region didn't increase during the period in question. No change took place in the trade with Istanbul.

²²³ Çağlar Keyder, Eyüp Özveren, and Donald Quataert, *Osmanlı İmparatorluğunda Liman Kentleri* (İstanbul: Tarih Vakfı Yurt Yayınları), 1994.

²²⁴ *Yurt Ansiklopedisi*, 7: 4814.

During the 19th century, production capacity was not very high. However, at the beginning of the 20th century, some measures were taken in order to vitalize trade, but the region wasn't affected positively by these activities. This approach was a result of the policy of İstanbul. According to the provisioning policy of the state, forest products and iron, which were necessities and used by the in military, went to a market reserved for İstanbul. Therefore, these products were designated for İstanbul. As a conclusion, Producers didn't search for other places during the 19th century. Because there was a market in which they would sell their own products and where the buyers were waiting.

The potential of the region was rooted in forestry products, iron and grapes in the late 19th century. Timber had been supplied to Tersane-i Amire and Tophane-i Amire. Charcoal had been supplied to İstanbul citizens from this region as well. Iron was allocated to Tersane-i Amire and Tophane-i Amire for only military necessities. Also grapes had been sent to the İstanbul market. However, besides charcoal, timber and iron, which were used for necessary needs of the İstanbul citizens, had been taken from this region with relatively more rigid inspections than grape and were transported to İstanbul directly. A commission is mentioned consisting of producers, *mültezim* and local notables especially during the determination of grape prices. This situation had prepared suitable conditions for the presence of a more independent area from the central government.

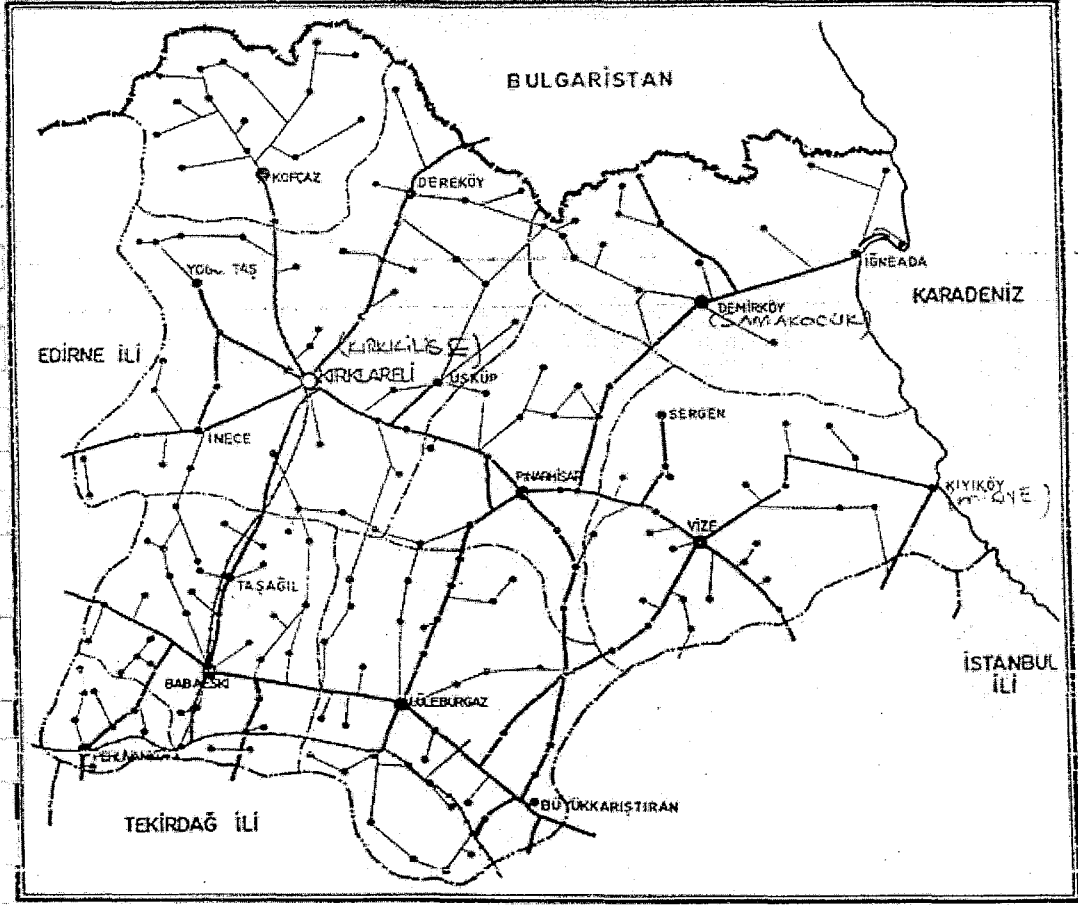
At the same time we can talk about an organized structure in both technical and administrative aspects. Some places were connected to the mine areas to supply the needs during the production activities. With this system, an attempt was made to get regular production for İstanbul. On the other hand, there was a contradiction

observed in the mine areas also- the destruction of forests. By producing iron, forests had been exhausted which were important sources of income for this region.

Some questions remain unanswered in our study. Insufficiency of secondary literature, some interruptions in archival documents and not being able to follow the events, result in unanswered questions. For example, we can't find information about the positions of laborers who came to work in new mines settled in Samakocuk. Related to this, the positions of the laborers working in the mines, working conditions in this region are explained only limitedly. Nonetheless, one can conclude that, although the region had the potential to expand outside, because of the policy of the center this potential could not be put to use during the 19th century.

APPENDIX

KIRKLARELİ İLİ



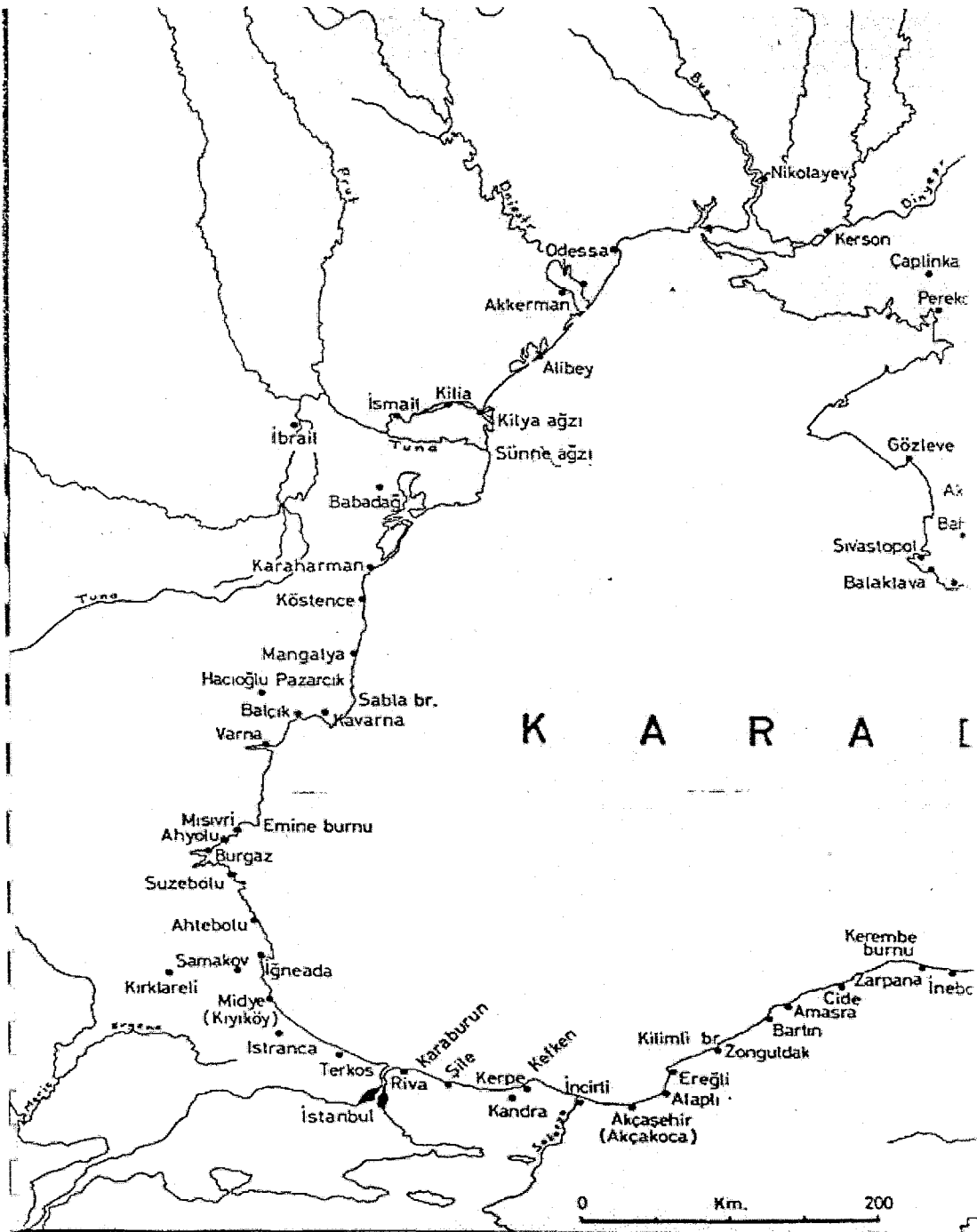
(MAP 1)

The location of Kırklareli. *Kırklareli İl Yıllığı* (Kırklareli: 1973),45.



(MAP 2)

The location of Vize. *Edirne Vilayet Salnamesi*, 1301/1883.



(MAP 3)

The main centers for dispatching firewood and charcoal. P. M. Bijişkyan, *Karadeniz Kıyıları Tarih ve Coğrafyası* (1817-1819), trans. Hrand D. Andreasyan (İstanbul: İstanbul Edebiyat Fakültesi Basımevi, 1969).

ایمان نامه

معدن دولت عثمانیه

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وزیر بحریه
وزیر جنگ
وزیر مالیه
وزیر داخله
وزیر امور خارجه
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Ticâret ve Zira‘at Nezâreti

Mâden Müdiriyet-i Umûmiyesi

‘Aded

Edirne vilâyeti dâhilinde Kırkkilise Sancağında Midye kazâsında _____ nâhiyesinde Samakocuk karyesinde arâizi-yi emîriyede de vâk‘i olûb mekşûfen müzâyede edilen demir mâdeni ile demirhânenin İngiltere devleti teb‘asından Londra dâhilinde * altmışbir numarada mukim (Hug Hanşal Vilyamsun) ile Notumirland Kontluğunda *(Şarl Sidney * Baron) uhdesinde ihâle kılınacak olan bir kıta mekşûf demir mâeni ile demirhânenin şerefsudûr buyrulacak olan imtiyaz ferman-ı âlisine derc olunacak mukâvelenâmesidir .

Birinci madde Edirne vilâyeti dâhilinde Kırkkilise sancağında Midye kazâsında _____ nâhiyesinde Samakocuk karyesinde _____ arâizi-yi emiriyede kâin bir kıta mekşûf demir madeni ile demirhânenin şerefsudur buyrulacak olan fermân-ı âlisi tarihinden itibaren işledilmesi imtiyaz-ı 99 sene müddetle ve şerâit-i âtiye ile mûma-a ileyh uhdesinde ihâle ve ilzâm olunmuştur.

İkinci madde harita-i mahsûsada gösterildiği vecihle mezkur madenin hafri ve ‘imâli içün 3404cerîb arâzi tahsis olunmağla iş bu arâzinin hudûdu şimalen Torliye mevkiînden bede’ ile Kala Tepesinden bi’l- mürûr Samakof deresi ile Mürtad deresinin telakki ettiği nokta-i belde’ hatt-ı münkesir şarken mezkûr noktadan bede’ ile Murtad deresi Mürtad deresi mecraasını t‘akib ederek Murtad ve Çamur

* Okunamadı.

derelerinin birleştigi nokta-i beyyinede hatt-ı münkesir cenûben mezkûr noktadan bede' ile Murtad dağı tepesine hatt-ı mustakim garben mezkûr tepeden bede' ile * dağı tepelerinden bi'l mürûr hudud olan Torliye Kilisesi mevki'ne hatt-ı münkesir ile mahdûddur.

Üçüncü madde bilada muharrer hudûd ile tahdîd olunan arzi dahilinde kâin mezkur demir mâdeni ile mahlûd olmayarak zuhûr edecek olan sâi'r cins madenler bu ihâleye dâhil olmadığından onlar için gerek mültezim mum-a ileyha ve gerek sâirleri tarafından taleb ve istid' a vukû bulduğu halde maden nizamnamesinin 42. Maddesi hükmüne tadbîken muâmele-i mukteziye icra kılınacaktır.

Dördüncü madde işbu madde için berveci-i muharrer olunan 3474 cerib arazinin Maaden Nizamnamesinin 48. ve 49. maddeleri mûcibine beher cerib için resm-i mukarrer olmak üzere Osmanlı altunu 100 gurus hesabıyla senevi onar gurusdan 34.740 gurus ile mezkûr resm mikdarının % 6 hesabıyla techizat-ı askeriye akçesi olan 20.084 gurus 40 santim mültezim mum-a ileyh tarafından beher sene Mart ibtidasında Ticaret ve Ziraat Nezareti vasıtasıyla Maliye Nezareti veznesine te'diye kılınacak ve vakt-i mu' ayyinede olunmadığı halde eyyâm-ı menahire için nizamden îcab eden fâizi dahi ayruca ifa olunacaktır. Gerek mezkûr resm-i mukarrer gerek rûsûmat-ı saire ve ceza-yı nakdiler ile tazminat-ı Meaden Nizamnamesinin 7. Ve 57. maddeleri mûcince mültezim mûma- ileyhin eşya-yı menkûlesinden ve bunlar kifayet etmez ise emlakından istifa kılınacaktır.

Beşinci madde mezkûr demir madenin hudûd-u imtiyâziyesi dâhilinde bulunan arazi yalnız mezkûr madenin işledilmesi için itibari olarak tahsis olduğundan iş bu

madenin imalatı diğer bir mültezimin mâden-i imalatını zarar eylediği veya eşhas-ı arâzisinin istimâli lâzım geldiği halde Maden Nizamnamesinin 68. Ve 69. maddeleri mûcibince ve mültezim maden imalat ve ameliyatında mühendis ve ustabaşısından mâ'ada memûrin ve amele-yi teba-i Osmaniyeden kullanıldığı takdirde 71. madde hükmünce iktiza eden muamelât ifa kılınacaktır.

Altıncı madde mâden-i mezkûrdan ihraç olunacak cevherin hâsılat-ı gayr-i safiyesinden % 5 resm-i nisbi ile mezkûr resm-i nisbinin % 6 hesabıyla başkaca techizat-ı askeriye tertibi ve hâsılat-ı menâfi'ından başkaca % 5 gurus ve % 5 pare itası mukarrer olmasıyla rusm-ü mezkura Maden Nizamnamesinin 50. Maddesi hükmüne bi'l – hesab istifa kılınacağı gibi müte'ahhid mûma-ileyh senevi iyası deruhde 51.000 gurus ma techizât itaya mecbur olub şayed bu meblağın mu'adeletinden fazla mâl ihrâç ve nakl edildiği takdirde ânın bedelini dahi başkaca vereceği ve 51.000 gurusluk mal nakl-i idemezse _____ içinde nakle mezûn olacağı ve nakliyat hususunda mûm-a ileyhima vesâit-i münasibe tesis edeceği ve cevher tahmili ve maden işledilmesine muktezi alât ve edevâtın ihraç zımmında bir iskele inşa edilmesi esbâb-ı müceddide-i fevkal'ade zuhûrunda rusûm-u mukarrereyi te'diye kendilerinin mecbûr tutulmayacağı ve Samakocukda kuvve-i askeriye bulunmasına binaen madenin imalatı sektedar olmamak şartıyla hükümete aid levâzımın bila ücret mezkur iskeleye çıkarılacağı kablolarına altmış santimetro arzında da hattı yapılması daha münasib olacağı ve nakliyât-ı madeniyeyi sektedar etmemek üzere vakt-ü hazırda eşya ve mühimmât-ı askeriye ve mülkiyenin bila bedel nakl olunacağı ve beylik sefâin ve cihet-i askeriye namına hareket eden vapurların muâdelinden fazla ihrâç ve nakl eylediği de kavîl hattı ve mûm-a

ileyhima vesaâit- i münâsibe tesis edeceği heyet-i sabıkasıyla kendilerinin mecbur tutulmayacağı heyet-i sabıkasıyla altmış santimetro arzında dahattı salim görülmesine memalik sefain-i ve cihet-i askeriye haricine hareket eden vapurların keزالik aynı şeraitla iskele ve üzerindeki. ve buna mümâsil vesâitden bila bedel istifade ideceği ve esna-yı harbde devletçe lâzım gelen _____kavil hattı ve kablosuna ve vagon vesâir levazımatına vaz-ı yed iderek öteki mahalde kullanılacağı ve bundan dolayı şirketin bir güne itiraz hakkı heyet-i sabıkasıyla hükümetin iade edilmesi lazım geleceği ve ancak meadenin nakli vesait-i nakliye tesis edilebilmesi bunları nevine göre verilecek _____ salim görülmesine mütevakıf olacağı meşruttur.

Yedinci madde mültezim madenin işledilmesi ve ihraç olunacak cevherlerin tedhir ve .tekallis ve izâbe ve kal ve tasfiyesi için Nizamât- ı Belediye hükmüne tevkifen inşa ve vaz ve istimal edeceği kalhâne ve alât ve edevât ve makine ve müteferriat-ı sairesinin evvel emrinde resmi tarifnamelerini Ticaret ve Ziraat Nezaretine itaya mecburdur.

Sekizinci madde zikr olunan demir madeni imâl zımında ihâleye havi tasdir buyrulacak ferman-ı âlinin itasında Maden Nizamnamesinin 47. madesine tevkifen bir defa olarak fermân harcı olmak üzere mültezim mûm-a ileyhima tarafından Nezaret-i müşarü'l-ileyha ya 150 lira ve ve mezkûr ferman-ı ali harcının % 6 hesabıyla başkaca askeriye akçesi olan 9 aded Osmanlı altunu ita kılınacaktır . Mültezim tarih-i ferman-ı aliden itibaren 6 mâh müddet zarfında mezkûr harcları ita ile ferman-ı Ali ye ahz ve mukavele ve şartname ile harita-i mevkiyyesini

te'âtîetmediği takdirde Maden Nizamnamesinin 60. Maddesi mucibince meadenin fesh-i ihale muamelesi icra kılınacaktır.

Dokuzuncu madde mültezim ferman-ı alinin sudûrunda vali-yi vilayet veya mutasarrıf-ı livaya ba istidanâme müracaat ederek mearıf-ı mukteziyeyi ita ile 6 ay zarfında 58.madde mûcibince teslime ve tarih-i teslimde itibaren 59. madde mûcibince 2 sene zarfında küşâad ve imâle mecbûr olduğundan bu müddet zarfında teslim mu'amelesini ifa ve madeni küşâad ve imâl ettiği takdirde Maden Nizamnamesinin 59. ve 60. maddeleri mûcibince madenin ihâlesine müte'allik muâmelat icra olunacaktır.

Onuncu madde mültezim mûm-a ileyhima mezkûr madenin imalatına müteferri kâffe-i ahvâl ve hususatta Maden Nizamnamesinin ahkâmı mündericesine tabiyet ve tadbik-i hareket eyleyeceği misillü ihale ferman-ı alisinin zeyl olarak teatti olunan şartnâmeye ve kavanini ve nizâmat-ı haâliye ve müstakbele-i Devlet-i Aliye ye tamamiyle tevkif hareket edeceğini te'ahhid eder .

Onbirinci madde mültezim mûm-a ileyhima patent nizamnamesi mûcibince kangı sınıf ve derecede bulunur ise o sınıfa patent resmini itaya mecburdur.

Onikinci madde mültezim mûm-a ileyhima tarafından rusmu mukarrere ve nisbiyeye vesaireden ilgası halinde maden-i mezkuradan Avrupaya imrar ve ihrâç olunacak cevherin % 1 ihracat-ı gümrük resmi dahi ma techizat bačkaca rusumu nisbiyesiyle mean te'diye olunacaktır.

Mâdde-i mahsûsa mâden-i mezkurun bulunduđu mevki ve civaârında ve maden yataklarıyla mahreçleri üzerine istihkam ve turuk ve mevaridat-i askeriye inşası iktiza idûbde mağara ve ebniyeleri hedm veya harekât -ı askeriyyeye icrasıyla ameliyat kısmen veya kâmilten tadil itdirildiđi halde mültezim mûma -ileyh hiçbir suretle muhalefete hak ve salahiyeti olamayacağı gibi bir güne zarâr-ü ziyan ve tazminat talebine dahi hak olamayacaktır.

Mukâvelenâme of Mines

We can separate the *mukavelename* of iron mine of Samakocuk into four parts. The first part was the determination of the area, the second one was the taxes, the third part was activities in the mining area and the last one was after getting permission, other processes.

In the *mukavelename* the area of the mine was firstly determined. If in this area, new mines were explored, for these mines new contracts were signed. The signed contract would only be valid for the existent iron mine and *demirhane*.

In the second part, taxes were determined. The tax that was called *resm-i mukarrer* was 100 *kuruş* and the tax-farmer would pay this amount 10 *kuruş* per year and also 34,740 *kuruş* as money of military equipment –*techizat-ı askeriye akçesi*- at the beginning of March each year to the Ministry of Economy by means of the Ministry of Trade and Agriculture. The activities in the mine constituted the third part. The contractor would reserve 51,000 *kuruş* per year for the tool needs of the mine. Moreover, a port would be constructed to transport ore and to carry necessary tools for the administration of a mine. A tax-farmer should act properly in the administration of the mine and in purifying and refining the ore according to the orders of the Ministry of Municipality.

The opening procedure was the fourth stage of the contract. For the production of iron, the tax-farmer would pay for once 150 *lira* to the Ministry as an expense of an edict –*ferman harcı*-. After the promulgation of the edict, the tax-farmer would pay all expenditures in six months. Moreover, the contract would be cancelled if *mukavele*, *şartname* and the sealed map were not submitted. The tax-farmer would apply to the province –*vilayet*- or *liva*, with *mutasarrıflığa istidaname*

for the promulgation of imperial edict. After paying expenditures, he would receive the mine. He had to open and manage the mine in two years after the submission date. For the ore that was exported to Europe by the tax-farmer, 1 percent customs would be paid. If there was an military activity in the mining area, the mine was closed down either completely or partly. In this case, the tax-farmer neither could object nor could demand compensation.

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Dâhiliye Muhâberât-ı Umûmiye İdaresi Belgeler

4- Hatt-ı Hümayûn Collection

5- Irâde Collection :

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6- Meclîs-i Vükelâ Mazbataları

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