

## From Hafsid Tunisia to Ottoman Tunisia in the sixteenth century: Conditions and Causes

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### Abstract:

This article deals with an important station in the history of Tunisia, where the sixteenth century is considered a qualitative leap in the transition from the rule of the Hafids to that of the Ottomans, who were at the height of their power. However, there were circumstances and conditions that characterised Tunisia during this important period of the sixteenth century. Internal conditions alone were not enough to change the situation; there were also external challenges that Tunisia had to overcome, particularly from the Spanish, who had ambitions along the Mediterranean coast. The emergence of the Ottomans in the region changed the Spanish plans. In this paper we will examine the conditions of the transition from the Hafsid to the Ottoman period, as well as the main features and characteristics of the Ottoman period in Tunisia during the sixteenth century.

**Keywords:** Tunisia, Hafsid state, Sublime Porte, Barbarossa brothers.

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### Introduction:

The sixteenth century is considered a qualitative leap in the transition from the rule of the Hafids to that of the Ottomans, who were at the height of their power. However, there were circumstances and conditions that characterised Tunisia during this important period of the sixteenth century. Not only were internal conditions sufficient to change the situation, but there were also external challenges that Tunisia was able to overcome, particularly the Spanish, who had ambitions along the Mediterranean

coasts. The emergence of the Ottomans in the region changed the Spanish plans, and in this research paper we will try to identify the circumstances of the transition from the Hafsid era to the Ottoman period, as well as the main features and characteristics of the Ottoman period in Tunisia during the sixteenth century.

### **Conditions in Tunisia in the first half of the sixteenth century**

After the weakening of the Hafid state, Abu Abdullah ibn al-Hasan (1494-1526) came to power in Tunisia at the end of the Hafid dynasty. His reign was marked by instability due to wars with Arab tribes, who defeated him in several battles, resulting in various regions falling under the authority of the Hafsid state, such as the city of Algiers, which was conquered by the Ottomans (the Barbarossa brothers), and the cities of Bejaïa and Tripoli<sup>1</sup>, which were occupied by the Spanish in 1510<sup>2</sup>. The city of Djerba<sup>3</sup> was also subjected to a campaign in 1511, which was unsuccessful.

Notwithstanding the conditions that characterised the Hafsid state, new signs of change began to appear on the eastern coast of the Maghreb at the beginning of the 10th century AH (16th century CE), represented by the Spanish occupation and the beginning of the Ottoman arrival in Tunisia<sup>4</sup>.

During the reign of Sultan Abu Abdullah Muhammad ibn al-Hasan al-Hafsi, Hayreddin (also known as Red Beard) came with his fleet to the Tunisian island of Djerba and asked for permission to anchor in some of the kingdom's ports. Permission was granted on the condition that he pay a fifth of his profits, which Hayreddin accepted and travelled to Djerba<sup>5</sup>.

Hayreddin arrived on the island, where he met his brother Arooj, and the brothers settled in the city of Tunis, where they continued their seafaring activities and gained great fame in the Mediterranean. After a twenty-day voyage, they seized three ships laden with booty and returned to Tunis, where they distributed the booty among the city's poor<sup>6</sup>.

After the Barbarossa brothers increased their share of the Mediterranean, Sultan al-Hafsi ibn al-Hasan began to harbor resentment towards them and the Ottomans, leading to conflicts between the parties. Some sources suggest that the ruling Hafsid family in Tunisia at this time led the opposition to Hayreddin and his brother Arooj and allied themselves with the Spanish King Charles V, thus becoming subservient to

him. Charles V used this to drive the Barbarossa brothers out of Tunisia and the Maghreb coast<sup>7</sup>.

Charles V took advantage of the conditions of the Hafid state to control its rulers<sup>8</sup>, as there were instances of decline and weakness, especially after the death of Sultan Muhammad ibn al-Hasan, who left a large number of children. He died in 932 AH (1526 CE) and had left the succession to his youngest son, Mawlay Hasan<sup>9</sup>.

### **The Spanish invasion of the Hafsids coasts:**

#### **Béjaïa**

At the beginning of the 16th century, Spanish raids on Oran and the Grand Port intensified as part of the crusades they launched against the Maghreb countries. Once the Spanish had gained control of these two areas, Cardinal Jiménez's second objective was to shift the attack from the Maghreb to the east by targeting Béjaïa, given its strategic importance and status.

The Spanish fleet directed against Béjaïa, under the command of Pedro Navarro, set sail from the Grand Port on 30 November 1509, heading for the Balearic Islands to take them by surprise. They spent December there, receiving reinforcements from Spain.

Count Pedro Navarro sailed with his fleet against Bejaïa, accompanied by 14 large ships loaded with soldiers, without anyone in Bejaïa being aware of his approach. As a result, the inhabitants were taken by surprise during the attack and fled to the mountains, thinking that Don Pedro would soon retreat after plundering the city. However, the Spaniards removed the treasures and valuables from the city and destroyed everything that could not be taken. They managed to build a fortress near the sea in a suitable location along the coast.

The occupation of Béjaïa sounded the alarm in North Africa, as the Spaniards went on to occupy Annaba in the same year, prompting the rest of the cities in the central, eastern and western regions of the country to surrender to the Spaniards and negotiate tribute payments.

The direct Spanish victory over the Bejaïa garrison forced Sultan Hafsids Abu Abdullah to submit to Spanish authority, and the governor of Algiers, Salem al-Toumi, promised to pay tribute.

## **Tripoli**

Spanish forces struggled to control the eastern part of Tunisia against the resistance of the Tunisian people, prompting Pedro Navarro to change his strategy and advance towards the northern coast, taking Tripoli in the west and then tightening the noose on the eastern region.

The reason for targeting Tripoli was that after coming under the Almohad Caliphate, the locals' wealth and trade increased and they became complacent without engaging in warfare due to their lack of military experience. As a result, several ships arrived with various goods, and a merchant from the city bought and paid for all the goods. Another man entertained them and prepared a sumptuous meal sprinkled with spices. When they returned to their homeland, they told their king that they had never seen a place richer in wealth and poorer in weapons, with its people unable to defend themselves against the enemy. This prompted their king to prepare an invasion.

When Navarro's fleet reached the shores of Tripoli, they opened fire on the city at 9am on Thursday 25 July 1510. The Spaniards managed to land 11,000 soldiers and took to the streets of the city to begin fighting. The Spanish campaign consisted of 60 ships, many two-masted ships, 50 three-masted ships and 5 well-armed Maltese ships.

The Spaniards occupied the city after fierce resistance that resulted in the deaths of thousands of defenders, with 6,000 Tripolitans killed and more than fifteen thousand captured. In addition, 180 Italians enslaved by the Tripolitans were freed.

## **Djerba**

Christian Europe received the news of the occupation of Tripoli with great joy, and this success encouraged the kings of Spain to continue their campaigns against North Africa. To maintain their hold, they sought to secure the Tunisian island of Djerba, which threatened Spanish security in the region.

So the Spaniards made Tripoli their base and tried several times to occupy the island of Djerba. The first attempt took place in the month of Rabi' al-Awwal (916 AH / 1510 CE), and the second in the following month, led by Pedro Navarro.

The Spanish fleet anchored in the Canal of Qantara off Djerba, and the commander sent three Arabic-speaking men with white flags to signal their arrival for negotiations. However, the people of Djerba did not wait for clarification and killed one of them,

forcing the others to throw themselves into the sea. In response to this resistance, Pedro Navarro ordered a retreat. That same year, the Spanish fleet returned to Djerba and besieged the island with 120 ships and 15,000 heavily armed men.

The battle was fought in a stifling heat and ended in disaster, with the Christian forces in chaos and the Arabs massacring them on the spot.

The outcome was remarkable, for God's victory was great; the Spaniards could not withstand the defenders and retreated to their base in Tripoli, where they attempted several attacks. However, autumn storms destroyed most of the ships during the operations. In the winter, the Count planned a campaign against the island of Kerkennah, specifically to secure a naval base for his ships and future operations against Djerba or the coast. However, this operation also failed. The third attempt to occupy Djerba, which took place in 962 AH (1520 CE) under the leadership of the Viceroy of Spain in Sicily, also failed despite the large army, which included a thousand cavalry and more than thirteen thousand infantry.

### **Political Conditions of the Ottoman State at the End of the 9th Century AH / 15th Century CE and the Beginning of the 10th Century AH / 16th Century CE**

#### **First: Ottoman expansion in the East**

At the beginning of the 10th century AH (16th century CE), three major states coexisted in the Islamic East: the Safavid state in Iran, the Ottoman state in Anatolia, and the Mamluk state in Egypt, the Levant, and the Hejaz.

#### **Conflict with the Safavids**

Sultan Selim I made a radical change in Ottoman policy by turning his attention to the Islamic East, recognising the significant dangers posed to the Ottoman state by Shiite activities in Anatolia. He decided to wage war against the Safavid state, beginning with the imprisonment and execution of some forty thousand followers of Shah Ismail in Anatolia. The two armies then met in eastern Anatolia, where Selim won the Battle of Chaldiran in 1514. Shah Ismail narrowly escaped after being wounded and left alone.

The reason for the victory in the battle was that the Ottoman forces used rifles and artillery, while the Safavid forces consisted mainly of Turkish cavalry who used traditional weapons and did not employ modern warfare techniques. This victory

temporarily removed the threat to the Ottoman state, allowing Selim to annex the provinces of Diyarbakir and Kurdistan, occupy Tabriz and relocate thousands of its prominent merchants, artisans and scholars to Istanbul. Local rulers and tribal leaders recognised his authority in 1516 and 1517.

### **Conflict with the Mamluks**

Once Sultan Selim felt secure from the Safavid threat, he turned his attention to the Levant to eliminate the Mamluk state, removing the last obstacle to his leadership of the Islamic world.

On 25 Rajab 922 AH (24 August 1516), the Ottoman and Mamluk armies met at Marj Dabiq, where a fierce battle lasted 8-9 hours, resulting in an Ottoman victory and the dispersal of the Mamluk army. Sultan Selim took advantage of this victory by annexing Aleppo, Hama, Homs and Damascus, where he was welcomed by the inhabitants. From the Levant, Selim sent a message to the Mamluk leader in Egypt, Tuman Bay, ordering him to submit to Ottoman authority. The Mamluks responded by mocking the Sultan's messenger and executing him. Selim then decided to go to war and marched towards Egypt, crossing the Palestinian desert.

Fighting broke out between the two sides on 28 Dhul-Hijjah 922 AH (22 January 1517), resulting in the death of Sinan Pasha. The Mamluk army was unable to overcome the Ottomans due to their superior fighting skills and the destruction of the Mamluk artillery, leading to the retreat of the Mamluk army. This allowed the Ottomans to enter Cairo on 3 Muharram 923 AH (28 January 1517), where a fierce battle lasted for three days, culminating in the surrender of the Mamluks on 5 Muharram 923 AH (30 January 1517). Tuman Bay fled north but was captured by the Ottoman Sultan and executed on 13 February 1517.

After the execution of Tuman Bay, the Sharif of Mecca, Abu Barakat II, sent the keys of the holy places to Selim on 17 July 1517 and declared submission. Syria, Egypt and the Hejaz thus recognised Ottoman sovereignty. However, Ottoman control over Yemen remained relative due to some tribal rebellions.

Once the Ottoman state had succeeded in annexing the eastern Arab regions, particularly Mecca and Medina, it became a caliphate rather than a frontier state, and its sultans began to be referred to as the protectors of the Islamic world. The Ottomans

intervened in the coasts of the Islamic Maghreb under the guise of protecting Islamic property.

### **Second: Ottoman expansion in southern Europe (1521-1532 AD)**

The reign of Sultan Suleiman the Magnificent represents the apogee of Ottoman power and status among the nations of the world at that time. It is regarded as the golden age of the Ottoman Empire, as his reign (926-972 AH / 1520-1566 CE) witnessed unprecedented expansion, with Ottoman territories spreading across three continents.

#### **Conquest of Belgrade (1521 AD)**

Suleiman launched his campaign against Belgrade, which was the key to Central Europe and the strongest Hungarian fortress on the Turkish border. He entered the city on 8 August 1521 and conquered the fortress on 29 August 1521. He remained in the city for 19 days, leaving behind 200 cannons and 3,000 soldiers before returning to Istanbul. Following the Sultan's capture of Belgrade, Venice declared its allegiance to him.

#### **Conquest of Rhodes (1522 AD)**

After the conquest of Belgrade, Suleiman turned his attention to Rhodes, the capital of the Dodecanese, which had been a stronghold of the Knights of St John. This island blocked the route of Turkish pilgrims to the Hejaz and carried out aggressive acts against Ottoman sea routes. The Sultan prioritised its capture and successfully took the island in 928 AH / 1522 CE, taking advantage of Europe's preoccupation with its internal affairs and conflicts to prevent aid from reaching the island's monks, who had fled to Malta after the fall of Constantinople. The Crimean peninsula thus became an Ottoman province.

Conquest of Hungary and the First Siege of Vienna (1521 AD) and the Second Siege of Vienna (1532 AD)

King Vladislav II of Hungary sought to break all the commitments made by his predecessors to the Ottoman sultans.

### **The role of the Barbarossa brothers in the fight against Spanish invasion**

The emergence of the Ottomans in North Africa coincided with increased Spanish attacks on the coasts of Islamic Morocco and the escalation of European piracy in the Mediterranean. Morocco alone could not repel these Crusader campaigns due to its fragmentation, weakness and lack of a central authority, which required strong leadership to unite its diverse population<sup>10</sup>.

In this dire situation for Islamic Morocco, the Barbarossa brothers made their official appearance in Tunisia at the beginning of the sixteenth century. They did so by capturing a ship carrying five hundred soldiers, which they presented to the Hafsid Sultan Abu Abdullah al-Hasan, who was so pleased that he gave them the island of Djerba as their base. It wasn't long before the brothers, Arooj and Hayreddin, had amassed considerable booty and their fame reached Spain. Realising that Djerba was vulnerable and lacked a fortress to take refuge in should the need arise, they sought a safer location. They approached the Sultan of Tunisia, presented him with many gifts and asked for a place of refuge, which the Hafsid Sultan agreed to in exchange for a fifth of their booty. He granted them a place of permanent residence in Halq al-Wad, which was suitable for their pirate activities<sup>11</sup>.

After settling in Halq al-Wad, Arooj and Hayreddin learned of the plight of the Andalusians fleeing Christian persecution and rescued twenty thousand Moriscos, earning them great popularity<sup>12</sup>.

The brothers scored numerous victories over Christian pirates, impressing the weakened Islamic powers in the region. As a result, the Hafsîd governor of Béjaïa asked for their help to expel the Spaniards<sup>13</sup>.

#### **A. The Barbarossa brothers' attempt to liberate Béjaïa**

We will look at Arooj and Hayreddin's attempt to liberate Béjaïa in more detail, as it falls within the Hafsid territories.

This city had been occupied in 916 AH / 1510 CE and its inhabitants had suffered a terrible massacre, prompting them to ask the brothers for help. Bejaïa was the first station where the Ottoman Turkish army landed in Algeria to fight the Christians, and three attempts were made to liberate Bejaïa<sup>14</sup>.

#### **The first attempt (1512 AD)**

The brothers sailed to Béjaïa and encountered 15 Spanish warships. During the confrontation, Hayreddin pretended to flee from the enemy, and when they pursued him, Arooj managed to sink one of the enemy ships. Hayreddin captured another. He then ordered Arooj to retreat, but Arooj disembarked with 50 fighters and some cannons and immediately began to bombard the Spanish fortifications. After eight days of bombardment, a breach was made in the castle wall. However, Arooj was wounded in the left arm by a cannonball, and sixty men were martyred, with many others injured, leading to their retreat to Tunisia<sup>15</sup>.

### **The second attempt (1514 AD)**

Two years after their first defeat, Arooj and Hayreddin had managed to build five ships and were considering finding a base for their operations. They sailed to Jijel and managed to capture it from the Genoese in 1514, establishing it as their base instead of Djerba and Halq al-Wad, as it was closer to the areas of conflict against the Spanish pirates. However, the Sultan of Tunisia began to put pressure on them, causing them to distance themselves from him<sup>16</sup>.

In August 920 AH / 1514 CE, at the request of the scholars of Béjaïa, they launched an attack on the city, but failed to liberate it from the Spaniards.

### **The third attempt (1515 AD)**

This time, in addition to their land army, they called in naval units and managed to impose a siege that lasted three months. During this time, the Muslims ran out of gunpowder and asked the Sultan of Tunisia for help, but he refused, fearing for his own kingdom. Meanwhile, Spain had received enough reinforcements to break the siege. Hayreddin returned to Halq al-Wad, while Arooj settled in Jijel, where Sultan Selim I sent him fourteen ships loaded with supplies<sup>17</sup>.

Béjaïa was not the only city to seek the help of the Barbarossa brothers; the inhabitants of Algiers and Tlemcen also appealed to them to save them from the impending Spanish threat. When Arooj and his brother Hayreddin succeeded in defeating the Spanish forces and inflicting successive defeats on them, weak rulers such as ‘Salem al-Toumi’ conspired against them. Arooj killed Salem in 1518 and declared himself ruler of Algiers. He then moved on to the fortress of Beni Yunus and attacked it, but was unable to take it. He moved on to Tlemcen to subdue the rebellious tribes, where

he fought a fierce battle with the Spaniards, resulting in his death in 1518. His head was severed and taken to Spain, where it was paraded through the streets<sup>18</sup>.

### **The Barbarossa brothers' alliance with the Ottoman state**

The first contact between the Barbarossa brothers and Sultan Selim I occurred when they sent a delegation to Istanbul, led by Piri Reis, to inform Selim that they would continue Kemal Reis' mission despite the increasingly dangerous circumstances for Muslims. They sent six ships loaded with gifts, which the Sultan interpreted positively and rewarded them with two ships loaded with weapons and supplies, as well as other gifts<sup>19</sup>.

The second contact came when Hayreddin was appointed in Algiers to succeed his brother Arooj, who had been killed in western Algeria. This led to a series of uprisings in various regions against Turkish authority, prompting Hayreddin to seek an alliance to stabilise his rule and continue the struggle. He decided to travel to Istanbul and gather the scholars and notables of Algiers to inform them of his desire to meet the Ottoman Sultan to ask for help. The notables refused and asked him to send a delegation on their behalf<sup>20</sup>.

When the delegation arrived at the Sultan's palace in 1518, they were welcomed and their proposal was accepted. Algeria was thus officially subordinated to the Sublime Porte. Sultan Selim quickly granted Hayreddin the rank of Beylerbey, making him the supreme commander of the armed forces and the Sultan's representative. Any aggression against Algeria was considered an aggression against the Ottoman state. He was given a garrison, artillery and some janissary troops.

In this way, the Ottoman state became a formidable power in North Africa, and its status increased as it developed a large fleet to confront the European navies.

### **The incorporation of Tunisia into the Ottoman Empire (1574 AD)**

Hayreddin turned his attention to Tunisia because of the weakness of the Hafsid dynasty and the internal conflicts and problems within the ruling family. He set his sights on Tunisia in 1534 and worked to annex it to the Ottoman Empire<sup>21</sup>, seizing the opportunity to establish control, especially as he had the support of the Ottoman Sultan. Ahmad ibn Abi Dhi'af mentioned that there was a battle between the Hafsid Sultan and Hayreddin, in which the latter emerged victorious, prompting the people of Tunisia to swear allegiance to him. This loyalty was short-lived, however, as Sinan

Pasha<sup>22</sup>, who played an important role in commanding the Ottoman fleet, managed to free Tunisia from Spanish control in 1574<sup>23</sup>. He was appointed governor and reorganised the state<sup>24</sup>.

In March 1574, the Spanish abandoned Banzart, allowing the Ottomans to take Carthage and advance towards the city of Tunis. On 12 July 1574, Sinan Pasha landed his troops near Carthage and on 13 July he began the siege of Halq al-Wad and then the siege of the Bastion of Tunis. After the fall of Halq al-Wad, the Bastion was besieged and on 28 August the Ottoman commanders Ali and Sinan Pasha captured the fortress completely, marking the final loss of Tunisia for the Spanish in North Africa<sup>25</sup>.

The Ottomans replaced the Spanish, who had occupied Tunisia during the reigns of Charles V and Andrea Doria. Without the Ottomans, Tunisia could have become a second or third Andalusia<sup>26</sup>. After the restoration of Ottoman power in Tunisia in 1574 by Ali and Sinan Pasha, Tunisia became an Ottoman eyalet under the authority of the Sublime Porte<sup>27</sup>.

### **Phases of Ottoman rule in Tunisia: the era of the Pashas (1574-1591 AD)**

After the arrival of the Ottoman fleet in Tunisia, Ali and Sinan Pasha organised the country's administration and placed it under the authority of the Beylerbey of Algeria, Ramadan (1574-1577). They appointed deputies to administer the country<sup>28</sup>, which led to several developments, starting with the janissaries who took over some state functions, followed by the establishment of a divan to which some Tunisian notables were appointed<sup>29</sup>.

The first phase of governance was the era of the Pashas, which lasted from 1574 to 1591. This period was characterised by its short duration and the direct subordination of the country to the Ottoman Sultan, with no pasha remaining in power for more than three years<sup>30</sup>. Among the Pashas were Hayreddin Pasha (1574-1575), Raca Pasha (1575-1579), Ramadan Pasha (1579), Jaafar Pasha (1579-1581), Mustafa Pasha (1581-1585), Hassan Pasha (1585-1587), Muhammad Pasha (1587-1590) and Jaafar Pasha (1590-1591).

### **The era of the Dayas (1591-1631 AD)**

After the military coup of the Janissaries against the Divan leaders in 1591, the era of the Pashas ended and was replaced by the era of the Dayas, which lasted from 1591 to

1630<sup>31</sup>. This period was marked by the strength of its rulers<sup>32</sup>, who extended their influence for almost half a century<sup>33</sup>, carrying out far-reaching reforms and achieving security and stability for the country, thanks to resolute figures such as Osman Dahi (1594-1610), who enacted laws known as the “Balance” to ensure security and stability, and Yusuf Dahi (1610-1637), nicknamed the “Protector of Maritime Jihad” for his significant naval actions. This influence did not last long, however, as their power began to wane in favour of the Beys<sup>34</sup>.

### **The era of the Beys (1631-1702 AD)**

After Tunisia came under Ottoman rule in 1574, the government was divided between the Dayas, the Pashas and the Janissaries. However, the rule of the Dayas was short-lived and gave way to the rule of the Beys, who were descended from two families: the Muradids (1602-1702)<sup>35</sup>, founded by Murad Korsu, who held the position of Bey and sought to seize control from the Dayas with the support of local tribes. He held sway over much of the interior until 1631, and the Husaynids (1705-1957)<sup>36</sup>, founded by Husayn ibn Ali al-Turki, who took power at the request of the people with the approval of the Ottoman state<sup>37</sup>.

Despite the Beys’ control over the Dayas and their ability to impose themselves on the country, it did not take long for internal strife to weaken their authority, leading to civil wars between members of the ruling house that lasted almost twenty years (1677-1699 AD)<sup>38</sup>.

### **Administrative structure of the Tunisian Eyalet**

Administratively, the Tunisian eyalet was divided into regions, each headed by a governor who acted as the direct representative of the wali (governor) and had broad administrative and political powers. The governor was responsible for public interests, security and the management of local projects, and relied on local sheikhs and tribal leaders to assist him in his duties. Religious and civil matters were assigned to judges, assisted by religious scholars, in accordance with Islamic law<sup>39</sup>.

In 1521, after the assassination of the envoy of Sultan Suleiman the Magnificent, he responded with a major invasion of Hungary, and fighting continued between the two sides<sup>40</sup>.

In the spring of 1526, the Ottoman army, consisting of 7,000 soldiers and 300 pieces of artillery under the command of Suleiman, faced 150,000 troops made up of

volunteers and reinforcements from Ferdinand and Charles. They reached the marshy plains of Mohács, where within two hours the Sultan's cannon and more manoeuvrable troops had decimated the heavily armoured cavalry. King Louis II was killed in the battle and Hungary fell under Ottoman rule on 29 August 1526 when Suleiman entered the capital, Budapest<sup>41</sup>.

Nevertheless, Hungarian resistance continued. The Sultan kept up the pressure until his forces reached the walls of Vienna in 1529, but he withdrew as a coalition of European powers formed against him. Despite this retreat, Suleiman remained in conflict with the European powers for control of the kingdom and launched another campaign on 25 April 1532, resulting in the Ottoman capture of southern Hungarian fortresses. This led to diplomatic negotiations demanding tribute payments to Suleiman<sup>42</sup>.

During the reign of Sultan Suleiman the Magnificent, the Ottoman Empire experienced significant expansion within Europe, reaching the outskirts of Vienna, although they were unable to conquer it in 935 AH / 1529 CE. They also expanded into the western Mediterranean, reaching central Morocco, where they established the modern Algerian eyalet in 926 AH / 1520 CE, serving as the main base for Ottoman governance in the region and countering Spanish expansion.

## Conclusion

In conclusion, the 16th century was an important period in the history of Tunisia, marked by the weakening of the Hafsid state on all fronts, which opened the door for external powers to control the internal situation. The struggle was mainly between the Ottoman Empire, at the height of its power and seeking to extend its influence in the Mediterranean, and the Spanish, eager to expand southwards and take advantage of the Hafids' weakness. However, the Barbarossa brothers had a different agenda and, with the support of the Ottomans, were able to assert their power and influence in the region.

## Footnotes:

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<sup>1</sup>- Tripoli: A city founded by the Carthaginians in the 5th century BC, known as Oea. Its location occupies the northern edge of the city of Tripoli. It was occupied by the Spaniards in 1510 AD, regained by the Ottomans in 1551 AD, and then seized by the Italians in 1911 AD. For more, see: J. O. H. Benstrat: *The Journey of the German J. O. H. Benstrat to Algeria, Tunisia, and Tripoli*, translated by Nasser al-Din Saïdouni, Dar al-Gharb al-Islami, Tunis, undated, p. 126.

<sup>2</sup>- Ahmad ibn Abi al-Diaaf: *Ithaf al-Zaman bi Akhbar Muluk Tunis wa Ahd al-Zaman*, vol. 2, 2nd ed., Tunisian Publishing House, Tunis, 1977, p. 241.

- <sup>3</sup>- Djerba: A Tunisian island located on the southern side near the Libyan coast, known since ancient times as Djerba, named after a tribe that settled there from the Berber tribes of the Maïa. See: Anonymous Author: The Biography of the Mujahid Khair al-Din Barbarossa, edited and presented by Abdullah Hamadi, undated, Dar al-Qasba, Algeria, 2009, p. 59.
- <sup>4</sup>- Charles André Julien: History of North Africa, translated by Mezali Muhammad and Ben Salama al-Bashir, vol. 2, 2nd ed., Tunis, 1983, p. 324.
- <sup>5</sup>- Ahmad ibn Abi al-Diaaf: Op. Cit., vol. 2, p. 10.
- <sup>6</sup>- Anonymous: The Campaigns of Arouj and Khair al-Din, edited and commented by Nour al-Din Abdul Qadir, Al-Thalabia Press, Algeria, 1934, p. 15.
- <sup>7</sup>- Aziz Samah al-Tur: The Ottoman Turks in North Africa, previous reference, p. 109.
- <sup>8</sup>- Charles V (1500-1558): King of Spain from 1516 to 1556, considered one of the greatest kings in Spanish history. He defeated French forces and declared war on Protestantism. During his reign, the empire expanded in Europe. He abdicated in 1556 and retired to a Spanish monastery. See: Munir al-Ba'albaki: Dictionary of Prominent Figures, a comprehensive encyclopedia of the most notable figures of Arabs and foreigners, ancient and modern, undated, Dar al-Ilm lil Malayin, Lebanon, 1952, p. 255.
- <sup>9</sup>- Ahmad ibn Abi al-Diaaf: Op. Cit., vol. 1, p. 242
- <sup>10</sup>- Taher Toumi: The Relations of the Ottoman Maghreb States with Spain between 1520-1792, Thesis for a PhD in Modern and Contemporary History, supervised by Abdul Qadir Sahrawi, Djilali Liabess University, Sidi Bel Abbes, 2018/2019, p. 45.
- <sup>11</sup>- Aziz Samah al-Tur: The Ottoman Turks in North Africa, translated by Mahmoud Ali Amer, Dar al-Nahda al-Arabiya, 1989, p. 24.
- <sup>12</sup>- Abdel Rahman al-Jilali: Op. Cit., vol. 2, p. 254.
- <sup>13</sup>- Amar Amoura: A Summary of the History of Algeria, Dar Rihane, 1st ed., 2002, p. 88.
- <sup>14</sup>- Mohamed Labassi: The Military Actions of Khair al-Din Barbarossa in Algeria through the Manuscript of the Arrival of Captain Arouj in Algeria and His Brother Khair al-Din by an Anonymous Author from 918 AH/1512 AD to 953 AH/1546 AD, Master's Thesis in Islamic History and Civilization, supervised by Djilali Saltani, 2005-2006, University of Oran, p. 40.
- <sup>15</sup>- Houria Khadass and Fatiha Sahrawi: The Liberation of Oran 1792, Memoir for obtaining a Master's degree in Modern and Contemporary History, Djilali Bounaama University, Khemis Miliana, 2017-2018, p. 16.
- <sup>16</sup>- Yahya Bouaziz: Algeria's Foreign Relations with European States and Mamluks 1500-1830, Dar al-Basair, Algeria, 2009, p. 35.
- <sup>17</sup>- Mubarak Meili: The History of Algeria in Ancient and Modern Times, Al-Nahda Library, vol. 3, Algeria, 1964, p. 38.
- <sup>18</sup>- Abdel Rahman al-Jilali: General History of Algeria, vol. 2, Dar al-Hayat Library, 2nd ed., 1964, p. 222.
- <sup>19</sup>- Mohamed Darraj: Op. Cit., p. 225.
- <sup>20</sup>- Mohamed ibn Ruqayyah al-Tlemcen: The Flowers of Revolt in the Events that Occurred in Algeria When the Infidels Attacked, translated by Khair al-Din Saadi, Cultural Papers, 1st ed., Algeria, 2007, p. [missing].
- <sup>21</sup>- Amar Ben Khrouf: Political Relations between Algeria and Morocco in the 10th Century AH/16th Century AD, vol. 1, Dar al-Amal, Algeria, 2006, pp. 28-29. Also see: Ahmad ibn Abi al-Diaaf: Op. Cit., vol. 2, p. 13.
- <sup>22</sup>- Sinan Pasha: Born in 1506, one of the leaders of the Ottoman armies, credited with the Ottoman jihad, especially in North Africa during the 16th century. He was known for his intelligence and military and political capabilities. He served as a minister to the Ottoman Sultan and was the commander of the campaign on Tunis in 1574. For more, see: Muhammad Farid Pasha, History of the Ottoman Empire, edited by Ihsan Haqi, 1st ed., Dar al-Nafaes, Beirut, 1981, p. 263
- <sup>23</sup>- Haydar Pasha: The first Pasha to rule Tunis from 1574-1575. For more, see: Op. Cit. p. 270.
- <sup>24</sup>- Ibn Abi al-Dinar Muhammad Abu al-Qasim al-Qayrawani: the Guide in the News of Africa and Tunisia, 1st ed., Tunisian Press, Tunis, 1870, p. 176.
- <sup>25</sup>- Nikolai Ivanov: The Ottoman Conquest of the Arab Lands 1516-157, translated by Youssef Attallah, undated, 1988, pp. 253-254.
- <sup>26</sup>- William Spencer: Algeria in the Age of the Sea Raiders, translated and presented by Abdul Qadir Zbadia, undated, National Company for Publishing and Distribution, Algeria, 1980, pp. 137-138.
- <sup>27</sup>- Osman al-Kaak: Relations between Tunisia and Iran throughout History, undated, Tunisian Distribution Company, 1972, p. 58.
- <sup>28</sup>- Mqalati Abdullah: Reference in the History of Modern and Contemporary Morocco (Algeria, Tunisia, Morocco, Libya), University Publications Bureau, 2004, p. 44.

- <sup>29</sup>- Hassan Hosni Abdul Wahab: Summary of Tunisia. Tunisian Publishing House, Tunis, 1983, p. 160.
- <sup>30</sup>- Charles André Julien: Op. Cit., vol. 2, p. 276.
- <sup>31</sup>- Abdul Wahab Hosseini: Op. Cit., p. 161.
- <sup>32</sup>- Abdel Rahman Al-Mouddin and Abdel Rahim Ben Jada: The Ottomans in Morocco through Local and Mediterranean Archives, 2nd ed., Publications of the Faculty of Arts and Humanities, Rabat, 2005, p. 101.
- <sup>33</sup>- Mohamed al-Hadi al-Sharif: History of Tunisia, Sarass Foundation for Publishing, Tunis, 1980, p. 78.
- <sup>34</sup>- Kawthar al-Ayeb: Algerian-Tunisian Relations during the Reign of the Deys 1711-1830, Memoir submitted for obtaining a Master's degree in Modern and Contemporary History, supervised by Mohamed Said Aqiq, University of Wadi, 2013-2014, pp. 21-22.
- <sup>35</sup>- The Mouradi Family: This family ruled Tunisia from 1631 to 1702, descending from Murad Bey, originally Murad Korso, a slave of Corsican origin brought to Tunisia as a child. He was granted the title of Bey in 1612. The Mouradi rule ended in 1702 after the assassination of Murad III. For more, see: Mohamed al-Hadi Sharif: History of Tunisia. Op. Cit. p. 77.
- <sup>36</sup>- The Husainid Family: Ruled Tunisia from 1705 to 1957, founded by Hussein ibn Ali, originally from the island of Crete. He entered Tunisia as part of the army during the rule of the Mouradids, held several positions, and eventually became Bey. Following political turmoil in Tunisia, he seized power from the Mouradids and gradually established full independence from the Ottoman Empire. For more, see: Shawqi al-Jamal: The Greater Maghreb from the Islamic Conquest to the Present, 1st ed., Egyptian Office for Distribution of Publications, Egypt, 2007, p. 167, and also: Mohamed al-Hadi Sharif: Op. Cit, p. 82.
- <sup>37</sup>- Ismail Ahmed Yaghi: The Arab World in Modern History. 1st ed., Al-Obeikan Library, Riyadh, 1907, p. 138.
- <sup>38</sup>- Kawthar al-Ayeb: Op. Cit. p. 22.
- <sup>39</sup>- Ahmad ibn Amer: Tunisia through History\*, 1st ed., Al-Najah Library, Tunis, 1960, pp. 333-334.
- <sup>40</sup>- Mohamed Ali Al-Salabi: The Ottoman Empire: Factors for Rise and Causes of Decline, Islamic Publishing and Distribution House, 2001, p. 202.
- <sup>41</sup>- Fatiha Al-Amri and Malika Chouania: Op. Cit., p. 49.
- <sup>42</sup>- Rafiq Mahmoud al-Othmani: History of the Ottoman Empire, translated by Bashir Al-Sebai, Dar Al-Fikr, 1st ed., Cairo, 1992, p. 222.

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