Many years ago A. Guillou wrote in his work about Byzantine Sicily: Nessuna ricerca approfondita è stata condotta sinora sulla Sicilia bizantina da parte degli studiosi di storia del mondo bizantino. Since that time the research on the Byzantine era of the island has moved on a lot. Among the books dedicated to its history there is that written by Luigi Santagati.


The chapters in each part have been devoted to particular problems. And thus two chapters of part one (Lo stato dell’arte, p. 15–23; Le fonti della conoscenza storica e geografica, p. 25–45) present the state of research on Byzantine Sicily, as well as the sources on which the research is based. Santagati has also pointed out the difficulties of the examination into the history of Byzantium due, among other things, to the destruction of imperial archives commenced by participants of the 4th crusade and finished by Turks (p. 51).

Part II, dedicated to political history of the island contains the chapters which discuss its history at the end of the West Roman Empire (Fine di un impero, p. 49–54), barbarian raids and recapturing of the island by Justinian the Great (Dai Vandali agli Ostrogoti ed ai Bizantini, p. 55–75), finally the Byzantine rule (La Sicilia tra il VI e l’VIII secolo, p. 77–113; La Sicilia tra l’VIII ed il IX secolo, p. 115–125). While discussing the history of the island during Justinian’s war with the Goths, the author has devoted much space to the attack of Totila, reconstructing the route of the Gothic army and the list of conquered Sicilian towns. He has emphasized the scale of destruction – quello che non distrussero i Vandali lo distrussero i Goti (p. 72). Much attention has been paid to emperor Constans’ stay on the island mutinies of Mezesius Sergius, first Arabic invasions, organization of the Church in Sicily and its civil administration.

In part III the author discusses the problems of Sicilian culture and economy under Byzantine rule. The first chapter (Gli insediamenti abitativi tra il V e l’VIII secolo, p. 129–154) has been devoted to the reconstruction of the settlement network on the island, based on written and archeological sources. Chapter Two (La Sicilia bizantina, p. 155–198) discusses various aspects of civilization and culture, such as architecture, communication routes, administration, courts, religion, agriculture, language, trade, medicine, everyday life, literature and poetry.

The author pays much attention to the problem of settlement on the island, precisely reconstructing the network of towns, villages and fortresses which used to exist from the beginning of 5th century. To do that he has referred to the antic works by Cicero, Strabo and Ptolemy and early medieval ones by Stephan of Byzantium, Procopius of Caesarea, Leo of Ostia, Constantine Porphyrogenetus, as well as by an anonymous author from Ravenna and another anonymous of Descriptio orbis Romaniani. Santagati has also reconstructed the network of communication routes, ways and bridges, inherited from antic Rome. The remaining chapters of Part Two are much more general in nature. Particular problems are presented in relatively short, 2–4 pages long notes. Some of the author’s remarks are certainly worth to be mentioned. Describing the economy of the island he has noted that Arabic influence on the development of the island’s agriculture is overrated (p. 169). While discussing the problem of the language he agrees with the opinion

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of Biaggio Pace that the Greek culture in Sicily was limited to educated people and clergy (p. 181). Presenting prominent Sicilians he emphasizes that on the island there were good conditions for education, particularly that which prepared to ecclesiastic career (p. 190).

In the six chapters of part IV (L’invasione araba e la prima linea di resistenza, p. 199–225; La seconda linea di resistenza, p. 227–244; Lo sgreloamento della Sicilia bizantina, p. 245–269; La caduta di Siracusa, p. 271–286; L’inizio delle fine, p. 287–317; La caduta delle ultime roccaforti siciliane, p. 319–140) the author discusses the advancement of Arabic invasion and Byzantine resistance. The author has devoted much room to different versions of sources concerning the rebellion of Euphemius, which had been a kind of “invitation” for invasion (p. 201–205). He subsequently tries to reconstruct the route of the Arab forces and their conquests. Much attention has been dedicated to Italy being threatened by the Saracens from Sicily and the changes in settlement caused directly or indirectly by the invaders. The last chapter is devoted to Byzantine attempts to return to the island (Tra Arabi e Normanni, p. 341–351) – the expeditions of Orestes, Leo Opos and George Maniates.

The monograph is supplemented by numerous appendices with the information about religious settlements, Sicilian saints, strategoi, Byzantine measures and weights, bridges and fortifications. The author has found room for a translation of the letter from patriarch Photius to Leo, archbishop of Calabria. Using the book is facilitated by personal and geographical indices and maps.

The work has been based upon a vast, although much incomplete base of sources and even more incomplete literature on the subject. The author cites almost exclusively the works of Italian authors, or these non-Italian ones whose works have been translated into Italian. He has particular esteem to Michele Amari – he wants to see his own monograph as sorta di modesto preambulo to Amari’s monumental Storia dei Musulmani di Sicilia (p. 22). It is difficult to underrate the role of Amari – the eminent historian and Arabist, whom we owe (among others) the translation of Arabic sources about Sicily – in examining the island’s history, geography and economy. Still, Amari’s work was written in mid-19th century (the fact that Santagati cites a contemporary edition of that is of secondary importance) and since then a lot has been written, of which Santagati should be aware. I cannot understand why the footnotes and bibliography lack the works of the authors of whose contribution in the development of the knowledge of Sicily’s history the author himself writes in the first chapter of Part One (such as Vera von Falkenhausen, André Guillou, Marius Canard, Alexandr A. Vasiliev, Ewald Kislinger and many others). Similarly, the author has not reached for some important works of his Italian fellow-scholars, to mention P. Corsi, B. Bavant, L. Bernabò Brea, O. Bertolini, G.P. Bognetti and many others. By the way, for some reasons some works cited in the footnotes have not found themselves in the bibliography.

Not all of the sources discussed in the same chapter (p. 28–42) have been effectively used. It is a mistake to refer to Amari (leaving completely aside the sources, even when they are mentioned in the main text – see p. 106, 124) when discussing Arab invasions on the island. Similarly, Gregory of Tours has been through Biaggio Pace (p. 141). L. Santagati likes quoting the Italian translations of Greek or Arab sources. Although it is acceptable, albeit with longer – sometimes a few pages long – quotations it would probably be better to move them to annexes. The problem is that the aforementioned sources have not been subject to any critical analysis – they serve solely as an illustration. As a result the reader must himself make interpretation, e.g. of the letter of monk Theodosius relating the siege of Syracuse by the Arabs (p. 274–282), sources describing the attempts to help the besieged city (p. 284–286), relating the downfall of Taormina (p. 308–309) or defeat of the Byzantines at Rometta (p. 327–330). The problem lies in the fact that such an analysis would have to be done on the original text.

The author is certainly more interested in the era after 827, which is pointed out by the disproportion between the parts about the political history of the island under Byz-
antique rule (fewer than 50 pages) and the big chapter of over 150 pages, devoted the struggle against the Arab invasion (827–967). For some reasons unknown to me, that first part is very superficial, which leads to many simplifications, to mention just a few.

The thesis that from 535 until 1860 (i.e. for 1325 years!) the island was separated from the rest of Italy (si andò staccando dal resto d’Italia – p. 75) is quite surprising. In fact Sicily was one of the two major Byzantine centres in the West, and after the downfall of the Exarchate of Ravenna it remained the only one. The territory of southern Italy was subordinated to the strategos of Sicily and during the greatest territorial expansion of the Theme of Sicily also part of Calabria and the territories of Otranto, Gaeta and Naples. If we talk of separation then, it was that separating Sicily and southern Italy from its northern part.

It is not certain if the whole of Sicily found itself under the Vandal occupation (p. 58–59). F.M. Clover suggests that they made use of the difficult situation of Odoacer to force a tribute from the province upon which they had not had real control. F. Giunta has presented a different views on the Vandal rule over Sicily. He himself, by interpreting the testimony of Victor of Vita and Procopius, comes to a conclusion that it was the control rather than the rule.

One needs to be really careful in the assessment of the attitudes of the inhabitants of Byzantine provinces in the Middle East to the Arab invaders. It is certainly not true that they perceived the Arab rule to be so much better than the Byzantine one to give their support or welcome the invaders (p. 83–84, 121). Although at that time the Arabs were fairly tolerant, as far as religious affairs were concerned, we must remember that in the 7th century it was economy rather than religion that motivated them. To support his thesis, Santagati cites only one source – an Arab chronicler al-Baladhuri. A historian should not put so much trust in a testimony of just one side, completely leaving aside all sources of the other. And for example in the Syrian sources the Muslim invasion was interpreted as the punishment of God.

It is not certain if the first Arab raid on Syria took place in 652 (p. 84). I myself would not exclude some local razzia to obtain spoils, but we must also consider the doubts by many scholars. The information in Liber pontificalis must raise doubts, as we read there that profectus est Siciliam [i.e. Olimpius – T.W.] adversus gentem Saracenorum qui ibidem habitabant. The Arabs certainly did not live in Sicily in 652! Theophanes dates the raid to the year 6155 (= 662/663), but at the same time he refers to the 22nd year of Constans’ rule (=664) and the 8th year of rule of Mu’awija. Al-Baladhuri’s testimony speaks most loudly against dating the invasion to 652. According to him,

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3 F.M. Clover, A Game of Bluff: The Fate of Sicily after A.D., 476, HI 48.2, 1999, p. 238. E Kisling's testimony speaks most loudly against the first Arab raid on Sicily in 652! Theophanes dates the raid to the year 6155 (= 662/663), but at the same time he refers to the 22nd year of Constans’ rule (=664) and the 8th year of rule of Mu’awija. Al-Baladhuri’s testimony speaks most loudly against dating the invasion to 652. According to him,


7 According to A. Stratos (The Exarch Olympus and the supposed Arab Invasion of Sicily in A.D. 652, JOB 25, 1976, p. 69) the eighth year of Mu’awija fell in Theophanes on the year 664, although the Syrian administrator became a caliph as late as in 661. Still, Theophanes does not mention another caliph after 656 (when a war between Ali and Mu’awija).
the first assault on the island took place during the Caliphate of Mu’awija (661–680)⁸. It is on that ground (among others) that A. Stratos has questioned the previous datation. The scholar has concluded that the first Arab invasion took place most likely on the turn of 669/670 (i.e. after the death of Constans), and Theophanes must have mistaken Sicily for Cilicia⁹. Olimpius explained his expedition to Sicily by the invasion, but for the rebellious exarch it may have been just a comfortable excuse. In the opinion of Andreas Stratos, Olimpius had planned his Sicilian adventure to capture the island for just himself, not to fight the invaders.¹⁰ It should also be emphasized that contrary to what Santagati thinks (p. 86), Olimpius never reached Sicily – Andreas Stratos says the epidemics had killed him already in Italy.

The author cannot decisively say who actually created the theme of Sicily. At first we read that it was probabilmente or even quasi sicuramente the idea of Constans II (p. 86–87), later however (p. 107–108) he attributes it to Justinian II. In fact, the date of introducing the thematic reform in Sicily is controversial. A. Stratos is a proponent of the thesis that it should be attributed to Constans rather than to Justinian,¹¹ but it is more likely that the emperor’s stay at Syracuse only commenced the evolution that eventually led to the formation of theme. Many scholars point to Justinian II as the author of that reform and they date it to the end of 7th century, between 692 and 695¹². Similarly, E. Eickhoff believes that the theme of Sicily was created by Justinian II, writing that Constans failed in organizing defence of the province, whereas founding a theme was a permanent value.

but he locates the event at the beginning of 8th century, i.e. during the second reign of the emperor (705–711). This opinion is shared by W. Enflin, H. Ahrweiler, S. Borsari and others. Also H. Gelzer shows the 8th century as the beginning of the theme. B. Pace goes even further and pushes the forming of the theme to mid-8th century. In the Byzantine sources the post of strategos of Sicily was first mentioned in relation to the events of 718 and the first certain strategos was Sergius, the same who in 717 rebelled against the emperor. Still, before him the post had probably been taken by Theodor, who at the times of pope Constantine was sent to Ravenna (709/710) by Justinian II to punish its inhabitants for the acts of hostility during his first reign and who welcomed the pope in Sicily while on the way to Constantinople. It is possible, though, that Sicily had had a strategos even earlier and that it had been a man named Theophylact, who later became the exarch of Ravenna. V. Laurent has discovered and published that official’s seal, which he dates to the end of 7th century. As Theophylact became the exarch in 701, he must have been the island’s strategos about the year 700. A new research by M. Nichanian and V. Prigent, which is known to Santagati (p. 108), shows yet another person – a certain Salventius, who could have occupied the post from ca. 685. The above data let me share the opinion of these scholars who see the founder of the theme of Sicily in Justinian II and leads me to the conclusion that it must have been founded at the end of 7th century.

There is no hard evidence that Constantine IV landed in Sicily after his father’s death (p. 88), which version is present in some eastern sources. According to Theophanes and others the young emperor personally set off with a huge fleet to avenge the death of his father and suppress the mutiny. It was there that he

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14 A. Ahrweiler, Byzance et la mer. La marine de guerre, la politique et les institutions maritimes de Byzance aux VIIe–XVe siècles, Paris 1966, p. 48;
16 B. Pace, I Barbari ed i Bizantini in Sicilia, ASS 36, 1911, p. 6.
20 LP, p. 390. The pope was travelling through Naples where he was greeted by John Rizocopos, patricius et exarchus, and then went to Sicily, greeted by Theodor, already a patricius and strategos of the island.
21 Cubicularius, patricius et exarchus Italie (LP, p. 383). He was the exarch in 701–705. The seal of Theophylact, cubicularius and strategos of Sicily was published by V. Laurent (Sceaux byzantins… p. 120–121).
23 Theophanes, AM 6160, p. 352. Besides him Constantine’s expedition was described by Agapius, George the Monk, Leo Grammaticus, Cedrenus, Zonaras, Manasses, Michael the Syr-
would have captured the usurper, sentenced him to death, along with his father’s murderers and returned to Constantinople. Western sources, including Liber pontificalis and Paul the Deacon, are silent about Constantine IV’s expedition to the island. In the light of their relations, that were the western troops that had set off against Mezesius, they arrived in Syracuse and killed Mezesius himself and many of his supporters and their bodies, along with Mezesius’ head were shipped to Constantinople24. A. Stratos, although ready to admit that

ian, Joel (we know from him that Constantine was nicknamed pogonatus when he returned with the beard from the Sicilian expedition – Goele, Chronographia compendiaria, ed. et trans. F. Iadevaia, Messina 1979 p. 101). Information about the expedition can be found in eastern chronicles – Dionisius reconstituted, Chronicon ad a. 1234 and in some western ones (Otto of Freising, Dandulo, Martinus, Ekkehard). Information about participation of the emperor can be found neither in patriarch Nicephorus, nor in most western sources. It is not totally unlikely in the light of an obscure note in Continuatio Isidoriana: Constans aput Syracusem audiens seditio suorum occissum patrem cum classe qua potuit, palatium petit et tronum gloriose triumphanto concendit (Continuatio Isidoriana Byzantina-Arabica et Hispana, cap. 26, ed. Th. Mommsen, Th. Nöldke, [in:] MGH.AA, vol. XI, Berolini 1894, p. 345). John the Deacon at first informs of suppression of the mutiny by western troops and sending Mezesius’ head (Giovanni Diaco-

24 Pauli Historia Langobardorum, V, 12, ed. E. Bethmann, G. Waitz, [in:] MGH.SRLI, the mutiny was suppressed by western troops, believes that Constantine may indeed have visited Sicily25. He emphasizes that the exarch of Ravenna would not command the forces out of his own area without special imperial consent, that he had no power on Sicily and that it was only the emperor himself that could have the rebels executed because of their high ranks. In my opinion these arguments may not be decisive. The emperor, informed of what was going on on the island and of the participant of the rebellion could issue the appropriate orders on paper. The fact that they such an order has not been preserved is not surprising. In addition to this, Stratos is inconsequent, as he main-
tains somewhere else that in 713 strategos Theodor commanded both the forces of the theme of Sicily and of the exarchate of Ravenna, in the absence of the exarch26. In 668–669 the situation could have been just the opposite.

It seems more important why so many eastern sources keeps telling about Constantine’s expedition to the west. In spite of them, we may not ignore the opinion of E.W. Brooks, who has questioned the possibility of personal participation of the young emperor in the expedition27. His arguments must be taken seriously: a) had the emperor personally arrived in Sicily, Mezesius’ head would not have needed to be sent to Constantinople; b) the author of the Life of Adeodatus in Liber pontificalis wrote it soon after the described events and could not have been unaware of the emperor’s arrival along with his fleet; c) Constantine IV could not leave the capital city, neither during the mutiny of Saborius,
the ally of the Arabs (668), nor later when he commanded the defence against Yazid’s attack (669). In Brook’s opinion when the fleet set off from Constantinople, the mutiny on the island had already been suppressed. In fact, the testimony of the western sources seems to be decisive here. It is difficult to imagine that chroniclers would fail to notice the presence of another East Roman emperor after Constans in Sicily.

It is not true that the wife and two sons of Constans II lo raggiunsero solo alcuni anni dopo a Siracusa (p. 86). The eastern sources tell of the ruler’s plans to move his family to the West, which however would have been prevented by the people of Constantinople. It is not unlikely that such plans may have existed. Although there is no evidence to support that, we can imagine that following Maurice’s example, also Constans may have thought of giving the West to a son of his. This, besides the natural longing for the family, could explain the plan of bringing the younger sons to the West. It may not have concerned his eldest son, who had been entrusted the government at Constantinople. This way or the other, those plans were never accomplished.

The objection from the popes against iconoclasm was not the sole reason for the decision to confiscate the income from papal estates in Sicily, Calabria and Illyricum (p. 100). More important was to obtain the means for the struggles against the Arab invasion – let us remain that it was just during the reign of Leo III that the most dangerous siege of Constantinople took place.

Scholars have not been able to determine which of the rulers: Constans II or his son Constantine IV was nicknamed pogonatus (bearded). The author of the foreword to the Greek version of Hypomnesticum Theodori calls Constans like this. Many other scholars maintain that it is him, not Constantine IV that should be named this way, but there is no general consent about it. L. Santagati thinks that both could have been called like that (p. 86–88), which indeed cannot be excluded.

Some of the author’s theses have not been sufficiently proven. I would like to know, for example, who exactly thinks that it was the Church of Sicily that contributed to Constans’ murder in 668 (p. 87), where is the source informing of the Byzantine attack against the Muslims in Africa in 688–689 (p. 97) or what evidence proves that the Sicilians adhered closer to the Church di origine latina than di origine greca (p. 121).

Interesting is the author’s opinion that the failure in Sicily meant the total failure of the passive system of defence, developed in the empire along with the thematic system, and that no conclusions were drawn from that defeat (p. 225). It should be regretted that this thought has not been further developed. Another interesting supposition is that the reason why Sergios did not proclaim emperor himself was that as an eunuch he could not pretend to the throne, but due to the lack of sources we can only guess.

Similarly lacking evidence is the opinion of the misfortunes that Constans’ stay at Syracuse would bring to the Sicilians (p. 88). The issue, however, is more complicated. Not neglecting the fiscal pressure, we may not forget of its advantages, as well. The emperor’s stay at Syracuse certainly contributed to its development, as it became an imperial seat (sedes imperii). It is not accidental that the pretences of the Church of Syracuse appeared just at that time. Constans’

31 The emperor would encourage his companions to build mansions in the city in eis aulas sibi aedificare et possessiones atque bona acquirere (Chronicon anonymum ad annum Christi 1234 pertinens, part I, CXXXVII, CXXXIX, ed. I.-B. CHABOT, Lovanii 1937 [CSCO 109, ser. 3, Scriptores Syri 14], p. 220, 223). A similar statement can be found in Dionysius, according to whom the emperor encouraged to buying estates to provide means for the living (Dionysius reconstituted, 113, [in:] The Seventh Century in the West-Syrian Chronicles, ed. A. PALMER, Liverpool 1993, p. 187).
32 The first time in Vita Zosimi from the end of 7th cent. (bishop of Syracuse 654–662). The leg-
reforms gave a decisive impulse to the militarization of the island and introducing the thematic system on it.

L. Santagati likes digressions, sometimes interesting, but not always justified by the subject he writes about (information about literary texts devoted to Belisarius, p. 55, a vast part concerning the Lombard invasion in northern Italy, p. 77–79, or the description of Rome by Al-Idrisi, p. 251–253). These passages could have been removed in favour of expanding end can also be found in Vita P. Marciani, Vita P. Pancratii and Encomium of St. Martian.

What I have above should not discourage the reader to reach for the book by Luigi Santagati. It is certainly an interesting attempt to make the reader acquainted with a fairly unknown history of Sicily at the times when it was a part of the East Roman Empire. I am particularly enthusiastic about the authors careful reconstruction of human settlement on the island and I am glad to recommend it to the readers.

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The topic of monasticism in medieval Bulgaria has attracted unceasing interest of scholars for some time now. Numerous separate studies have touched upon almost all aspect of that movement. It is surprising that we had to wait until the beginning of the 21st century for its monograph. The reason for that might lie in the peculiarity of the source material, which does not present a coherent picture of the history of Bulgarian monasticism. To complain about the small number of preserved sources would be an exaggeration, but in comparison to source materials on Byzantine or Serbian monasticism there are some easily recognizable and scholarly troublesome deficiencies: not one of the medieval Bulgarian typica has been preserved (existence of one – John of Rila Testament – is still a matter of debate), only a small number of donative documents survived, while majority of monastiar manuscripts have been lost.

The matter of monasticism in medieval Bulgaria is a complex and vast area of study. The author’s monograph consists of a staggering 850 pages, although, as she remarked at the beginning of her work (p. 8), she has not presented a fully exhaustive analysis of the subject but only her subjective overview of it. The volume of the work is partly affected by the author’s methodology. She has devoted a lot of space to a detailed description of the discovered by archeologists monastiar locations and she has included a number of side subjects.

The first volume focuses on monasteries, their architecture, material conditions of monastic life and on selected issues that archeological discoveries have brought to daylight. It is composed chronologically, with consecutive chapters relating to: monasteries from the 9th until the beginning of the 11th century, from the period of Byzantine reign and the Second Bulgarian Tsardom. Because of the peculiarity of the subject and the problem of dating such sights a whole separate chapter has been devoted to the presentation of materials on rock monasteries. It is clear that the author’s interest focuses on the earliest period of Bulgarian monasticism, since the first chapter takes half of the volume.