Ottoman Decline:

Ottoman centuries may be divided into the following periods:

1) 14th; 15th; 16th centuries: years of expansion, glory and high civilization.

2) 17th century (1600s): stalemate or balance between the empire and its adversaries to the east and the west.

3) 18th century (1700s): first major losses followed by inability to adapt.

4) 19th and 20th centuries: an era of reform and colonial domination by European powers; loss of territory and final disintegration.

Millet System

Although Ottoman State was predominantly muslim, the state allowed non-muslims to practise their religion and conduct their community affairs. Fatih Sultan Mehmet (Mehmet 2nd) organised this system. This system was based on religion. Millet System was organised as:

The Orthodox Community
The Armenian Community
The Jew Community

Non-muslims had to be parts of millet in order to be considered as citizens of the empire. Each millet has a leader called Milletbaşı.

Orthodox Millet: Greeks, Bulgarians, Serbs, Albanians, Macedonians, Vlachs, Romanians and other different language groups.

Armenian Millet: Armenians (Gregorian)

Jewish Millet: Jew

The French Revolution:

was a great development because it completely changed the existing social, economic, political and diplomatic relations in Europe. It destroyed ancien regime and challenged monarchies. After the French Revolution, major European powers formed an alliance against the revolution. At the end of the 18th
century there were two main blocs. The first one was the French bloc with her allies and client states like Holland, Denmark, Sweden and Spain (since 1796). On the other hand, enemies of the French bloc were the Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, Russia and Naples. The Ottoman Empire preferred to remain neutral and closely watched the developments in Europe. Naturally, Istanbul, as the capital of a neutral power became a diplomatic battleground for the French and British diplomats. The Ottomans, reforming their diplomatic abilities, adopted themselves to the new situation. In the process of modernization, Reisü'l-Küttâb had adopted the role of foreign minister. His mission was to provide the balance in relations with the rival powers because the Ottomans did not wish to alienate the French or British. The Ottoman government provided the information that it needed by its consulates in Europe and more importantly by the foreign embassies in Istanbul. The dragomans, official translators, were the main elements between the embassies and the Ottoman government and they provided the necessary information.

The famous French revolutionary slogans of Liberty-Equality-Fraternity did not have any particular or immediate meaning for the Ottomans at this early stage:

Liberty: at this point it only had a legal meaning for the Moslem world; in time and in line with Europe it found a political meaning in the 19th century.

In Moslem society, traditionally the Shari’a dealt with the role of the ruler and the relationship between him and his subjects (the believers).

The European notions of good and bad government (as they were taking shape in the discussions of the Enlightenment) in terms of tyranny vs. liberty, etc, did not have the same meaning for the Moslems at this point in time.

Liberty was a legal term not a political one. It referred to one who was not slave (slavery and freedom were not used in political context).

For a traditional Moslem the converse of tyranny was not liberty but justice. Justice meant: 1) the ruler ruled by right, and 2) he rule according to the Shari’a (or at least according to recognizable moral and legal principles).

Equality: social and economic inequalities were not all that visible in Islam; there were no rigid social barriers in the Ottoman society; and Moslem tradition was rich in strong moral codes and charitable causes which made economic inequality even less visible.
Fraternity: had no real meaning for a society which had live with the concept of \textit{umma} since its beginning. Nationalism did find some meaning for Islamic societies only in the late 19th and early 20th centuries.

In the long run however, what attracted Ottoman reformers to the French Revolution was the concept of secularism, which became the cornerstone of their 19th century reforms.

\begin{table}
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2 & Ottoman Modernization in XIX. Century (Period of Selim III-Mahmut II, Period of Tanzimat and Period of Constitutional Monarchy I) \\
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\textbf{Modernization of Ottoman State}

Modernization period in Ottoman State began with \textbf{Selim 3rd} (1789). In this period Ottoman State followed European reforms as a consequence of French Revolution. Selim established the first permanent embassies in Europe to pursue the developments and progresses.

After Selim, \textbf{Mahmut 2nd} ascended the throne. The most comprehensive innovations and reforms had been done in this period. These reforms were regarding; education, administration, military, social life and economy. In 1821 Greek Rebellion occurred (in the same period). After a while Greeks attained their liberty and Mahmut realised the corruption of the military system.

- The first subject of Ottoman State which revolted against Ottoman State was \textit{Serbians}, but the first one which got liberty were \textit{Greeks}.

In 1826 Mahmut removed Yeniceri Corps and established Asakir-i Mansure-i Muhammediye instead of it. Also he removed Divan organization and established Kabinet system. Meanwhile, there had been several regulations about vestures of civil servants. Post organization was established and the first formal newspaper of Ottoman \textit{Takvim-i Vekai} was founded.

\textbf{Tanzimat Decree 1839 (SultanAbdulmecit)}

\textbf{Reasons:} 1- Greek Rebellion 2- To avoid the effects of nationalism on non-muslim communities. 3- To keep all Ottoman Subjects together.

It was created by Mustafa Reşit Paşa (Minister of Foreign Affairs) It was a reform program which was consist of new rights and promises.

- Tanzimat Period is different from Tanzimat Decree. The years in the effect of Tanzimat and Islahat Decree is called as Tanzimat Period (1839-1876) until the first Constitution (Kanun-i Esasi).

\textit{The targeted reforms according to Tanzimat Decree were;}

To ensure the Ottoman subjects perfect security for their lives,
The reorganization of the civil and criminal codes,
To provide equality of all Ottoman Subjects,
The abolitions of slavery and slave trade,
Arrangments about taxes.

**Islahat Decree 1856**

**Reasons:** 1- Crimean War in 1853-1856 (Ottoman X Russia) in Crimean War Ottoman State borrowed first external dept. So this reform of 1856 was intended to carry out the promises of Tanzimat especially about non-muslims, and Tanzimat’s titles were extended for non-muslims. This reforms were the results of Western pressures.

**Result:** Tanzimat and Islahat were not constitutions but reforms. This reforms provided a secular system. The authorization of leaders were limited.

The main ideology of this period was **Ottomanism** (Equality between all subjects)

**İdeologists of Tanzimat Period:** Namık Kemal, Şinasi, Agah Efendi, Ziya Paşa, Ali Suavi (Young Ottomans)

**Young Ottomans** were supported by Mithat Paşa. And Young Ottomans wanted to create a state based on equality and constitutional system. They were organised secretly and for them the only solution was to create a modern state and constitutional monarchy.

**1st Constitutional Era 1876 (Kanun-i Esasi)**

Young Ottomans forced Addülaziz (the sultan after Abdülmecid) to abdicate because of this opposite ideas about constitution. After that, Young Ottomans achived 5th Murat to ascend the throne but because of his mental problems he was abdicated too. Instead of him **Abdulhamit 2nd** ascend the throne and promised to announce constitution. Kanun-i Esasi was prepared by Mithad Paşa.

Kanun-i Esasi was prepared taking Belgium constitution as an example.

Kanun-i Esasi didn’t limited the outhority of Sultan,
The origin of sovereignty didn’t change

**Ottoman Parliament** was opened,

\[ \text{General Assembly} \]

\[ \text{Assembly of Deputies} \quad (\text{Meclis-i Mebusan}) \]

\[ \text{Assembly of Lords} \quad (\text{Meclis-i Ayan}) \]
This constitution was consisted of 119 titles and the first five ones described the rights of Sultan, All Ottoman Subjects were equal in front of this constitution.

**Russia- Ottoman War/ 93 Harbi (1877-1878)**

In April 1877 the war between Ottoman and Russia broke out. During the war the Assembly couldn’t work and Abdulhamit canceled not only the assembly but also the constitution. After the war, Ayestefanos agreement was signed. But Western countries didn’t accept this agreement and arranged Berlin Peace Conference. Eastern Question, Armenian Question (in international area) and Macedonian Question pronounced in this conference for the first time.

At the end of Berlin Peace Conference;

Cyprus was rented to England, (In case of Russian Danger),

Three new states were established: Romania, Serbia, Montenegro. And Bulgary became a princedom, Ottoman State lost all her controls in Balkans.

The foreign policy of England towards Ottoman State “The respect of territorial integrity of Ottoman State” ended up.

**Abdulhamit Era**

The foreign Policy and the ideology of this era was **Islamism.**

This was an authocratic period (istibdat)

Nonetheless quite a few reforms had been achived in this era: Mülkiye which was established in Tanzimat period was reorganised, commercial, veterinary and art schools were founded, Darülfunun (University) was founded, telegraph system was improved all around the country, railways From Syria to Palestine and from Ankara to Konya were established.

| 3 | From Ittıhad-ı Osmanî to Union and Progress Party; Announcement of Second Constitutional Monarchy; The Period of Second Constitutional Monarcy; The Incident of March 31 |

**Young Turk Revolution 1908/ And Committee of Union and Progress**

**Who are Young Turks?**

- All of them may not have been ethnic Turks but they identified themselves as Turks.
- The great majority of them were young.
- They belonged mostly to the bureaucratic class, they were either military officers or civilian officers.
- They had studied in modern schools.
- They had a bourgeois ideology.
- They aspired to create a modern Turkish Society on the contemporary European model.
- They based their political ideology on to provide the constitutional monarshy functional.
* They established in 1889 in Istanbul a committee called Ottoman Union (İttihad-ı Osmani) this was a secret organization.
* In 1895 they prepared a regulation and according to this regulation the committee was broken into small covert cells.
* The committee emerged/uncovered with the Armenian protests in 1895.

* **Prince Sabahattin** organised the first Young Turk Congress in 1902. In this congress, Young Turks argued about saving the empire and putting the constitution into effect. Sabahattin’s solution was different from others. He claimed to cooperate with foreign countries against Abdulhamit. He also justified the ideology of autonomous government (adem-i merkeziyet: to create a state in the circle of individual).

* After 1905, opposition against Abdulhamit gained power. Expressly, rising the separatist movements in Macedonia, most of the people of Empire became anxious. And in this atmosphere a lot of secret organizations occurred.

* In 1907 the second Young Turk Congress was opened. In this congress all the ideological movements of Ottoman State met up.
* A manifest was prepared and aimed to remove Abdulhamit: By making propaganda in the army, by showing strong resistance by contacting the military organizations in Macedonia they incorporated and named themselves as Committee of Union and Progress.

**Promulgation of 2nd Constitution (1908)**

**Reasons:**
* The role of the agreement between England and Russia about sharing Ottoman territories (Reval Negotiations),
* Unionists learned the negotiations of sharing plans between England and Russia in Reval,
* Unionists blamed Abdulhamit as the only person in charge.
* After all these, with 400 people, Resneli Niyaz and Enver started a revolt and revolution began.
* Rumelian People supported this movement.
* They pressed putting the constitution into effect and opening the assembly.
* Eventually after 30 years, liberty (hürriyet) was announced.

**UNION AND PROGRESS**

**Committee** of Union and Progress: Committee organised the local and central Congresses

**Party** of Union and Progress is: consisted of deputies in Assembly
31st March Event 1909
This Movement occurred against the restoration of constitutional system in 1908. It was a reaction. To prevent this movement unionists sent an army called Army of Action (Hareket Ordusu) from Salonika to İstanbul. And Abdulhamit was deposed.

### The Ideologies of Second Constitutional Era, Tripolitania War and Balkan Wars

#### Ideologies of Mesrutiyet Era
- Ottomanism (İttihat-ı Anasır/Tanzimat Era)
- Islamism (Abdulhamit Era)
- Turkism (Representative: Ziya Gökalp)
- Westernism: Celal Nuri and Abdullah Cevdet

#### Ottomanism
A concept which developed prior to the First Constitutional Era of the Ottoman Empire. Its proponents believed that it could solve the social issues that the empire was facing. Ottomanism was strongly influenced by thinkers such as Montesquieu and Rousseau and the French Revolution. It promoted equality among the millets. The idea originated amongst the Young Ottomans in areas such as the acceptance of all separate ethnicities in the Empire regardless of their religion, i.e. they were all 'Ottomans' with equal rights. Put simply, Ottomanism stated that all subjects were equal before the law. Ideally, all citizens would share a geographical area, a language, culture, and a sense of a 'non-Ottoman' party who were different than them. The essence of the millet system was not dismantled, but secular organizations and policies were applied. Primary education, conscription, head tax and military service were to be applied to non-Muslims and Muslims alike.\(^1\)

The major precursors to Ottomanism were the Reformation Edict of 1856, which promised full equality regardless of religion, and the Ottoman Nationality Law of 1869, which created a common Ottoman citizenship irrespective of religious or ethnic affiliation. Ottomanism was rejected by many in the non-Muslim millets and by many Muslims. To the former, it was perceived as a step towards dismantling their traditional privileges. Meanwhile, the Muslims saw it as the elimination of their own superior position. There were claims that Ottomanism was a reaction to the Tanzimat, the era of intensive restructuring of the Ottoman Empire by the bureaucratic elite. The inauguration of the Ottoman Parliament contributed to the spirit of reform as all millets were represented in this bicameral assembly.

Ottomanism was a form of nationalism, likely inspired and created as a reaction to European ideas of nationalism and the growing Western involvement in the Ottoman Empire. Following the Tanzimat reforms, Ottomanism developed of a need to bring the Empire together.\(^2\) The Ottomans feared the growing threat the Europeans posed, especially after events like the Treaty of Balta Liman that allowed for British merchants in the Empire to be taxed equally to the locals, and the growing concern of the Great Powers over the treatment of Christians and Jews within the Empire. The Ottomans thought that if they could unite the Empire fully under one state entity, then they would be stronger and the Europeans would have a harder time encroaching on Ottoman territory, as well as Ottoman people. Previously, the empire was vastly split into many small communities that mostly governed themselves.
The Sultan oversaw these communities, however most adhered to their own laws and beliefs.\footnote{This was a reason the Ancien Regime Ottoman Empire was so successful, because the Sultan didn't force any major changes on populations as he conquered them. Though because of nationalism, the rise of nation-states with shared senses of identities began to rise in Europe, most notably with the Greek War of Independence which also started affecting the Ottoman Empire. From these instances Ottomanism was developed as a social and political response, and a hope to help save the Empire from its downfall.} Ottomanism enjoyed a revival during the Young Turk Revolution of 1908, and during the Second Constitutional Era. It lost most of its adherents during the First Balkan War of 1912–13, when Ottoman citizens (Bulgarians, Greeks, Serbians) in the Balkans revolted against the government and enacted ethnic cleansing against Turks residing in those areas, leading to mass emigration of Turks to Anatolia. Disappointment in the failure of Ottomanism was integral to the birth of Turkish nationalism during the next decade.

**Tripotanian War 1911**

**Italy X Ottoman**

**Reason:** Italy provided its unification while France and England were controlling all undeveloped countries. For instance, England occupied Egypt in 1881, France occupied Algeria and Tunis. After Italy provided its unification, turned to Tripoli -the last territory of Ottoman State in North Africa-. Tripoli was important for raw materials and it was a good market place. Italy occupied Tripoli, and the war began.

But Ottomans couldn’t interfere both from sea and land, because of the blockade in Dardanelles. Mustafa Kemal and Ali Fethi passed to Tripoli as volunteers and supported the Tripolitanian Public against Italians. The war spreaded into a large area. During the war, Balkan countries combined against Ottoman State and Ottoman was forced to request an armistice. At the end of the war **Ousy Peace Agreement** was signed between Italy and Ottoman State. According to this treaty; Ottoman state lost the last territory in North Africa, Dodecanes and Rhodes were left to Italy temporary (until 1947).

**Balkan Wars 1912-1913**

**Reasons:** Nationalism, results of Berlin Peace Conference and Liberty of Bulgaria in 1908.

**Russia** organised the union between Balkan Countries. (Montenegro, Greece, Bulgaria and Serbia)

**In the First Balkan War:** Balkan Countries attacked to Ottoman State, Edirne and Kirklareli were occupied by Bulgaria. At the end Albania got its liberty, Agean islands, Macedonia, East and West Thrace were lost. This defeat effected the internal affairs of Ottoman State; Committe of Union and Progress blamed the administration and in 1913 with a cup called Bab-ı Ali Bakını, Unionists got the power.

**The Second Balkan War** started because of the Bulgarian expansion at the end of the first Balkan War so; the Balkan countries combined together against Bulgaria. Ottoman State wanted to use this opportunity in favour of itself. (Particularly to get Edirne and Kirklareli back from Bulgaria)

Bulgary was defeated by Greece and Serbia at that time Rumenia entered the war and took Dobruca from Bulgaria. Ottoman State got back Edirne and Kirklareli.

**As a result:**

Between Ottoman and Bulgary: Istanbul Agreement,

Between Ottoman and Greece: Athens Agreement were signed.

Unionists reinforced their power, Turkism ideology rose and Ottomanism ended up.
WORLD WAR 1st (1914-1918)

1914

The Ottoman State entered war on the side of the Central Powers in 1914 referring to the secret Ottoman-German Alliance Convention that signed in August 1914. In the same year the Ottoman State declared (on 14th November) Cihad-ı Ekber to Muslim communities which were under the control of England. Sultan Mehmet V. aimed to take the support of these communities against England. Ottoman's entrance into the war greatly increased the Triple Entente's military burdens. Russia had to fight on the Caucasus Campaign alone and in the Persian Campaign along with the United Kingdom.

The Ottoman State first started to fight in Caucasian Front with Russia. Enver Pasha set off for the Battle of Sarıkamış with the intention of recapturing Batum and Kars, overrunning Georgia and occupying north-western Persia and the oil fields. Fighting with the Russians in the Caucasus, however, the Ottomans lost ground, and over 100,000 soldiers, in a series of battles.

1915

One of the most important events of this war is the Dardanelles Campaign. Battle of Gallipoli or the Battle of Çanakkale, was a campaign of World War I that took place on the Gallipoli peninsula. The campaign was one of the greatest Ottoman victories during the war and a major Allied failure.

England and France planned to control Istanbul and to gain victory against Germany and Austria, also another aim of them was to take the control of Ottoman State. So that they attacked with their strong navy to Dardanelles Strait on 18th March 1915. But they were defeated by the Ottoman forces. The successes of the Ottoman forces in Dardanelles encouraged Bulgaria, and she entered the war on the side of Central Powers.

After a while, the Allied Powers tried to get the control of Dardanelles overland. They arranged a campaign towards Seddülbahir and Ariburnu. After three months battles, Mustafa Kemal gained a great success in that front. Allies withdrew in 1916 and couldn’t get any success.

In the same year, the Ottoman forces organised a new campaign called Canal. They planned to get Egypt with the leadership of Cemal Pasha and struck to Suez Canal but couldn’t get any success.

During World War I, the Ottoman government also faced difficulties on the homeland, including isolated Armenian rebellions in eastern Anatolia that led to an order for the Tehrîr Law of 1 June 1915 to 8 February 1916 (deportation) of Armenians from the region.

Some of the articles of the law:

- The Ottoman Army can move the people in villages or towns in case of spying or treachery,
- In case of any offensive, disobedience to government, the army commanders can interfere.

In the text of the law there was no explicit mention for the Armenians, in other words, it wasn’t directed against one particular ethnic group. However, due to the aggressive attitude of Armenians and their
cooperations with the Allies (in eastern Anatolia), referring to the conditions of the law, they were migrated to South regions (Syria, Lebanon).

In 1915 Allies made some secret agreements to share the Ottoman Territories. According to Istanbul Agreement in 1915, which was accepted by England and France, western part of Marmara, Straits, until Midye Enes line South Thrace were planned to be given to Russia. The enterance of Italy to war on the side of the Allies, also effected the Allied Powers’ plans. According to this agreement Antalya was given under the influence of Italy and they committed to accept the Italian rights in Adriatic Sea with another secret agreement called London Agreement in 1915.

1916

In the early months of 1916 Russia again took action in the Caucasian Front. Russian Forces got the control of Mus, Rize, Trabzon, Ispir and Erzurum. But in Iraq Front the Ottomans gained important victory against England.

Another important event of this year was Arabic revolt. And another secret agreement about sharing the Ottoman Arabic territories was signed between England and France. The Middle east connoisseur of England Sir Mark Sykes and ex Beirut Consul General of France George Picot agreed on sharing the Ottoman Middle East territories. According to Sykes-Picot Agreement in April 1916, France was going to get Syria, Lebanon, Kilikya (Çukurova) and Mosul; England was going to get Iraq, Jordan and North Palestine.

1917

In 1917 the Bolshevik Revolution gave the Ottomans a new chance. On 5 December 1917, the armistice of Erzincan (Erzincan Cease-fire Agreement) was signed between the Russians and Ottomans in Erzincan, and that ended the armed conflicts between Russia and Ottoman Empire. On 3 March, the Grand vizier Talat Pasha signed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk with the Bolsheviks. It stipulated that Bolshevik Russia would cede Batum, Kars, and Ardahan back to the Ottoman State.

The absence of Russia was filled by the USA. The USA was never formally a member of the Allies but became a self-styled associated power. But the withdrawal of Russia changed the secret plans of the Allies, so Italy wanted new regulations about secret agreements. England, France and Italy came together to negotiate new territorial plans. In April 1917 another secret agreement called St Jean De Maurienne was signed. According to this agreement; Izmir, Aydın and Konya was going to be given to Italy.

In 1917 also Greece entered the war on the side of the Allies. This would create a critic events on Ottoman State later on.

1918

In 1918 Fourteen points of Wilson was declared.

1. Open covenants of peace, openly arrived at, after which there shall be no private international understandings of any kind but diplomacy shall proceed always frankly and in the public view.

2. Absolute freedom of navigation upon the seas, outside territorial waters, alike in peace and in war, except as the seas may be closed in whole or in part by international action for the enforcement of international covenants.

3. The removal, of all economic barriers and the establishment of equality of trade conditions among all the nations consenting to the peace and associating themselves for its maintenance.
4. Adequate guarantees given and taken that national armaments will be reduced to the lowest point consistent with domestic safety.

5. Free, open-minded, and absolutely impartial adjustment of all colonial claims, based upon a strict observance of the principle that in determining all such questions of sovereignty the interests of the populations concerned must have equal weight with the equitable claims of the government whose title is to be determined.

6. The evacuation of all Russian territory and such a settlement of all questions affecting Russia as will secure the best and freest cooperation of the other nations of the world in obtaining for her an unhampered and unembarrassed opportunity for the independent determination of her own political development and national policy and assure her of a sincere welcome into the society of free nations under institutions of her own choosing; and, more than a welcome, assistance also of every kind that she may need and may herself desire. The treatment accorded Russia by her sister nations in the months to come will be the acid test of their good will, of their comprehension of her needs as distinguished from their own interests, and of their intelligent and unselfish sympathy.

7. Belgium, the whole world will agree, must be evacuated and restored, without any attempt to limit the sovereignty which she enjoys in common with all other free nations. No other single act will serve as this will serve to restore confidence among the nations in the laws which they have themselves set and determined for the government of their relations with one another. Without this healing act the whole structure and validity of international law is forever impaired.

8. All French territory should be freed and the invaded portions restored, and the wrong done to France by Prussia in 1871 in the matter of Alsace-Lorraine, which has unsettled the peace of the world for nearly fifty years, should be righted, in order that peace may once more be made secure in the interest of all.

9. A readjustment of the frontiers of Italy should be effected along clearly recognizable lines of nationality.

10. The people of Austria-Hungary, whose place among the nations we wish to see safeguarded and assured, should be accorded the freest opportunity to autonomous development.

11. Romania, Serbia, and Montenegro should be evacuated; occupied territories restored; Serbia accorded free and secure access to the sea; and the relations of the several Balkan states to one another determined by friendly counsel along historically established lines of allegiance and nationality; and international guarantees of the political and economic independence and territorial integrity of the several Balkan states should be entered into.

12. The Turkish portion of the present Ottoman Empire should be assured a secure sovereignty, but the other nationalities which are now under Turkish rule should be assured an undoubted security of life and an absolutely un molested opportunity of autonomous development, and the Dardanelles should be permanently opened as a free passage to the ships and commerce of all nations under international guarantees.

13. An independent Polish state should be erected which should include the territories inhabited by indisputably Polish populations, which should be assured a free and secure access to the sea, and whose political and economic independence and territorial integrity should be guaranteed by international covenant.

14. A general association of nations must be formed under specific covenants for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike.

These principles exhibited in which conditions the new order after war will be established. (self determination – leaving secret diplomacy)

However Ottoman forces got important successes in Caucasian Front, the defeats in Iraq and Palestine Fronts determined the result of the war.
CONSEQUENCES OF THE WAR

- At the end of the war central empires such as Ottoman, Austria-Hungary, Russia and Germany dissolved.
- Instead of Russia, the Soviet Union;

Instead of the Ottoman State, Turkey;

In the territories of Austria-Hungary 4 new countries (Austria, Hungary, Poland and Czechoslovakia) were established.

- Monarchies broke down and republics established.
- At the end of the war between all countries (even if defeated or not) some social, economical and political depressions occured. Afterwards, some kind of totalitarian and authoritarian administrations came to power.
- The first World War constituted the main reason of the Second World War.

Mondros Armistice (October 30, 1918), Political Developments and Ottoman Governments in the Armistice Period

ARMİSTİCE PERİOD 1918-1922

(Mondros Armistice 1918, 30th October) Between Ottoman State and Allied Powers

Titles

- I. Opening of Dardanelles and Bosporos, and secure access to the Black Sea. Allied occupation of Dardanelles and Bosporus forts.
- VII. The Allies to have the right to occupy any strategic points in the event of any situation arising which threatens the security of the Allies.
- XXIV. In case of disorder in the six Armenian vilayets, the Allies reserve to themselves the right to occupy any part of them.

After The Armistice:

- England occupied: Mosul, Iskenderun, Antakya, Batum, Kilis, Antep, Haydarpaşa Station, Maras, Birecik Samsun, Urfa, Merzifon, Kars.
- France occupied: Mersin, East Trace Railways, Adana, Pozantı, East Railways, Taurus Tunnel System, Afyon…
- England and France (Together occupied): Dardanelles, Turgutlu, Aydın Railways,
- Italy occupied: Konya Station, Antalya, Kusadasi, Marmaris, Bodrum, Fethiye, Afyon, Burdur.

Governments of this Era
Talat Pasha (Until the end of World War)
Ahmet Izzet Pasha (This Government signed Mondros Armistice)
Tevfik Pasha (without Unionists)
Damat Ferit 1919 (Anglofilo)

Political Events, the Press, Paris Peace Conference and Occupation of Izmir

After the Armistice of Mudros

Paris Peace Conference 1919 January

England, France, USA, Italy and Japan organized this conference. Their prime ministers and Foreign affairs Ministers (The Big Four) joined the conference.

The Big Four were the President of the United States Woodrow Wilson; the Prime Minister of Great Britain David Lloyd George; the Prime Minister of France Georges Clemenceau; and the Prime Minister of Italy Vittorio Emanuele Orlando. They met together informally 145 times and made all the major decisions, which were ratified by the others. In this conference the peace agreements which were going to be signed with defeated countries except Ottoman State were decided:

- The Treaty of Versailles, 28 June 1919, (with Germany)
- The Treaty of Saint Germain, 10 September 1919, (with Austria)
- The Treaty of Neuilly, 27 November 1919, (with Bulgaria)
- The Treaty of Trianon, 4 June 1920, (with Hungary)

Occupation of İzmir

The Armistice of Moudros in the article 7 stated that the Allies "to occupy any strategic points in the event of any situation arising which threatens the security of Allies."

The chief proponent of the Greek occupation on the side of allies was the British Prime Minister David Lloyd George, despite strong opposition from his own foreign office. British foreign office argued Greece had already proved incapable of keeping order in Salonika, and could not be trusted to administer large tracts of Asia Minor. Lloyd George had thus concocted a report according to which Turkish guerrillas had threatened the Greek minorities in İzmir[5]. This report gained the sympathy of President Woodrow Wilson, whilst Georges Clemenceau approved the landing with the hope of limiting further Italian gains. Same report used as a pretext for a Greek incursion into Asia Minor, beyond the province of İzmir.

Greek troops marching on Izmir's coastal street, May 1919.

A military administration was formed by the Greek premier Eleftherios Venizelos shortly after the initial landings. Venizelos had plans to annex İzmir that he succeeded in realizing his objective in Treaty of Sèvres August 10, 1920., He had immediately agreed to send Greek troops to İzmir after Italian troops had landed in Antalya.
Landings, 15 May 1919

- On May 15, 1919, twenty thousand Greek soldiers landed in İzmir and took control of the city and its surroundings under cover of the Greek, French, and British navies. Greeks of İzmir and other Christians, who formed the minority according to Ottoman sources and a majority according to Greek sources, greeted the Greek troops as liberators. According some other sources, Christian population was "perhaps a bare majority, more likely a large minority in the Smyrna Vilayet, which lay in an overwhelmingly Turkish Anatolia."

First Day of the Occupation

- The landings proved to be chaotic and one of the examples of atrocities, which would continue during the rest of the conflict, occurred in that very day. Von Mikusch notes: “The Christian crowd rages and yells… Many fall under the bayonet thrusts. The men are forced to tear the fezes from their heads and trample them underfoot – the worst outrage for a Mohammedan – all who refuse are cut down with the sword. The veils are torn from the women's faces. The mob begins to plunder the house of the Mohammedan”.
- There were several Westener eye-witnesses to the events that took place in Izmir. In such a report, Commanding Officer of the USS Arizona wrote:
- Old men, unarmed, and other unoffending civilian Turks were knocked down by the Greeks, killed by stabbing with knives or bayonets, and then afterwards, having their valuables and clothes stripped off their bodies, were thrown into the sea. Specific instances are cited by these same eyewitnesses where Turkish soldiers and officers were bayoneted from behind by their Greek guards, while the rabble rifled their pockets and then threw their bodies into the sea. Many of the worst instances of inhuman treatment of the Turks were while they were under arrest and on open sea front at noonday.

Societies in Mudros Period and Mustafa Kemal

Societies in Mudros Period

1. Harmful Societies
   A- Harmful communities established by minorities
   B- Harmful societies hostile to the national being

2. Useful Societies

HARMFUL ACTIVITIES

A- Associations Established by Minorities
Mavri Mira Association:

It was founded by the Fener-Greek Patriarch and aimed to establish the great kingdom of Greece.

Pontus - Greek Society:

It aimed to establish a Pontus-Greek State in the area (Eastern Black Sea) extending from Samsun to Batum, being the center of Trabzon.

Dashnak and Hincac Societies:

established by the Armenians, these societies aimed to establish an Armenian state in the region extending from Eastern Anatolia to Adana. It was supported by the French.

Kardos Society:

This community, founded by the Greeks, helped the apparently intended Greek immigrants.

Makabi and Alyans-Israelit Associations:

It was founded by Jews to establish a Jewish state in Palestine.

Others; Greek Red Cross Society (Greek), Greek Armenian Union Committee, Zaven Efendi Association.

B- Harmful societies hostile to the national being

They are harmful societies founded by Muslims. Despite the positive aims of the establishment, they contradict national independence because of the methods they follow.

Hürriyet and İtilaf, was aimed at self-defense law movements that were provoked by the enmity of the Union and Progress and played a provocative role in the internal revolts.

Sulh and Salamat-i Osmaniye Fırkasi: supported by Grand Vizier Damat Ferit, this society has argued that the salvation of the country can only be realized by keeping the command of the sultan and the caliphate.

Teali - Islamic Society:

It was founded in Istanbul. The basic stamina is the caliphate. He argued that salvation is in Islam.

Kurdish Teali Society:
It was founded in Istanbul with the power of Wilson's principles. He aimed to establish an independent Kurdistan state in Eastern Anatolia.

Wilson Principles Society:

This community, supported by some intellectuals, defended that the Ottoman State should enter the mandate and protection of the United States.

The British Council of Accountants:

Supported by the Istanbul government, this society advocated the refuge of British patronage in order to protect the existence of the Ottoman State.

**USEFUL ACTIVITIES**

Trakya-Paşaeli Society:

It is the first useful community established. It was established to prevent the occupation of the Eastern Thrace by the Greeks. In the event of the collapse of the Ottoman State, a decision was taken to establish an independent state.

The Law Society of İzmir Müdafaa-i Hukuk (Redd-i İlhak):

It was founded in Izmir immediately after Mondros. The aim is to prevent Izmir and its environs from joining Greece. However, upon the finalization of the occupation of Izmir by the Greeks, he continued to work as the Redemption Party.

Eastern Anatolia Defense and Law Society: The center is Istanbul. The aim is to prevent the establishment of the Armenian state by protecting Eastern Anatolia from occupations. This community has organized the congress of Erzurum.

**Properties of Useful Societies**

1- Regional societies. Their primary goal is not to protect the country, but to protect the region in which they are founded.

2- They generally continued to work through the media.

3- Nationalism is influential in thought. They raised the awareness of national resistance.

4- They are not connected or opposed to Istanbul.

5- They were united with the Sivas Congress
Mustafa Kemal in Samsun:

During Armistice period Mustafa Kemal was in Syria he was commander of Lighthning Group of Armies (Yıldırım Orduları Komutanlığı). After dissolving of this army he came back to Istanbul. During his days in Istanbul he published a newspaper called Minber with his friend Fethi Bey.

After Armistice, Greek movements spreaded in Black Sea. According to the 7th article of armistice, Allies threatened Ottoman Government about occupying this region. And government decided to send a commander to this region to control the conflicts. So Istanbul Government decided to send Mustafa Kemal to Anatolia to calm the conflicts. He went to Samsun as the Inspector of the Units of the Ninth Army. His authority was large enough, included, Samsun Van, Trabzon, Erzurum and also the civil administrator of these cities and military forces. All these vilayets were at his service. At the same time on 15th May 1919, İzmir was occupied by Greek forces with the support of Allied powers.

Mustafa Kemal arrived to Samsun on 19th May. After a while on 28th May he announced Havza Circular. Main idea of the circular was to create awareness against occupations. He wanted public to protest Musros Armistice.

On 22 June 1919 Amasya Circular was announced.

- The integrity of the country and the independence of the nation are in danger.
- The central government is unable to carry out the responsibilities which it has undertaken. As a result our existance as a nation remains unrecognised.
- The independence of the nation will be saved by the determination shown by the nation itself.
- It has been decided to convene a national congress at the earliest opportunity in sivas.

The method, reason and the ambition of national war of independence were pointed out in this circular.

Erzurum, Sivas and Other Congresses

Erzurum Congress 23th July 1919

- Mustafa Kemal quited his military duty.
- The fatherland is an indivisible whole within its national frontiers.
- If the central government is unable to defend the country the temporary government will be formed. Its members will be elected by the National Congress. If the congress is not in session, the appointments will be made by its Standing Committee.
- The Cristian population is not to be allowed to have political domination or privileges upsetting the balance of society.
- No foreign mandate or protection will be accepted.
Sivas Congress 2nd September 1919,

- Mustafa Kemal elected as a president.
- this congress debaded the decisions taken by Erzurum Congress and also a memorandum drawn up by some of its members.
- The Society for the Defence of Rights in Anatolia and Romumelia was established.
- This congress gave Mustafa Kemal the opportunity to take charge of the forces of the nation and to direct them.
- Standing Committee became general, consisting whole the country. And worked as executive function until the inauguration of the National Assembly.

Mustafa Kemal and Standing Committee arrived to Ankara on 27th December 1919. In Ankara Mustafa Kemal prepared National Pact (Misak-ı Milli) as the president of Standing Committee. For him The acceptation of National Pact, in Ottoman Chamber of Deputies.

In January 1920 The Last Chamber of Deputies was inaugurated. And National Pact was accepted. In February the final text of National Pact was announced and sent to the parliaments and World press.

As a reaction to National Pact in March 1920 İstanbul was occupied by England. The Assembly of Deputies was closed and quite a few deputies were arrested. A few of them espaced to Ankara.

This occupation resulted with the inauguration of National Assembly in Ankara. (April 23rd 1920)

### National Oath (Misak-ı Milli)

is the set of six decisions made by the last term of the Ottoman Parliament. Parliament met on 28 January 1920 and published their decisions on 12 February 1920.

The Ottoman Minister of Internal Affairs, Damat Ferid Pasha, made the opening speech of parliament due to Mehmed VI's illness. A group of parliamentarians called Felâh-ı Vatan was established by Mustafa Kemal's friends to acknowledge the decisions taken at the Erzurum Congress and the Sivas Congress. Mustafa Kemal said "It is the nation's iron fist that writes the Nation's Oath which is the main principle of our independence to the annals of history."

These decisions worried the occupying Allies, resulting in the Occupation of Constantinople by the British, French and Italian troops on 16 March 1920 and the establishment of a new Turkish republic.
nationalist parliament, the Grand National Assembly of Turkey, in Ankara. This also intensified the Turkish War of Independence against the Allies.

The six decisions of the Misak-ı Millî taken by the late Ottoman Parliament were later used as the basis for the claims of the Grand National Assembly in the Treaty of Kars and of the new Republic of Turkey in the Treaty of Lausanne.

1. The future of the territories inhabited by an Arab majority at the time of the signing of the Armistice of Mudros will be determined by a referendum. On the other hand, the territories which were not occupied at that time and inhabited by a Turkish majority are the homeland of the Turkish nation.
2. The status of Kars, Ardahan and Batum may be determined by a referendum.
3. The status of Western Thrace will be determined by the votes of its inhabitants.
4. The security of Istanbul and Marmara should be provided for. Transport and free-trade on the Straits of the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles will be determined by Turkey and other concerned countries.
5. The rights of minorities will be issued on condition that the rights of the Muslim minorities in neighboring countries are protected.
6. In order to develop in every field, the country should be independent and free; all restrictions on political, judicial and financial development will be removed.

The Structure of Grand National Assembly and Sevr Peace Treaty

The structure of Grand National Assembly

Most of the researchers think that the first Grand National Assembly was the most democratic assembly in Turkey. There were soldiers, merchants, lawyers, farmers, journalists and religious men... Also many people had chances to express their opinions and point of views. There were different ideas and world views. Also there were groups in assembly such as İstiklal, Halk Zümresi, Tesanüt and Islahat. These groups worked as political parties. In addition, The deputies closer to Mustafa Kemal constituted “The First Group” and the opposite people to Mustafa Kemal constituted “The Second Group”

In August 1920 Sevr Peace Treaty was signed by Istanbul Government. The treaty was planed in San Remo Conference by Allied Powers. But because of there was no assembly in Istanbul, The treaty was accepted in Sultanate Council. The Grand National Assembly did not accept this treaty and announced the one who signed this treaty as a traitor.

In 1921 National Assembly accepted the new constitution of Ankara Government called Teşkilat-ı Esasiye. This constitution was very short and created in a short time. The absent part of this constitution was filled with Kanun-i Esasi. So we called this period as a dual constitutional period.

1st Article of Teşkilat-ı Esasiye: Sovereignty is vested in the nation without condition. The governmental system is based on the principle of self-determination and government by the people.
East

The border of the Republic of Armenia (ADR) and Ottoman Empire was defined in the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk (March 3, 1918) after the Bolshevik revolution, and later by the Treaty of Batum (June 4, 1918) with the ADR. It was obvious that after the Armistice of Mudros (October 30, 1918) the eastern border was not going to stay as it was drawn. There were talks going on with the Armenian Diaspora and Triple Entente on reshaping the border. The Fourteen Points was seen as an incentive to the ADR, if the Armenians could prove that they were the majority of the population and that they had military control over the eastern regions. The Armenian movements on the borders were being used as an argument to redraw the border between the Ottoman Empire and the ADR. Woodrow Wilson agreed to transfer the territories back to the ADR on the principle that they were dominated by Armenians. The results of these talks were to be reflected on the Treaty of Sèvres (August 10, 1920). There was also a movement of Armenians from the southeast with French support. The French-Armenian Agreement granted the Armenian claims to Cilicia with the establishment of the French Armenian Legion. The general idea at that time was to integrate the ADR into the French supported southeast Armenian movement. This way the ADR could gain much-sought-after resources to balance the Bolshevik expansionist movements.

One of the most important fights had taken place on this border. The very early onset of a national army was proof of this, even though there was a pressing Greek danger to the west. The stage of the eastern campaign developed through Kâzim Karabekir’s two reports (May 30 and June 4, 1920) outlining the situation in the region. He was detailing the activities of the Armenian Republic and advising on how to shape the sources on the eastern borders, especially in Erzurum. The Russian government sent a message to settle not only the Armenian but also the Iranian border through diplomacy under Russian control. Soviet support was absolutely vital for the Turkish nationalist movement, as Turkey was underdeveloped and had no domestic armaments industry. Bakir Sami Bey was assigned to the talks. The Bolsheviks demanded that Van and Bitlis be transferred to Armenia. This was unacceptable to the Turkish revolutionaries.

Eastern resolution

The Treaty of Sèvres was signed by the Ottoman Empire and was followed by the occupation of Artvin by Georgian forces on 25 July.

The Treaty of Alexandropol (December 2, 1920) was the first treaty signed by the Turkish revolutionaries. It nullified the Armenian activities on the eastern border, which was reflected in the Treaty of Sèvres as a succession of regions named Wilsonian Armenia. The 10th item in the Treaty of Alexandropol stated that Armenia renounced the Treaty of Sèvres, which stipulated Wilsonian Armenia.

After the peace agreement with the Turkish nationalists, in late November, a Soviet-backed Communist uprising took place in Armenia. On November 28, 1920, the 11th Red Army under the command of Anatoliy Gekker crossed over into Armenia from Soviet Azerbaijan. The second Soviet-Armenian war lasted only a week. After their defeat by the Turkish revolutionaries the Armenians were no longer a threat to the Nationalist cause. It is also possible to claim that had the ADR been content with the boundaries as of 1919, it could have shown more resistance to the Bolshevik conquest, both internally and externally, but that was not how things happened.
On March 16, 1921, the Bolsheviks and Turkey signed a more comprehensive agreement, the Treaty of Kars, which involved representatives of Soviet Armenia, Soviet Azerbaijan, and Soviet Georgia.

The arms left by the defeated ADR forces were sent to the west for use against the Greeks.

**South**

French officer with five Turkish prisoners from Antep (later Gaziantep). The officer has, on his right, a soldier of the French Colonial Forces; on his left, wearing epaulettes, an auxiliary from the French Armenian Legion.

Franco-Turkish War

The French wanted to take control of Syria. With pressure against the French, Cilicia would be easily left to the nationalists. The Taurus Mountains were critical to the Ankara government. The French soldiers were foreign to the region and they were using Armenian militia to acquire their intelligence. Turkish nationals had been in cooperation with Arab tribes in this area. Compared to the Greek threat, they were the second most dangerous for the Ankara government. He proposed that if the Greek threat could be dispersed, the French would not resist.

**Conference of London**

In salvaging the Treaty of Sèvres, The Triple Entente forced the Turkish Revolutionaries to agree with the terms through a series of conferences in London. The Conference of London, with sharp differences, failed in both the first stage and the second stages. The modified Sèvres of the conference as a peace settlement was incompatible with the National Pact.

The conference of London gave the Triple Entente an opportunity to reverse some of its policies. In October, parties to the conference received a report from Admiral Mark Lambert Bristol. He organized a commission to analyze the situation, and inquire into the bloodshed during the Occupation of Izmir and the following activities in the region. The commission reported that if annexation would not follow, Greece should not be the only occupation force in this area. Admiral Bristol was not so sure how to explain this annexation to U.S. President Woodrow Wilson as he insisted on "respect for nationalities" in the Fourteen Points. He believed that the sentiments of the Turks "will never accept this annexation".

Neither the Conference of London nor Admiral Mark Lambert Bristol's report changed British Prime Minister David Lloyd George's position. On February 12, 1921, he went with the annexation of the Aegean coast which was followed by the Greek offensive. David Lloyd George acted with his sentiments, which were developed during Battle of Gallipoli, as opposed to General Milne, who was his officer on the ground.

**Stage for peace, The Treaty of Ankara**

The first communication between the sides was during the failed Conference of London. The stage for peace effectively began after the Triple Entente's decision to make an arrangement with the Turkish revolutionaries. Before the talks with the Entente, the nationalists partially settled their eastern borders with the Democratic Republic of Armenia, signing Treaty of Alexandropol, but changes in the Caucasus—especially the establishment of the Armenian SSR—required one more round of talks. The outcome was the Treaty of Kars, a successor treaty to the earlier Treaty of Moscow of March 1921. It was signed in Kars with the Russian SFSR on October 13, 1921 and ratified in Yerevan on September 11, 1922.
The Ankara Agreement (or the Accord of Ankara; Franklin-Bouillon Agreement; Franco-Turkish Agreement of Ankara, Turkish: Ankara Anlaşması French: Traité d'Ankara) was signed on 20 October 1921 at Ankara (also known as Angora) between France and the Grand National Assembly of Turkey, ending the Franco-Turkish War.

The signatories were French diplomat Henry Franklin-Bouillon and Turkish foreign minister Yusuf Kemal Bey. Based on the terms of the agreement, the French acknowledged the end of the Franco-Turkish War and ceded large areas to Turkey. However other French units in Turkey were not affected, in return for economic concessions from Turkey. In return, the Turkish government acknowledged French imperial sovereignty over French Mandate of Syria. The treaty was registered in League of Nations Treaty Series on 30 August 1926.

This treaty changed the Syria–Turkey border set by the 1920 Treaty of Sèvres to the benefit of Turkey, ceding it large areas of the Aleppo and Adana vilayets. From west to east, the cities and districts of Adana, Osmaniye, Marash, Aintab, Kilis, Urfa, Mardin, Nusaybin, and Jazirat ibn Umar (Cizre) were consequently ceded to Turkey. The border was to run from the Mediterranean Sea immediately south of Payas to Meidan Ekbis (which would remain in Syria), then bend towards the south-east, running between Marsova (Mersawa) in the Sharran district of Syria and Karnaba and Kilis in Turkey, to join the Baghdad Railway at Çobanbey. From there it would follow the railway track to Nusaybin, with the border being on the Syrian side of the track, leaving the track in Turkish territory. From Nusaybin it would follow the old road to Jazirat ibn Umar, with the road being in Turkish territory, although both countries could use it.

The sanjak of Alexandretta in Syria was given a special administrative status, with official recognition of the Turkish language and provision for the cultural development of the Turkish inhabitants, who were the largest single ethno-religious group. According to Article 9 of the treaty the Tomb of Suleyman Shah (the burial place of Suleyman Shah, the grandfather of Osman I, the founder of the Ottoman Empire) in Syria "shall remain, with its appurtenances, the property of Turkey, who may appoint guardians for it and may hoist the Turkish flag there".

This annulment of French claims over Turkish land was later officially recognised in the Armistice of Mudanya. The new border was recognized in the subsequent Treaty of Lausanne in 1923.

**Western Front**

13th Inonu Battle / January 1921, began with the offensive of Greek troops. The Ankara Government forces stopped Greek forces in front of İnönü village. As a result of this war, Allied powers recognized Ankara Government.

1921 London Peace Conference
• The Allies hoped to impose modified Serves as a peace settlement on Ankara
• The Entente foreign ministers proposed Ankara to establish an Armenian state in eastern Anatolia, removing Turkish troops from the Straits area, and also wanted Turkish abandonment to the Greeks of Smyrna and Eastern Thrace, including Adrianople.
• These proposals were so incompatible with the National Pact that it was easy for the Ankara Assembly to reject them.

Ankara Government was represented by Bekir Sami Bey and Istanbul Government was represented by Tevfik Paşa. Allied powers invited two governments to fall them into conflict. Main idea of Allied powers was, to provide Sevr Treaty to be accepted by Ankara Government.

• Bekir Sami Bey signed dual agreements with England, France and Italy without the permission of Assembly.
• So that Grand National Assembly rejected these agreements.
• The invitation of Ankara Government to this Conference exhibits the recognition of Ankara Government so that this conference is the result of Inonu victory

**Treaty of Moscow** (March 16, 1921), pact concluded at Moscow between the nationalist government of Turkey and the Soviet Union that fixed Turkey’s northeastern frontier and established friendly relations between the two nations.

With the advent of the Russian Revolution (October 1917), Russia withdrew from World War I and ceased hostilities against the Ottoman Empire. The new Soviet regime found itself allied against the West with the Turkish nationalists, who were fighting against both Western domination and the Ottoman government that had capitulated to the Western Allies. According to Moscow Treaty signed between Ankara Government and Soviet Russia:

• The Soviets accepted National Pact
• The Soviets accepted the treaties between Georgia and Armenia
• The agreements between Tsarist Russia and Ottoman State will be canceled.
• The agreement which one of them do not accept, won’t be accepted by another one.

**2nd İnönü Battle** /March 1921: Greek Forces was defeated by Turkish forces.

Kütahya Eskişehir Battles: Turkish forces was defeated by Greek forces. With this defeat opposing group in National Assembly began to critized Mustafa Kemal.

On 5August 1921 in the Assembly The **Law of of Commander in chief (Başkomutanlık Yasası)** was accepted so Assembly transfered all its power to Mustafa Kemal for 3 months. After 3 days Mustafa Kemal declared National Obligation Law (Tekalif-i Milliye Kanunu)

**Sakarya Battle** /September 1921

With this war Ankara Government confirmed its existance and victory. After this victory Ankara Treaty with France was signed. (The southern front was closed with this agreement), France changed her approach towards England and quited her cooperation. So this victory created division between Allied Powers. One year after this victory, the Great Offensive of Turkish Forces began.

**Great Offensive** /August 1922

In 1922 The last offensive was actualized by Turkish Forces. All Greek Powers were defeated. Mustafa Kemal declared to Armies “**Armies Your first target is Mediterenian**” and he pointed Agean
The Armistice of Mudros

was concluded on 30 October 1918, ended the hostilities, at noon the next day, in the Middle Eastern theatre between the Ottoman Empire and the Allies of World War I. It was signed by the Ottoman Minister of Marine Affairs Rauf Bey and the British Admiral Somerset Arthur Gough-Calthorpe, on board HMS Agamemnon in Moudros harbor on the Greek island of Lemnos.

As part of several conditions to the armistice, the Ottomans surrendered their remaining garrisons outside Anatolia, as well as granted the Allies the right to occupy forts controlling the Straits of the Dardanelles and the Bosporus; and the right to occupy the same "in case of disorder" any Ottoman territory in the event of a threat to their security. The Ottoman army including the Ottoman air force was demobilized, and all ports, railways, and other strategic points were made available for use by the Allies. In the Caucasus, the Ottomans had to retreat to within the pre-war borders between the Ottoman and the Russian Empires.

The armistice was followed by the occupation of Constantinople (Istanbul) and the subsequent partitioning of the Ottoman Empire. The Treaty of Sèvres (10 August 1920) which was signed in the aftermath of World War I was never ratified by the Ottoman Parliament in Istanbul (the Ottoman Parliament was disbanded by the Allies on 11 April 1920 due to the overwhelming opposition of the Turkish MPs to the provisions discussed in Sèvres). It was later superseded by the Treaty of Lausanne (24 July 1923) following the Turkish victory at the Turkish War of Independence (1919–1922) which was conducted by the Grand National Assembly of Turkey in Ankara (established on 23 April 1920 by Mustafa Kemal Pasha and his followers, including his colleagues in the disbanded Ottoman military, and numerous former MPs of the closed Ottoman Parliament in Istanbul.)

The British Cabinet received word of the offer and were eager to negotiate a deal. The standing terms of the alliance was that the first member that was approached for an armistice should conduct the negotiations; the British government interpreted that to mean that Britain conduct the negotiations and alone. It is not entirely clear whether it was the sincere British interpretation of the alliance terms, fears that the French would insist on over-harsh demands and foil a treaty or a desire to cut the French out of territorial "spoils" promised to them in the Sykes-Picot agreement. Townshend also indicated that the Ottomans preferred to deal with the British; he did not know about the American contact or that Talaat had sent an emissary to the French as well but that emissary had been slower to respond back. The British cabinet empowered Admiral Calthorpe to conduct the negotiations with an explicit exclusion of the French from them. They also suggested an Armistice rather than a full peace treaty, in the belief that a peace treaty would require the approval of all of the Allied nations and so be too slow.

The negotiations began on Sunday, October 27 on the HMS Agamemnon, a British battleship. The British refused to admit French Vice-Admiral Jean-François-Charles Amet, the senior French naval officer in the area, despite his desire to join; the Ottoman delegation, headed by Minister of Marine Affairs Rauf Bey, indicated that it was acceptable as they were accredited only to the British, not the French.
Both sides did not know that the other was actually quite eager to sign a deal and willing to give up their objectives to do so. The British delegation had been given a list of 24 demands but were told to concede on any of them except allowing the occupation of the forts on the Dardanelles as well as free passage through the Bosphorus; the British desired access to the Black Sea for the Rumanian front. Prime Minister David Lloyd George also desired to make a deal quickly before the United States could step in; according to the diary of Maurice Hankey:

[Lloyd George] was also very contemptuous of President Wilson and anxious to arrange the division of Turkey between France, Italy, and G.B. before speaking to America. He also thought it would attract less attention to our enormous gains during the war if we swallowed our share of Turkey now, and the German colonies later.

The Ottoman authorities, for their part, believed the war to be lost and would have accepted almost any demands placed on them. As a result, the initial draft prepared by the British was accepted largely unchanged; the Ottoman side did not know it could have pushed back on most of the clauses, and the British did not know they could have demanded even more. Still, the terms were largely pro-British and close to an outright surrender; the Ottoman Empire ceded the rights to the Allies to occupy "in case of disorder" any Ottoman territory, a vague and broad clause.

The French were displeased with the precedent; French Premier Georges Clemenceau disliked the British making unilateral decisions in so important a matter. Lloyd George countered that the French had concluded a similar armistice on short notice in the Armistice of Salonica, which had been negotiated by French General d'Esperey and that Great Britain (and Tsarist Russia) had committed the vast majority of troops to the campaign against the Ottoman Empire. The French agreed to accept the matter as closed. The Ottoman educated public, however, was given misleadingly positive impressions of the severity of the terms of the Armistice. It thought its terms were considerably more lenient than they actually were, a source of discontent later that the Allies had betrayed the offered terms during the Turkish War of Independence.

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The Armistice of Mudros officially brought hostilities to an end between the Allies and the Ottoman Empire. However, incursions by the Italians and Greeks into Anatolia in the name of "restoring order" soon came close to an outright partition of the country. The Treaty of Sèvres in 1920 officially partitioned the Ottoman Empire into zones of influence; however, the Turkish War of Independence (1919–23) saw the rejection of the treaty by Turkish nationalist forces based in Ankara, who eventually took control of the Anatolian Peninsula. Ottoman territory in Syria, Palestine, and Arabia stayed as distributed by the Treaty of Sèvres while the borders of the modern state of Turkey were set by the Treaty of Lausanne in 1923.

The Treaty of Lausanne

was a peace treaty signed in Lausanne, Switzerland, on 24 July 1923. It officially settled the conflict that had originally existed between the Ottoman Empire and the Allied British Empire, French Republic, Kingdom of Italy, Empire of Japan, Kingdom of Greece, and the Kingdom of Romania since the onset of World War I. The original text of the treaty is in French. It was the result of a second attempt at peace after the failed Treaty of Sèvres, which was signed by all previous parties but later rejected by the Turkish national movement who fought against the previous terms and significant loss of territory. The Treaty of Lausanne ended the conflict and defined the borders of the modern Turkish Republic. In the treaty, Turkey gave up all claims to the remainder of the Ottoman Empire and in return the Allies recognized Turkish sovereignty within its new borders.
The treaty was ratified by Turkey on 23 August 1923, Greece on 25 August 1923, Italy on 12 March 1924, Japan on 15 May 1924, Great Britain on 16 July 1924. The treaty came into force on 6 August 1924, when the instruments of ratification had been officially deposited in Paris, France.

The Treaty of Lausanne led to the international recognition of the sovereignty of the new Republic of Turkey as the successor state of the defunct Ottoman Empire. The Convention on the Turkish Straits lasted only thirteen years and was replaced with the Montreux Convention Regarding the Regime of the Turkish Straits in 1936. The customs limitations in the treaty were shortly reworked.

Hatay Province remained a part of the French Mandate of Syria according to the Treaty of Lausanne, but in 1938 gained its independence as the Hatay State, which later joined Turkey after a referendum in 1939. Political amnesty was applied to the 150 personae non gratae of Turkey (descendants of the Ottoman dynasty) who slowly acquired citizenship — the last one was in 1974.
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