

THE REVOLT OF CAVALLAN MEHMET ALI PASHA** (1831-1841)

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INTRODUCTION

The Ottoman Empire lived for many centuries as a society composed of peoples of different races, religions, languages, and cultures. Due to this peculiarity, "nationalism" and "independence" movements which started by the end of the 18. century, spread quickly across the Ottoman lands. Starting from the beginning of the 19 century, these political movements caused many revolts in the Empire and international disputes were inevitable to take place.

During this period, vast areas of land which had strategic and economic value were still under the control of the Empire. However, the Ottoman Empire, which didn't keep up with the developments of the Enlightenment Age in Europe and which couldn't accomplish the Industrial Revolution, felt the economic and military problems more harshly at the beginning of the 19. century. That is why, the states who had aspirations on the Ottoman Empire, propagated the ideas of nationalism and independence around the country. The Great Powers who wished to conquer Egypt and control the eastern Mediterranean encouraged the uprisings in the Balkans and Morea.

The first act of insurgency in the Balkans is that of the Serbian one in 1804. A little while after this incident, the Ottoman-Russian war of 1806-1812 broke out in. As the Russians were fighting back, they were also trying to make the Christian subjects in the Balkans to rise against the Ottoman empire¹.

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**In Türkiye, Mohammed Ali is known and found in all official documents as Kavalali Mehmet Ali Pasha.

1. Enver Ziya KARAL, Osmanlı tarihi, c.V. TTK. Basımevi, Ankara 1983, p.105; Rifat UÇAROL, Siyasi Tarih, Harp Akademileri Basımevi, İstanbul 1982, p.101.

As these events were taking place in the Ottoman lands, in the first quarter of the 19 century, political changes of utmost importance took place in Europe. As a result of French Revolution and Napoleonic wars, the political map of Europe and the balance of powers were shattered. In order to solve all the Europe and the balance of powers were shattered. In order to solve all the problems, and to give a new shape and organization to Europe, the Congress of Vienna convened. With the terms of the 'Congress of Vienna', which was signed on 9 June 1815 a new status appeared in Europe². Great Britain, Russia, Austria-Hungarian empire and Prussia organized the balance of powers in Europe in accordance with their respective aims.

The great powers of Europe which made the terms of the Congress of Vienna, imposed these decisions on the other European countries, starting from France. As these decisions were being made, no human rights were kept in mind, political ideas such as Nationalism and independence were disregarded, and consequently the borders which were drawn remained disputable and unnatural. This is why in 1830 insurrections began to take place against this new status³.

A little while after the Congress of Vienna, the idea of nationalism spread quickly among the Greek with the political influence and encouragement of primarily of France and Russia. Greeks, who had secured all kinds of cultural and economic aid for independence, started an rebellion in Morea in 1821⁴. The Ottoman government (hence the Porte), tried very hard to suppress the insurrection which developed in a short time and spread as far as the Aegean islands. However, despite all kinds of efforts, as time progressed to 1824, the clashes were still continuing with severely. The Porte, having realized that they would not be able to suppress the rebellion in this way, in 1824, summoned the pasha of Egypt, Mehmet Ali Pasha, for aid. Mehmet Ali Pasha, who had a regular army and a powerful fleet which were trained by Europeans, agreed to sup-

2. Rifat UÇAROL, *ibid.* p.39; Oral SANDER, *Siyasi Tarih, İlkçağlardan I. Dünya Savaşı Sonuna Kadar*, İmge Yayınevi, Ankara 1989, p.; Mehmet GÖNLÜBOL, *Milletlerarası Siyasi Teşkilatlanma*, Ankara 1968, p.37-43.

3. Rifat UÇAROL, *ibid.* p.86.

4. Bilal SİMSİR, *Ege Sorunu*, Belgeler, c.1., Ankara 1976, p.XIII; Enver Ziya KARAL, *ibid.* p.112.

press the rebellion on the condition that the pasaliks of Crete and Morea were to be handed over to him.⁵

Starting from 1825, the Egyptian army, which set out to suppress the rebellion of Morea with the Ottoman army, showed great achievements in a short time. Great Britain, Russia and France signed a protocol against the Ottoman state, after the joint Ottoman & Egyptian forces had suppressed the rebellion against their expectations.

With the Protocol of London, these three states asked for a cease-fire agreement to be signed between the rebels and the Porte. Furthermore, they declared that the Greek state will be set up following the cease-fire. As the Ottoman government refused these demands, with the intervention of these powers, the joint Ottoman-Egyptian fleet was shattered in Navarino on 20 November 1827.

When the sudden attack in Navarino developed into a diplomatic question, the ambassadors of G. Britain, Russia, and France left Istanbul. G. Britain sent ships to transport the troops of Ibrahim Pasha back to Egypt. France, on the other hand, temporarily occupied Morea with 30.000 troops. As for The Russians, they declared war on the Ottoman Empire in April 1828.

The Ottoman-Russian war of 1828-1829 resulted with the defeat of the former, and on September 14 1829, Edirne Peace Treaty was signed. With this agreement, the Ottomans accepted the Protocol of London and the Greek state was set up⁶.

MEHMET ALI PASHA AND HIS GOVERNORSHIP OF EGYPT

Mehmet Ali Pasha was born in Cavalla in 1769. Despite of his lack of education, he had an imposing character because of his shrewdness and bravery. After trying various jobs until the age of 18, he joined the military profession. He arrived in Cairo in 1799, as the head of the selected troops sent from Cavalla to save Egypt from the invading forces of Napoleon. Following the French evacuation of Cairo, he gained the leadership of bashibazouks, or volunteers, and became their commander⁷.

5. Rifat UÇAROL, *ibid.*, p.110; Enver Ziya KARAL, *ibid.*, p.115.

6. Enver Ziya KARAL, *ibid.*, p.118-121.

7. Şinasi ALTUNDAĞ, "Mehmet Ali Paşa", *İslam Ansiklopedisi*, c.7, Milli Eğitim Basımevi, İstanbul, p.567.

He made good use of the administration of Egypt which was spoiled after the French Campaign, and the weaknesses of the Ottoman rule in the region. He made profitable use of the Mameluks, who were greatest problem of the Ottoman administration in Egypt. Provoking the Mameluks against the Ottomans; and the Albanians against the Mameluks, he made use of this strife for his benefit and gained the confidence of the local people. Using his intelligence and effective military leadership, he used various intrigues to take over the administration. Thus he was able to make the present pasha of Egypt, Governor Hüsrev Pasha, flee the country; and with the support of the people, he took over the control. Against this fait accompli, in 1805, the Ottoman administration conferred him the office of the pasha of Egypt on the condition that he pay his regular annual payments and subdue the Wahhabis who conquered the Hejaz (the holy cities of Mecca and Medina)⁸.

After being pasha of Egypt, the first thing Mehmet Ali Pasha did was to put an end to the internal strife and political confusion. He made a determined effort to remove the influence of the Mameluk beys in Egypt even though it was Ottoman land. He defeated the British forces which intended to invade Egypt in 1807, and in 1811, he massacred the majority of the Mameluks and became the only sovereign of Egypt. The Ottoman administration which felt anxious over the continual strengthening of Mehmet Ali Pasha in Egypt, however, appointed him as the pasha of Selonika and Kavala, could not remove him from Egypt.

After suppressing the Wahhabi rebellion in Hejaz in 1818, Mehmet Ali Pasha increased his power and influence. He also gained recognition and respect in the Islamic world too. Upon this development, the Ottoman state passed on him the pasaliks of Hejaz and Ethiopia too. Having conquered the Sudan completely in 1822, Mehmet Ali Pasha started to set up a strong Egypt quickly⁹.

Mehmet Ali Pasha, who started to set up a strong state so as to control the area by a stronger Egypt and move independently from Istanbul, introduced great reforms in Egypt. Starting economic, military and administrative reforms in Egypt, Mehmet Ali Pasha, nationalized all the land in Egypt as his first task. The irrigation

8. Şinasi ALTUNDAĞ, *ibid.*, p.567; Enver Ziya KARAL, *ibid.*, p.126; Rifat UÇAROL, *ibid.*, p.125.

9. Şinasi ALTUNDAĞ, *ibid.*, p.570.

works were reorganized through the channel that headed from the Nile to Alexandria. Cotton production in the delta of the Nile was emphasized. The production of industrial produces such as opium, rice, sugar beet, and grain started. As a result of close co-operation with France, a new face was injected into the Egyptian economy through thread, sugar, olive oil and alcohol plants¹⁰.

As a result of these activities, the annual income of Egypt rose from 13000 kese to 400000 kese gold in four years. With some of this money, he set up a modern army and fleet under the supervision of French officers and technicians. The remaining amount was used for the training of many young people in Europe to be informed in all fields and to get to know the industries of Europe. Thus, under the rule of Mehmet Ali Pasha, Egypt became a center of power in the eastern Mediterranean that could assume important roles.

THE BEGINNING AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE REVOLT

In the aftermath of Navarino raid, Mehmet Ali Pasha realized that Morea might be disposed of and that Greece would get its independence. Therefore he made an agreement with the British to pull out his army back to Egypt on 6 August 1828. The only prize he got from campaign of Morea, which cost thousands of lives, great expenditures, and the destruction of his fleet, was the pashalik of Crete. However, his power and prestige in Egypt increased significantly. He made personal agreements with the European countries as though he was an independent ruler. Moreover, the modern Egyptian army tried new warfare techniques and equipment and got to know to Ottoman army closely.

Following these incidents, a number of events which increased the tension between Sultan Mahmud II and Mehmet Ali Pasha took place. The first one happened during the 1828-1829 Ottoman-Russian war. Sultan Mahmud II summoned Mehmet Ali Pasha to aid the Ottoman army in this war. Mehmet Ali Pasha did not comply with this order under the pretenses of distance, the destruction of his fleet and epidemic diseases in Syria, which was on his way. Mahmud II, who was annoyed with Mehmet Ali Pasha's withdrawal of Egyptian troops without his knowledge,

10. Şinasi ALTUNDAĞ, *ibid.*, p.570; Oral SANDER, *ibid.*, p.119.

assumed a clearly negative attitude after this incident. Following the Convention of Edirne, which was signed after the Ottoman-Russian war, Mehmet Ali Pasha asked the Sultan to hand over the pasaliks of Syria and Crete, which had been promised to him¹¹. Mahmud II not only refused to give the above mentioned pasaliks, he also looked for the ways to remove him from the pasalik of Egypt.

Mahmut II, under the influence of the pashas around him, plotted a conspiracy against Mehmet Ali Pasha to get rid of him. According to the plan, with the pretext of a might be incident in Egypt, the pasha of Syria would be sent on Mehmet Ali Pasha and he would be killed. But, Mehmet Ali Pasha, who had been made aware of the plan before it was put into effect, began to watch for an opportunity to conquer Syria by force and to foil the plans against him.

The reasons for Kavalali> Mehmet Ali Pasha's revolt, including the desire to invade Syria too, can be put down as follows:

- (i) To make Egypt the greatest power in the neighboring areas, including the Sudan and all Arabia.
- (ii) To be able to act independently from Istanbul.
- (iii) To get the hereditary right for his family to rule Egypt.
- (iv) To occupy Syria, Anatolia, and maybe the whole Ottoman state¹².

Mehmet Ali Pasha, who had been planning to conquer Syria for a long time, finally decided to invade this country in 1831. In fact, he had chosen the right moment. The Ottoman empire had just come out of destructive war, and had lost two of her valuable provinces such as Morea and Algeria. Throughout the country there appeared many uprisings. The great powers of Europe, on the other hand, were dealing with the revolutions of 1830 and the problems which arose as a result of them.

Mehmet Ali Pasha, under such favorable conditions, sent his son, Ibrahim pasha, with an army of 24000 troops on the pasha of

11. Rifat UÇAROL, *ibid*, p.127; Enver Ziya KARAL, *ibid*, p.129.

12. Oral SANDER, *Anka'nın Yükselişi ve Düşüşü. Osmanlı Diplomasi Tarihi Üzerine Bir Deneme*, SBF Basımevi, Ankara 1987, p.119.

Acre. As the campaign was supported from the sea, the troops of Mehmet Ali Pasha occupied all of Syria by mid 1832¹³. As a reaction to this, Mahmud II declared Mehmet Ali Pasha an outlaw. He forwarded the Ottoman troops on Mehmet Ali Pasha, under the command of Hüseyin Pasha, whom the Sultan declared to be the next Pasha of Egypt. But, Mehmet Ali Pasha's son, Ibrahim Pasha, defeated the Ottoman army in Beylan on 25 July 1832. Immediately after this, he crossed the Taurus mountains and entered Anatolia.

After these victories, Mehmet Ali Pasha again applied to the Porte. He proposed to stop the war on the condition that Syria be given to him. Mahmud II refused this proposal, and this time under the command of Resit Pasha sent another army against Ibrahim Pasha. Resit Pasha besieged troops of Ibrahim Pasha in Konya, and attacked on them with the order of Mahmud II. The irregular Ottoman force under the command of Resit Pasha were shattered against the regular, modern Egyptian Army, which was trained by Western standard. 30000 people were killed in the war, an Resit Pasha was taken prisoner on 21 December 1832. Thus the last obstacle on his way being removed, the road to Istanbul opened¹⁴.

As the events turned out so unexpectedly, and realizing that the Ottoman empire would not be able to suppress the rebellion of one of her pashas, help was requested from the European states. In fact, the likely fall of Istanbul and maybe of the whole empire to the strong hands of Mehmet Ali Pasha, had already brought to action the European states that had special interests in the region. With this development, the incident passed the limit of an internal strife between the sultan and one of his pashas, and became a major international problem.

After hesitating for a short while in the presence of this unexpected development, European powers decided to intervene. Even though much of her strength was lost, the integrity of the Ottoman state was an indispensable factor for the balance and status of Europe. That is why they appeared to be against such a major change that might take place.

13. Oral SANDER, *ibid.*, p.120; Enver Ziya KARAL, *ibid.*, p.130.

14. Şinasi ALTUNDAĞ, *Kavalalı Mehmet Ali Paşa İsyanı ve Misir Meselesi 1831-1841, I. Kısım*, TTK Basımevi, Ankara 1988, p.64; Enver Ziya KARAL, *ibid.*, p.131.

However, at the beginning, the reaction of European states to the request of help by Sultan Mahmud II against Mehmet Ali Pasha, was in different ways according to their interests.

Russia was the state which was concerned with Mehmet Ali Pasha's revolt the most closely. Russia, being anxious of the developments, hurried to help the Ottoman empire. Russia, who, ever since czar Peter the First, had been trying to make Black Sea a Russian sea; to occupy the Turkish Straits, and to reach the Mediterranean had gone a long way. Whereas, if the stronger rule of Mehmet Ali Pasha took over the power instead of a weak Ottoman empire, this aspiration might not be achieved. Even Russia could have a neighbor that might pose a threat. Keeping all these in mind, by helping the weak Ottoman government against the stronger Mehmet Ali Pasha forces, Russia tried to secure both herself and her future aspirations¹⁵.

Austria, due to her general policy, was against internal insurrections. During the European revolutions of 1830, she was afraid of the actions of the communities in the Empire. This is why, Austria helped the Ottoman empire during the Mehmet Ali Pasha revolt. In this subject, she was cooperating with Russia. But, at the same time she was curious of Russia's intentions and influence in the Balkans¹⁶.

Realizing the importance of the area, France had not cut her ties with Egypt since the end of 18 century. After becoming the pasha of Egypt, Mehmet Ali Pasha developed this area in a short time with the help of French scientists and technicians. The modern Egyptian army and navy was also set up by French officers and military experts. And this provided France with very good privileges and superiority in Egypt when compared with other countries. Mehmet Ali Pasha was also a good friend of France by curtailing the aspirations of Great Britain in the Mediterranean. This is why, however, France adhered to the integrity of the Ottoman empire as a general principle, also supported Mehmet Ali Pasha during his revolt¹⁷.

Great Britain was a country which had great interests in the eastern Mediterranean. She was excessively disturbed by the very

15. Enver Ziya KARAL, *ibid*, p.133; Rifat UÇAROL, *ibid*, p.128.

16. Rifat UÇAROL, *ibid*, p.129.

17. Rifat UÇAROL, *ibid*, p.129.

close economic and military relations between France and Egypt. She knew that these relations would damage the interests and naval superiority they had in the Mediterranean. This is why, she did not welcome the revolt. Mehmet Ali Pasha's rule in Egypt and Syria might have endangered the naval and ground routes to India¹⁸.

As the forces of Mehmet Ali Pasha were advancing in Anatolia, the Ottoman empire first asked Great Britain for help. But, due to the conflict between Belgium and Holland, Great Britain was dealing with European problems and turned down its request. As France was supporting Mehmet Ali Pasha, as a last resort, Russia was called to help¹⁹. Assisting the Ottoman Empire in this revolt, because of the above mentioned reasons, Russia sent a fleet together with 5000 troops to Istanbul in 1833. So Russia became very influential on the Ottoman State.

This fait accompli immediately brought France and G. Britain, who had great interests in the eastern Mediterranean, into action. Starting an great diplomatic offensive these countries exercised political pressure on Mehmet Ali Pasha and forced him to stop his advance and make a treaty with the Ottoman empire. As a result of this pressure, Mehmet Ali Pasha signed the convention of Kütahya on 5 May 1833²⁰. With this treaty the pashalik of Syria was given to Mehmet Ali Pasha in addition to that Egypt and Crete. His son Ibrahim Pasha got the pashalik of Jeddah together with the right to collect taxes in the Cicia region.

After this treaty, Mehmet Ali Pasha ordered his troops to withdraw and Egyptian forces were pulled to the south of the Taurus mountains. Thus the first phase of the revolt came to an end. However, the treaty did not satisfy both parties and reciprocal distrust continued. Upon this distrust, Ottoman Empire signed a treaty of alliance with Russia. With this treaty, Mahmud II wanted to secure the future of the empire. Russia, on the other hand, wanted to continue the superior position she had obtained on the Bosphorus and in general on the Ottoman Empire. The agreement of Hünkâr iskelesi (peer of the sultan) which was signed on 8 July 1833, with its provisions, was a classical defense alliance²¹. With this treaty which was signed for a period of eight years, Russia

18. Enver Ziya KARAL, *ibid*, p.132.

19. Akdes Nîmet KURAT, *Türkiye ve Rusya*, Ankara 1970, p.59.

20. Şinasi ALTUNDAĞ, *ibid*, p.65; Enver Ziya KARAL, *ibid*, p.136.

21. Şinasi ALTUNDAĞ, *ibid*, p.145; Rıfaç UÇAROL, *ibid*, p.131.

guaranteed to send aid both on land and sea, in case of an attack on the Ottoman Empire. But with a secret article of the treaty, Russia got a crucial advantage on the Straits. According to this secret article, in case of an attack on Russia, the Ottoman Empire would not provide financial and military help, but would only close the Straits so as to hinder the passage of foreign warships.

The secret articles of the Hünkâr Iskelesi Treaty were immediately found out by France and Great Britain and it caused a great reaction. These two countries protested the Ottoman Empire and Russia because of the secret articles of the treaty and stated that they would not acknowledge them.

The Convention of Kütahya did not please the two sides because of its both contents and results. Furthermore, Mahmud II could not tolerate the uprising and its impacts, and was trying to recover the concessions he had granted. Thus it would be possible to teach a good lesson to Mehmet Ali Pasha and save the face of the country. Mehmet Ali Pasha, on the other hand, was trying to control more territory and get more privileges. For this reason, both sides were preparing for a new war and watching each other.

After the convention of Kütahya, Mehmet Ali Pasha began to act like a sovereign free from Istanbul. On the one hand he was strengthening his army and navy, and on the other he was willing to expand towards Iraq. In order to get support for his demands of independence and fulfill his desires on Iraq, he was carrying on his policy of getting closer to G. Britain. Moreover, seeing themselves stronger than the Ottoman Empire as a result of the victory they had won against the Ottomans, Ibrahim Pasha was demanding the return of the caliphate back to Cairo, Egypt. This situation itself, was creating severe reactions against Mehmet Ali Pasha especially in Syria and Lebanon²².

The Ottoman Empire also started to reorganize her own army in case of a likely war. As we come to the year of 1838, the rumours that Mehmet Ali Pasha would declare his independence began to spread. G. Britain was anxious that in case of a second war, Russia would get more concessions. Therefore, after 1838, she tried to get in close relations with the Ottoman state. Thus a trade

22. Şinasi ALTUNDAĞ, *ibid*, p.151.

agreement was signed between the two countries on 16 August 1838²³.

France, who at first reacted to this trade agreement very severely, later recognized it and also signed one too. Thus, the Ottoman Empire, after that of G. Britain, got the political support of France too.

THE SECOND PHASE OF THE REVOLT: THE BATTLE OF NEZIB

The second phase of Mehmet Ali Pasha's revolt started in 1839. Mehmet Ali Pasha, who had seen that the situation is getting worse for him due to the military preparations and diplomatic enterprises of the Ottoman Empire, demanded some concessions from the Porte. Upon the refusal, he declared his independence. With this development, Mahmud II, who had been preparing for a long time, started the war by sending the Ottoman army to Syria under the command of Hafiz Pasha in the spring of 1839. The Ottoman army met the Egyptian army under the command of Ibrahim Pasha in Nezib on June 24, 1839.

Both armies were almost equal in number. The Ottoman army had 30000 foot soldiers, 5000 cavalrymen along with 3000 gunmen. The Egyptian army had 40000 troops. The number of guns on both sides was 160²⁴.

In the Nezib battlefield, both armies had been deployed in accordance with battle rules and were waiting for the right moment to attack. The Prussian staff officers who were serving as advisors, seeing the favorable conditions for the Ottoman army, proposed to attack immediately. Both the scholars in the army prevented the attack, saying that it would not be proper to attack on Friday because of religious considerations. The following day the Prussian officers advised a night raid. The scholars this time said a night attack would not befit the sultan's grandeur. Meanwhile, the Egyptian army showed that it could besiege the flanks of the Ottoman army. One of the Prussian officers, Helmut von Moltke, advised Hafiz Pasha to withdraw via Birecik so as to escape the besiegement. Regarding withdrawal as a dishonor, Hafiz Pasha refused the proposal and did not move.

23. Rifat UÇAROL, *ibid*, p.134.

24. Enver Ziya KARAL, *ibid*, p.141; Şinasi ALTUNDAĞ, *ibid*, p.572.

As the Ottoman army hesitated for a long time whether to attack or withdraw, lost the very crucial time, and the Egyptian army started its attack on June 29. In just four hours, the Ottoman army under the command of Hafiz Pasha was shattered by the Egyptians. Many thousands of casualties, tens of thousands of prisoners and all 160 guns were left at the battlefield²⁵. Meanwhile Mahmud II died on 1 July 1839. His oldest son, Abdülmecid, ascended to throne at the age of 18 as the new sultan. A few days later, the Ottoman fleet which was anchored off the Çanakkale coast, was taken to Egypt and handed over to Mehmet Ali Pasha. Thus the Ottoman state, void of an army and a fleet, fell into a defenseless situation.

As the Ottoman state was defeated unexpectedly, she asked for peace from Mehmet Ali Pasha only on the condition of granting hereditary paşalık of Egypt. But, Mehmet Ali Pasha notified that he would accept peace only if the Ottoman state conceded to give away Egypt, Syria, Adana and Maras to him.

Upon these developments, fearing that Russia benefiting from the Hünkar Iskelesi Agreement, would be effective on the Porte, G. Britain and France decided to make this question a European one. Meanwhile, not venturing a conflict with Great Britain, Russia had to comply with this decision. Austria and Prussia also joined these states. These European states, forwarding a common memorandum to the Ottoman state, wanted her not to come to an agreement with Egypt, even though they had not had any consensus in their meeting.

The European states, after the meeting they held, decided that Syria be annexed back to the Ottoman empire. In order to realize this, they decided to send an ultimatum to Mehmet Ali Pasha, and in case of refusal to use force. Yet France stood against this decision, and again sided with Mehmet Ali Pasha. She even started to prepare for a possible war. This caused a strain in the relations between France and G. Britain²⁶.

Even though France did not consent to join, Russia, Austria, Prussia and G. Britain signed an agreement in London on 15 July 1840. The Ottoman state also accepted the terms of this agreement

25. Enver Ziya KARAL, *ibid*, p.142.

26. Rıfaç UÇAROL, *ibid*, p.136; Enver Ziya KARAL, *ibid.*, p.199.

and later made agreements with each of these countries successively²⁷.

According to the Convention of London, which was signed in order to find a solution for the Egyptian question:

(i) the sultan consented on the inheritance of the pashalik of Egypt to Mehmet Ali's family together with the handing over of pasaliks of southern Syria and Acre;

(ii) Mehmet Ali Pasha had to accept these conditions in ten days. Unless he came to terms with these conditions in ten days the pasalik of Acre; and in twenty days that of Egypt would be taken from him by force;

(iii) In twenty days Mehmet Ali Pasha would return the Ottoman Fleet which was in Egypt then.

With this convention, these for European states had shown and guaranteed that they would defend territorial integrity of the Ottoman Empire. Having relied on France's not acknowledging the agreement, Mehmet Ali Pasha himself did not accept any of the terms. Upon this, the Ottoman robbed him of all his titles, and declared him as a rebel. Immediately after this development, Ottoman, British and Austrian joint fleets besieged the Syrian coasts and landed troops in Lebanon. On the other hand, an Ottoman army, which was advancing in the north, defeated the troops of Ibrahim Pasha and forced him to withdraw from Syria. As these developments taking place in the military sphere, the Ottoman state declared the Chart of Tanzimat (The Political reforms of 1839)²⁸.

As France could not figure out that the Ottoman forces would react so immediately and that Egyptian forces would be shattered, she could not take any action. After these developments she could not face a conflict with Great Britain, she eventually had to change sides.

Mehmet Ali Pasha lost the French support after these developments. Furthermore, as these were taking place, a British fleet anchored off the coast of Alexandria on 27 November 1840. Upon the British pressure, Mehmet Ali Pasha agreed to return the Ottoman fleet in return for the right of the inheritance of the paşalık

27. Enver Ziya KARAL, *ibid*, p.199.

28. Rifat UÇAROL, *ibid*, p.136.

of Egyptian. Although the Ottoman Empire was willing to continue the war very much, under the British pressure, had to accept the agreement²⁹. Thus the war came to an end. After putting an end to the war, on 13 February 1841, the Ottoman state declared "The charter of concessions for the paşalık of Egypt" in order to clarify the new status of Egypt which was still her own territory. According to this firman:

(i) The pasalik of Egypt was relinquished to the family of Mehmet Ali Pasha with the inheritance rights to his children;

(ii) Egyptian pashas would be selected and appointed by the sultan among the descendants of Mehmet Ali Pasha;

(iii) The Ottoman law would be exercised in Egypt and taxes would be collected in the name of the sultan. Part of the tax revenues would be sent to Istanbul;

(iv) The Egyptian army would not exceed 18000 troops and senior officers would be appointed by the Ottoman state;

(v) The treaties that the Ottoman state made with other countries and the Chart of Gülhane would be valid for Egypt too;

(vi) Unless these terms were respected, the concessions given to Egypt would be declared void³⁰.

With this firman, Egypt became a province which had a special status but still dependent on the Ottoman Empire. As this new status was accepted by both sides, the question that had been going since 1831 officially came to an end.

THE RESULTS OF THE REVOLT

The revolt of Mehmet Ali Pasha, which had caused many problems for the Ottoman Empire and was looked upon as a domestic problem at the beginning, later became an notable European question. Consequently, these caused more problems for the Porte. Mehmet Ali Pasha, could not realize his ambitions that appeared with the revolt. But, in the end he earned Egypt for his family.

We can put down the effects of the revolt as such:

29. Oral SANDER, *ibid*, p.121; Rifat UÇAROL, *ibid*, p.136.

30. Enver Ziya KARAL, *ibid*, p.201-202.

(i) Mehmet Ali Pasha, who got control of Syria and Adana at the beginning of the revolt, had to give up these provinces at the end of the revolt. However, he gained sovereignty over Egypt on the condition that Egypt will remain as an Ottoman province.

(ii) Helping the Ottoman Empire at the beginning of the revolt and signing the Treaty of Hünkar Iskelesi, Russia gained advantages on the Ottoman Empire and the Straits. However, in the second phase of the question, with the intervention of G. Britain and France lost this advantage.

(iii) G. Britain, preventing Mehmet Ali Pasha from becoming stronger, saved her interests and the security of the eastern Mediterranean and India. Meanwhile, with the trade agreement that she signed with the Ottomans, she increased her interests in the Ottoman Empire. She saw how valuable Egypt was for the higher British interests.

(iv) In order to continue her reviving influence in Egypt, France sided with Mehmet Ali Pasha in most of the Egyptian question. However, she also insisted on the principle of protecting the territorial integrity of the Ottoman Empire. This double sided policy of France, from time to time, left her alone among the European states. That is why, France certainly did not earn anything from this problem.

(v) Austria, however, was not expecting any direct profits from the Egyptian question. In general, the suppression of this revolt was a success for her policy, when the balance of powers in Europe was taken into consideration.

(vi) The Ottoman state, in the aftermath of this revolt, once again realized how weak she was. In order to protect her territorial integrity, she had to ask for help from foreign countries so as to suppress the revolt of one of her pashas.

(vii) During the course and development of this revolt, the effect of the European powers in the domestic and foreign policy of the Ottoman state was felt more strongly.

(viii) The Ottoman state, however tied Egypt to herself legally, in reality lost this rich and strategically important province. Following this, she had to face another major problem: that of the Straits.

(ix) The Ottoman state, due to domestic and foreign causes declared the "Chart of Tanzimat", which had profound effects in the history of the Empire.

Following this date, G. Britain, France, Russia and Austria struggled for power in the Ottoman territory and especially in the Balkans. For example, the Crimean War of 1856 was a war that G. Britain, France and the Ottoman Empire waged to protect the balance of powers in the Balkans against Russia³¹.

The Ottomans, who thought of saving their country and her integrity through westernization, with the pressure of Western states declared the 1856 Charter of Reforms (Islahat Ferman) after that of the 1839, which was followed by the declaration of the constitution of 1876 as a result of her intellectuals. But she could not keep up with the scientific, technological, economic and political developments in the West. For this reason, she not only lost the territory where Mehmet Ali Pasha revolted, but most of the remaining provinces too. At the end of World War .I, with the intervention of the foreign powers, she collapsed.

Finally, domestic revolts had been one of the most important factors that caused the fall of the Ottoman Empire. But, Turkish people, under the leadership of Atatürk, won the War of Independence and established the young Republic of Türkiye³². They made this known to every one with the Lausanne Peace Treaty. That is why, for the Republic of Türkiye, Lausanne Peace Treaty is an official document of the establishment, of existence, and of acceptance into the international relations through international law³³.

FOOTNOTES

- (1) Enver Ziya KARAL, Osmanlı tarihi, c.V. TTK Basımevi, Ankara 1983, p.105; Rifat UÇAROL, Siyasi Tarih, Harp Akademileri Basımevi, İstanbul 1982, p.101.
- (2) Rifat UÇAROL, ibid. p.39; Oral SANDER, Siyasi Tarih, İlkçağlardan I. Dünya Savaşı Sonuna Kadar, İmge Yayınevi, Ankara 1989, p. ; Mehmet GÖNLÜBOL, Milletlerarası Siyasi Teşkilatlanma, Ankara 1968, p.37-43.
- (3) Rifat UÇAROL, ibid, p.86.
- (4) Bilal SIMSİR, Ege Sorunu-Belgeler, c.I, Ankara 1976, p.XIII; Enver Ziya KARAL, ibid, p.112.
- (5) Rifat UÇAROL, ibid, p.110; Enver Ziya KARAL, ibid, p.115.
- (6) Enver Ziya KARAL, ibid, p.118-121.
- (7) Şinasi ALTUNDAĞ, "Mehmet Ali Paşa", İslam Ansiklopedisi, c.7, Milli Eğitim Basımevi, İstanbul, p.567.

31. Mehmet KOCAOĞLU, Uluslararası İlişkiler, Ankara 1993, p.429.

32. See Lord KINROSS, Atatürk, the Rebirth of A Nation, Wiedeneld and Nicolson, London 1965, and Harry N. HOWARD; Partition of Turkey, New York 1966.

33. See: Mehmet KOCAOĞLU, ibid, p.244; Harry N. HOWARD, ibid.

- (8) Şinasi ALTUNDAĞ, ibid, p.567; Enver Ziya KARAL, ibid, p.126; Rifat UÇAROL, ibid, p.125.
- (9) Şinasi ALTUNDAĞ, ibid, p.570.
- (10) Şinasi ALTUNDAĞ, ibid, p.570; Oral SANDER, ibid, p.119.
- (11) Rifat UÇAROL, ibid, p.127; Enver Ziya KARAL, ibid, p.129.
- (12) Oral SANDER, Anka'nın Yükselişi ve Düşüşü. Osmanlı Diploması Tarihi Üzerine Bir Deneme, SBF Basımevi, Ankara 1987, p.119.
- (13) Oral SANDER, ibid, p.120; Enver Ziya KARAL, ibid, p.130.
- (14) Şinasi ALTUNDAĞ, Kavalali Mehmet Ali Paşa İsyanı ve Mısır Meselesi 1831-1841, I. Kısım, TTK Basımevi, Ankara 1988, p.64; Enver Ziya KARAL, ibid, p.131.
- (15) Enver Ziya KARAL, ibid, p.133; Rifat UÇAROL, ibid, p.128.
- (16) Rifat UÇAROL, ibid, p.129.
- (17) Rifat UÇAROL, ibid, p.129.
- (18) Enver Ziya KARAL, ibid, p.132.
- (19) Akdes Nimet KURAT, Türkiye ve Rusya, Ankara 1970, p.59.
- (20) Şinasi ALTUNDAĞ, ibid, p.65; Enver Ziya KARAL, ibid, p.136.
- (21) Şinasi ALTUNDAĞ, ibid, p.145; Rifat UÇAROL, ibid, p.131.
- (22) Şinasi ALTUNDAĞ, ibid, p.151.
- (23) Rifat UÇAROL, ibid, p.134.
- (24) Enver Ziya KARAL, ibid, p.141; Şinasi ALTUNDAĞ, ibid, p.572.
- (25) Enver Ziya KARAL, ibid, p.142.
- (26) Rifat UÇAROL, ibid, p.136; Enver Ziya KARAL, ibid, p.199.
- (27) Enver Ziya KARAL, ibid, p.199.
- (28) Rifat UÇAROL, ibid, p.136.
- (29) Oral SANDER, ibid, p.121; Rifat UÇAROL, ibid, p.136.
- (30) Enver Ziya KARAL, ibid, p.201-202.
- (31) Mehmet KOCAOĞLU, Uluslararası İlişkiler, Ankara 1993, p.429.
- (32) See Lord KINROSS, Atatürk, the Rebirth of A Nation, Wiedeneld and Nicolson, London 1965, and Harry N. HOWARD, Partition of Turkey, New York 1966.
- (33) Mehmet KOCAOĞLU, ibid, p.244; Harry N. HOWARD, ibid.

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