

ISSN: 2687-220X

# NOVUS ORBIS

Journal of Politics and International Relations  
Siyaset Bilimi ve Uluslararası İlişkiler Dergisi

Araştırma Makaleleri  
Research Articles

## **Ekonomik Faydacılığın Bir Örneği Olarak Türkiye-İsrail İlişkileri**

Türkiye-Israel Relations As a Case of Economic Utilitarianism

**Fevzi KIRBAŞOĞLU**  
**Meltem HASANÇEBİ**

## **The Impact Of Climate And Geopolitical Changes On Russia's Energy Policies in The Arctic Region**

İklim ve Jeopolitik Değişikliklerin Rusya'nın Arktik Bölgesindeki Enerji Politikalarına Etkisi

**Ferdi GÜÇYETMEZ**  
**Sina KISACIK**

## **Ottoman Bureaucrats Educated at The Translation Chamber And Their Effects on The State Administration In Modern Ottoman Diplomacy**

Modern Osmanlı Diplomasisinde Tercüme Odası Çıkışlı Osmanlı Bürokratları ve Devlet Yönetimine Etkileri

**Sacide Nur AKKAYA**

## **China, The United States And Japan in A Changing International Order: Historical Foundations Challenged By The Rise Of China**

Değişen Uluslararası Düzendeki Çin, ABD ve Japonya: Çin'in Yükselişi ile Aşınan Tarihsel Temeller

**Cem YILMAZ**

## **Küresel Ekonomik Güç Dengesi ve Güvenlik Politikaları**

Global Economic Balance of Power and Security Policies

**Mihriban BİLDİR**

Kitap İncelemeleri  
Book Reviews

*Ersal Yavi*

**Unutulmayan Fırtına Vali Recep Yazıcıoğlu**

**Muhammet NEGİZ**

## **Editörler Kurulu / Editorial Board**

### **Baş Editör / Editor-in-Chief**

- Doç. Dr. / Assoc. Prof. Özgür Tüfekçi
- Dr. Öğr. Üyesi / Assist. Prof. Hülya Kınık
- Dr. Öğr. Üyesi / Assist. Prof. Göktuğ Kıprızlı
- Arş. Gör. / Research Assist. Fevzi Kırbaşoğlu

### **Kitap İnceleme Editörleri / Book Review Editors**

- Doç. Dr. / Assoc. Prof. Bülent Şener (*Türkçe Kitap / Books in Turkish*)
- Doç. Dr. / Assoc. Prof. Murat Ülgül (*İngilizce Kitap / Books in English*)

### **Alan Editörleri / Section Editors**

- Dr. Öğr. Ü. / Assist. Prof. Fatma Akkan Güngör
- Dr. Öğr. Ü. / Assist. Prof. Yılmaz Bayram
- Doç. Dr. / Assoc. Prof. Ayça Eminoğlu
- Doç. Dr. / Assoc. Prof. Vahit Güntay
- Doç. Dr. / Assoc. Prof. Erol Kalkan
- Professor İsmail Köse

### **Uluslararası Danışma Kurulu / International Advisory Board**

- Dr. Shane Brennan – American University in Dubai, UAE
- Dr. Alessia Chiriatti – University for Foreigners of Perugia, Italy
- Professor Murat Çemrek – Necmettin Erbakan Üniversitesi, Türkiye
- Doç. Dr. / Assoc. Prof. Rahman Dağ – Zonguldak Bülent Ecevit Üniversitesi, Türkiye
- Dr. Federico Donelli – University of Genoa, Italy
- Professor Süleyman Erkan – Karadeniz Teknik Üniversitesi, Türkiye
- Professor Monique Sochaczewski Goldfeld – Escola de Comando e Estado-Maior do Exército, Brazil
- Dr. Ayla Göl – York St John University, UK
- Professor Emre İşeri – Yaşar Üniversitesi, Türkiye
- Professor Gökhan Koçer – Karadeniz Teknik Üniversitesi, Türkiye
- Dr. SungYong Lee – University of Otago, New Zeland
- Doç. Dr. / Assoc. Prof. Ali Onur Özçelik – Eskişehir Osmangazi Üniversitesi, Türkiye
- Professor Alp Özerdem – George Mason University, USA
- Dr. Öğr. Ü. / Assist. Prof. Kaan Renda – Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Türkiye
- Doç. Dr. / Assoc. Prof. Paul Richardson – University of Birmingham, UK
- Professor Didem Ekinci Sarier – Çankaya Üniversitesi, Türkiye
- Doç. Dr. / Assoc. Prof. Hüsrev Tabak – Recep Tayyip Erdoğan Üniversitesi, Türkiye

# Novus Orbis

## Siyaset Bilimi ve Uluslararası İlişkiler Dergisi

## Journal of Politics and International Relations

ISSN: 2687-220X

Cilt 6 | Sayı 1 | 2024  
Volume 6 | Number 1 | 2024

### İçindekiler / Table of Contents

#### Araştırma Makaleleri / Research Articles

4

##### Ekonomik Faydacılığın Bir Örneği Olarak Türkiye-İsrail İlişkileri

Türkiye-Israel Relations As a Case of Economic Utilitarianism

*Fevzi KIRBAŞOĞLU & Meltem HASANÇEBİ*

29

##### The Impact Of Climate And Geopolitical Changes On Russia's Energy Policies In The Arctic Region

İklim ve Jeopolitik Değişikliklerin Rusya'nın Arktik Bölgesindeki Enerji Politikalarına Etkisi

*Ferdi GÜÇYETMEZ & Sina KISACIK*

55

##### Ottoman Bureaucrats Educated At The Translation Chamber And Their Effects On The State Administration In Modern Ottoman Diplomacy

Modern Osmanlı Diplomasisinde Tercüme Odası Çıkışlı Osmanlı Bürokratları ve Devlet Yönetimine Etkileri

*Sacide Nur AKKAYA*

92

##### China, The United States And Japan In A Changing International Order: Historical Foundations Challenged By The Rise Of China

Değişen Uluslararası Düzeninde Çin, ABD ve Japonya: Çin'in Yükselişi ile Aşınan Tarihsel Temeller

*Cem YILMAZ*

118

##### Küresel Ekonomik Güç Dengesi Ve Güvenlik Politikaları

Global Economic Balance of Power and Security Policies

*Mihriban BİLDİR*

#### Kitap İncelemesi / Book Review

*Ersal Yavi*

Unutulmayan Fırtına Vali Recep Yazıcıoğlu

*Muhammet NEGİZ*

153

**NOVUS ORBIS**

Journal of Politics and International Relations | *Siyaset Bilimi ve Uluslararası İlişkiler Dergisi*  
Volume 6 | Cilt 6  
Number 1 | Sayı 1  
2024

**ARAŞTIRMA MAKALESİ / RESEARCH ARTICLE**

**OTTOMAN BUREAUCRATS EDUCATED AT  
THE TRANSLATION CHAMBER AND THEIR  
EFFECTS ON THE STATE ADMINISTRATION  
IN MODERN OTTOMAN DIPLOMACY**

Sacide Nur AKKAYA\*

*Makalenin Geliş Tarihi // Received: 14.07.2023*  
*Düzeltilme Tarihi // Revised: 02.04.2024*  
*Yayına Kabul Tarihi // Accepted: 13.05.2024*

**Abstract**

This study aims to present together the influence of the Ottoman bureaucrats, who were educated in the translation chamber (the institutions where modern Ottoman diplomacy was built) and promoted to important levels of the state, managing the high-level state mechanisms. In the Ottoman Empire, which was governed by the monarchy, the Sultan's authority was considered the only valid power for centuries. This situation changed during the spread of the Western-centered modernisation process within the empire. In this process, where diplomatic behaviour altered, high-ranking Ottoman bureaucrats began to be very active in state administration, and their authority rose against the power of the sultan. It is important to consider this process in question, together with the important political issues of the period, in terms of giving a clearer meaning to the construction of modern Ottoman diplomacy. In this context, the role of the translation

\* Dr., Lect., Istanbul Medipol University, Department of Political Science and International Relations, ORCID: 0000-0002-1520-9937, sacide.akkaya@medipol.edu.tr



chamber in the formation of modern Ottoman diplomacy will be discussed first, and the political activities and ideological structure of eight statesmen who were educated in this chamber and played important roles in the high level of the state will be discussed within the framework of the important political issues of the period, according to the records in Ottoman archives.

**Keywords:** Diplomacy, Translation Chamber, Ottoman Diplomacy, Political Modernization, Ottoman Bureaucrats

## Modern Osmanlı Diplomasisinde Tercüme Odası Çıkışlı Osmanlı Bürokratları ve Devlet Yönetimine Etkileri

### Öz

Bu çalışmada, modern Osmanlı diplomasinin inşa edildiği kurumlar olan tercüme odasında eğitim görmüş ve devletin önemli kademelerine yükselmiş olan Osmanlı bürokratlarının, üst düzey devlet mekanizmalarındaki etkisini, bir arada sunmak amaçlanmıştır. Monarşi ile yönetilen Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'nda, yüzyıllar boyunca Padişah otoritesi tek geçerli kuvvet olarak sayılırken; Batı merkezli modernleşme sürecinin imparatorluk bünyesinde yayılması sürecinde, bu durum değişikliğe uğramıştır. Diplomasî davranışlarının değiştiği bu süreçte, üst düzey Osmanlı bürokratları devlet yönetiminde oldukça etkin olmaya başlamış ve onların bu otoritesi, padişahın gücü karşısında yükselir hale gelmiştir. Söz konusu süreci, dönemin önemli siyasi meseleleri ile beraber ele almak, modern Osmanlı diplomasinin inşasını daha net bir şekilde anlamlandırmak bakımından kayda değerdir. Bu mihvalde, öncelikli olarak tercüme odasının modern Osmanlı diplomasinin oluşumundaki rolü ele alınacak ve burada eğitim görerek devletin en üst düzey kademelerinde rol alan sekiz devlet adamının siyasi faaliyetleri ve düşünce yapısı, dönemin önemli siyasi meseleleri çerçevesinde ve Osmanlı arşivlerindeki kayıtlar ışığında ele alınacaktır.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Diplomasî, Tercüme Odası, Osmanlı Diplomasîsi, Politik Modernleşme, Osmanlı Bürokratları

### Introduction

The 19th-century Ottoman political history stands out in terms of mirroring the collapse of the state and being the scene of the

reforms implemented in this context. In this respect, three factors presented by the American political scientist Samuel Huntington on political modernisation offer a perspective in making sense of this reformist framework, which also includes Ottoman diplomacy. According to Huntington, political modernisation includes the rationalisation of authority, differentiation of structure and expansion of political participation (Organski, 1968, p. 41). The important point here is that when the modernisation process of Ottoman diplomacy is examined, it is seen that the only influential structure in the state administration until the 19th century was the sultanate, and with the transformation in modern diplomacy, it can be said that, the leading bureaucrats of the state took over this position of influence. This process is noteworthy in terms of showing the effects of authorities other than the sultanate on the administration of the monarchy. As a matter of fact, in the sources of political history, this process is referred to as “the period of the Pashas” in Ottoman diplomacy.

The importance of the translation chamber is due to the fact that this was the place where the Ottoman statesmen received language education before going to Europe for education. After their education was completed in Europe, they then returned to the Empire and underwent a great transformation of modernisation within the state administration. These Ottoman pashas, who completely took the political fate of the Empire in their hands in the future, in the translation chamber acquired foreign language education and a modern mindset that would enable them to go to Europe. For this reason, it is very important to make sense of what exactly the translation chamber corresponds to in the context of historical continuity and political events in Ottoman diplomacy. After this interpretation, it is important to consider what influential duties the pashas who came out of the translation chamber held at which level of the state. As a matter of fact, examining these tenures of the Ottoman pashas under different names will make the development and transformation of diplomacy and state administration more meaningful in the context of Ottoman modernisation.

In this article, information will be given about the emergence of the Translation Chamber, and the important high-level bureaucrats who were trained here will be discussed name by name. In this context, the relationship of each bureaucrat with the Translation Chamber and the important actions they took at the state level in the following processes will be revealed. Thus, the journeys of leading high-level bureaucrats, starting with the Translation Chamber and affecting the most important

decision-making mechanisms of the state, will be revealed. When the literature research is done, the studies carried out to date cover topics such as the establishment process of the Translation Chamber, the officers working here, and the source of modern diplomatic activities of this chamber.

As examples of these, Aydın Bilgin's "Imperial Council Translators and Their Place in Ottoman Culture and Diplomacy" (Divan-ı Hümayun Tercümanları ve Osmanlı Kültür ve Diplomasisindeki Yerleri, 2007), Mahmut Akpınar's "The Establishment of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Institutionalization of Foreign Policy in the Ottoman Empire" (Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'nda hariciye Nezareti'nin Kuruluşu ve Dış Politikanın Kurumsallaşması, 2014), Kodaman and Akçay's (2010) articles "Ottoman Diplomatic History from Establishment to Collapse and Its Legacy to Turkey" (Kuruluştan Yıkılışa Kadar Osmanlı Diplomasisi Tarihi ve Türkiye'ye Bıraktığı Miras, 2010) and Cahit Bilim's "Translation Chamber" (Tercüme Odası, 1990); Sezai Balcı's theses titled "Translation in the Ottoman State and Bab-ı Ali Translation Chamber" (Osmanlı Devletinde Tercümanlık ve Bab-ı Ali Tercüme Odası, 2006) and Onur Kınılı's theses titled "Diplomacy as a Tool of Modernisation in the Ottoman Empire" (Osmanlı Devleti'nde Modernleşmenin Aracı Olarak Diplomasisi); Türkan Polatcı's, "Orientalist Officials in Ottoman Diplomacy: Diloglans and Translators with Ottoman Documents" (Osmanlı Diplomasisinde Oryantalist Memurlar: Osmanlı Belgeleriyle Diloğlanları ve Tercümanlar, 2013) can be shown. In addition, it is seen that the significant state activities of high-ranking statesmen trained in the translation room have been discussed in academic studies focusing on a single name. As examples of these, it is possible to cite İbnülemin Mehmet Kemal İnal's work titled The Last Grand Viziers (Son Sadrazamlar, 1982), biographical articles about the state officials mentioned in this article in the Turkish Religious Foundation Encyclopedia (Saydam, 2006), (Özcan, 2008), (Köprülü, 1996), (Beydilli, 1989), (Akyıldız, 2008a & 2008b); Mahmut Akpınar's article titled "Ottoman Foreign Ministers" (Osmanlı Hariciye Nazırları, 2015) and Huner Tuncer's book titled "Ottoman Diplomacy and Embassy-books" (Osmanlı Diplomasisi ve Sefaretnameleri, 1997).

Although all of the studies in question are quite in-depth and informative in their field, as a result of the research made for this article, an opinion was born considering the activities of these statesmen who grew up in the Translation Chamber collectively in a single study, and it has been concluded that within the framework of a specific examination, the method will

provide a different and broader perspective on the history of Ottoman diplomacy. In this context, based on the records in the Prime Ministry Ottoman Archives and important sources like those mentioned above, the Translation Chamber, which was the first step of the Ottoman foreign ministry, and the statesmen who were trained in this chamber reached the highest levels, and whose assets were confirmed by the records of the foreign affairs registry, will be examined in the context of state administration and their activities will be collectively reflected according to the effective steps they have taken within their task in the state.

### **The Method of Study**

When the impact of the translation chamber on the Ottoman bureaucrats who took part in the state administration and their contribution to the state administration are examined in the context of political science, it is first necessary to understand within which structural transformation framework these modernisation activities were carried out. Afterwards, it should be revealed how statesmen influenced which elements of government within this monarchical order. In this study, a general definition of the concept of diplomacy will be given. Subsequently, the establishment process of the Translation Chamber, which was the pioneer in the modernisation of classical Ottoman diplomacy, will be discussed.

The contributions and reformist ideas of the new generation of diplomats raised in this translation chamber to state administration will be presented within the framework of important issues such as the leading political events of the period, like the Crimean War, the Lebanon Issue, the implementation of the Tanzimat reforms, the Treaty of Paris, and the Syrian and Cretan rebellions. While creating this framework, the political activities of these statesmen will be examined in light of the records in the Prime Ministry Ottoman Archive records and the information compiled from the important sources examining these names. In this context, the names of the state officials of the period whose management approaches and contributions to the state are examined can be listed as Mustafa Reşid Pasha, Mehmed Emin Âlî Pasha, Keçecizde Fuad Pasha, Safvet Mehmed Esad Pasha, Sadullah Pasha, Ahmet Vefik Pasha, Sadık Rıfat Pasha and Mehmet Namık Pasha.



## What is Diplomacy?

Etymologically, the term diplomacy comes from the Greek word diploma, meaning “doubled” and “object”. The term used to mean something like “folded document, a privilege (usually a travel permit).” Especially in ancient Rome, official documents were called “diplomas” because they were folded documents containing some privileges and regulating relations with foreign societies. In later times, people began to need to regulate/protect themselves, and the concept of diplomacy emerged. By the 17th century, the concept of diplomacy had become a term expressing the examination and protection of official documents of the state. In the 18th century, the term diplomat in French was used for people who had the authority to speak/intermediate on behalf of a state (Freeman & Sally, 2024). In 1796, British writer and statesman Edmond Burke made a new interpretation of the term diplomacy and defined this concept as “the art of conducting international relations”. In other words, he dealt with interstate relations and negotiations in the sense of execution while examining the term. After this process, the concept of diplomacy, as defined by Burke, was intertwined with international relations and was accepted all over the World (Yalçınkaya, 2013, p. 3).

If the term diplomacy is examined as a concept, political scientists will give various explanations on this subject. In its basic context, diplomacy involves political activities and is an important tool in a country’s acquisition of power when supported by good resources. The ultimate goal of this activity is to determine the objectives of the foreign policies of the states and to ensure that they are carried out without resorting to military force, propaganda or law (Berridge, 2010, p.1). When this word is considered with its general characteristics, the term diplomacy can be defined as the name given to the process carried out to enable countries that are allied with each other to cooperate on state affairs and to solve problems without using negative force in situations that require conflict. In this context, within the scope of diplomacy activities, states create means of communication, interact, exchange views on necessary issues, express their demands and produce solutions for themselves. In this respect, diplomacy is the element that ensures the peaceful progress of activities carried out within the scope of international relations (Griffiths, 2008, p. 80).

According to Harold Nicolson, this term has two meanings. The first of these refers to the mutual communication process carried out thanks to the official representatives designated by the states; The second reflects the methods of political influence exercised within the scope of a

country's foreign policy (Timuçin, Yaşar, 2010, p. 75). Two main notable features in this definition significantly illustrate the way the term is applied today. These are the conduct of inter-state relations and the ability of a country to influence other countries in its foreign policy activities. Another accepted definition in the literature for the concept of diplomacy is the art of conducting communication and relations between states through official representatives (Yalçinkaya, 2013, p. 4). As a matter of fact, in order to implement the concept of diplomacy, considering that it requires very strong communication skills, in-depth equipment, and serious management ability within the application field, it is clear that the field of application of this term requires a unique and sophisticated art of performance.

### **The Formation of Modern Diplomacy in the Ottoman Empire**

Diplomatic activities are considered as a process that includes the conduct of interstate relations throughout the world, and the application of this concept varies from country to country in various respects. In this context, when considering how diplomatic activities began and developed in the Ottoman Empire, it is seen that the process included differences in the period when the state was a frontier principality and the period when it became an empire. While it was still a principality, it progressed under the influence of great states such as the Great Seljuks, Ilkhanids and Mamluks, as well as the Anatolian Seljuk State established in Anatolia and other principalities established in its place, within the scope of its diplomatic activities. In addition, it is seen that the Byzantines, Venice and the Genoese, with whom they had diplomatic and commercial relations, were also active in the foreign policy structure. In particular, European States used Venetian ambassadors as intermediaries in conducting relations with the Ottomans, and in this way, the Ottoman Empire developed relations with Europe through Venice (Kınlı, p. 72). After transitioning from principality administration to state administration, the Imperial administration began to be closely interested in the foreign policies of the leading European countries, and the concept of diplomacy took a different form. It can be said that the structuring process of the Ottoman Empire within the scope of foreign policy and diplomacy activities was constantly renewing itself in parallel with the expansion of its territory (Yalçinkaya, 2013, p. 29).

When the foundation and rise periods of the Ottoman Empire are examined, it is seen that diplomatic activities were

carried out in accordance with the rules of Islamic law and developed around the concept of jihad. Diplomatic activities were subject to the rules in the laws, and a diplomacy flow unique to the Ottoman Empire was created (Kınlı s. 76). The Ottoman Empire, which was militarily strong during these periods, since it could achieve this through war power when it had a state demand, it did not subject itself to the rules of international law that began to be implemented in Western countries with the end of the Middle Ages. In this context, the internal and external diplomatic activities of the Empire were carried out within the framework of actions called ad hoc diplomacy, such as participating in ceremonies, arranging agreements, and offering to surrender without entering into a war period.

After the rise period, with the Ottoman Empire losing power, it is seen that the approach to the concept of diplomacy changed very seriously. As a matter of fact, within the empire, with the change of the land system and the process of centralisation, the period of rise evolved into a period of stagnation. After the Treaty of Karlofça (Karlowitz), in which the Ottoman Empire suffered the first and largest territorial losses in its history, the need for change in the internal and external structure of the state began to be accepted by the high officials (Yalçınkaya, 2013, p. 105). As a matter of fact, it is seen that the Ottoman Empire entered into close relations with Western Europe for the first time in order to be protected from threats from Europe (Lewis, 2000, p. 290). With the increase in expected European-centered threats, the concept of diplomacy for the Imperial administration gained new importance. As a matter of fact, political gains and balance of power that could not be achieved through war were tried to be achieved according to the rules of modern diplomacy. For the Ottoman Empire, which acted according to its own diplomatic rules for centuries, the transition from classical diplomacy to modern diplomacy was not easy, and it also involved a painful transformation. It can be seen that the first serious steps were taken on the subject, especially during the reign of Selim III. The sultan of the period envisaged general regulation and innovation in all institutions of the state, especially in the face of heavy defeats in the last wars and problems in the structure of the state. During this renewal process, the concept of diplomacy was also reconsidered, and the first significant foundations of the modern diplomatic culture within the Empire were laid.

Until the reign of Selim III, relations with European states were carried out through the diplomatic representatives of these countries in Istanbul and the permanent residence

embassies in the European centres of the Ottomans. Although European states had permanent diplomatic representatives in Istanbul, a similar structure was not established by the Ottoman state until the reign of Selim III. However, in the Ottoman Empire, which clearly saw its weaknesses against the European states and understood that it was necessary to adapt to modern diplomacy, it was decided to have diplomatic representatives in important centres of Europe with the Nizam-ı Cedid (The New Order) reforms put into practice in 1792. Afterwards, there was a restructuring in Ottoman foreign affairs. It began with the decision to establish permanent embassies in important centres of Europe during the reign of Selim III in order to have direct and reliable diplomatic information in the means of diplomatic relations. The first permanent Ottoman embassy was opened in England in 1793 (Timuçin, p. 80-3), and was followed by permanent embassies opened in European countries such as France, Vienna (BAO., İ..HUS., 2/49), Iran (B.A.O., Y..PRK.AZJ., 8/58), since 1797 (Yıldırım, 2017, p. 13). Thus, the Ottoman Empire had the opportunity to monitor the events taking place in Europe more closely through its own officials, and by eliminating the misdirections of other countries, it became more dominant in Ottoman foreign relations (Yalçınkaya, 2013, p. 131).

### **A Milestone in Ottoman Diplomacy: The Greek Revolt of 1821 in Peloponnese (Mora İsyanı)**

Although various embassies were opened in European countries by the Ottoman Empire in the early 1800s, their numbers were limited due to their expenses, and in later times, translators were assigned instead of ambassadors. Greeks were placed in this position due to their knowledge of the language, and these people, who gained influence over time, became representatives managing all diplomatic affairs of the state. Kostaki Efendi (BOA., İ..MTZ.(01), 1/14), who served as an ambassador, and Kevorkyan Leon Efendi (BOA., HR.SAİD, 3/24), caliph of the Tahrirat-I external office, can be given as examples of these names. In the following processes, the fact that these officials were appointed as the rulers of Wallachian Voivodeship in the capacity of princes shows how this translation institution took on a different dimension compared to the Istanbul embassies (Aydın, 2007, p. 59). Towards the end of the 18th century, the power of the Ottoman Empire started to decline, and the influence of the European states began to increase; these Greek translators began to take sides with the said states and to look after their interests. As a result of the increase in diplomatic activities carried out in the context of international relations in

the 19th century, the role of these translators in Ottoman foreign relations increased significantly. However, the Greek revolt, fueled by the idea of nationalism, triggered thoughts of independence in these translators, and it was seen that the translators cooperated with other countries against the Ottoman Empire (Bilim, 1990, p. 33-4). Especially during this period, after England carried out various initiatives “behind the scenes”, it is seen that an imperial line was established by the sultan of the period (BOA., HAT, 856/38253).

In 1821, during the Greek revolt of 1821 in the Peloponnese, this situation of translators became a very serious problem that the Greek translators, who were assigned to the diplomatic affairs of the Ottoman Empire, gave false news to the Ottoman Empire (Yıldırım, 2017, p. 15). As a result of this situation, since the state did not trust the Greek translators, it was decided not to use the Greeks in the state service, and this group, which had a very important task in diplomatic relations, was dismissed completely. So, an important gap emerged in the diplomatic field (Balçı, 2006, p. 78-82). However, this negative situation took a different path with the search for an institution that would enable the state to train more reliable translators in the diplomatic field. As a result, Yahya Efendi, one of the professors of the Engineers School, was appointed as the head of the Translation Department (BOA., C..DH., 68/3370). The official position of Yahya Naci Efendi, the first Muslim appointed to the Translation Chamber, is stated in the Ottoman archive records as the person who was “an officer to pay attention to the French and Greek papers translated in the Sublime Porte” (BOA., C.HR, 105-5236) is important in terms of showing the control mechanism desired to be established by the state over the process. With the new arrangement, a structure was created that would enable Muslim Ottomans to learn languages. In this new institution called the Translation Chamber, language teaching and translation services were provided in the first place. To some extent, this chamber formed the core of the Ottoman Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Many Ottoman statesmen who would become grand viziers and foreign ministers in the future were educated in the Translation Chamber (Aydın, 2007, p. 60).

## The Translation Chamber

In the Ottoman Empire, during the reign of Selim III, the innovation activities planned to be implemented at all levels of the state brought about a serious transformation and preparations for a new structuring in foreign affairs. In this context, the Minister of Foreign Affairs was given the rank of



Pasha (BOA., HAT., nr. 23465), and thus, the influence of the foreign relations unit in the state administration was tried to be increased (Akpınar, 2014 p. 66). After a while, a mansion was allocated for these works (BOA., HAT., nr. 51002 & 52468), and personnel were allocated to be trained in the Western style to work in the field of foreign relations (Davison, 2000, p. 850). Another of the most important steps in the process of building modern diplomacy within the empire was the establishment of the Translation Chamber. With the imperial edict published by Mahmut II (Bilim, 1990, p. 35), the Translation Chamber was established in 1821 in order to enable Turks and Muslims to learn a foreign language and operate in the field of diplomacy, and to ensure the relationship of the Ottoman Empire with other states through training reliable people. In a short amount of time, this chamber paved the way for the training of reformist bureaucrats, both in domestic and foreign politics. The fact that the civil servants who provide training here are experienced in Western languages plays a major role in this success. British scholar Sir James William Redhouse is one of the officers of the Translation Chamber (BOA., A.}AMD., 4/63). Eventually, the Translation Chamber served as a school where the bureaucrats who prepared the reform movements after the Tanzimat Edict were educated. By the end of the century, the translation chamber was seen as the best place to start one's career.

This chamber was gradually renovated during the Mahmud II period. Sultan Mahmud II sent ambassadors to Paris, London, and Vienna. These were followed by embassies such as Berlin in 1837, Tehran in 1849, Saint Petersburg in 1857, Washington in 1967, and Stockholm in 1898 (İskit, 2007, p.160); because of these radical reforms made at the state level since the Tanzimat brought the need for a well-trained civil bureaucracy to the agenda. The need for Westernization, administrative centralisation, and provincial penetration at the state level was not only the increasing demand for foreign language knowledge and intensifying official correspondence but also directly affected the development of journalism and legal knowledge. In this respect, the establishment and development of the Translation Chamber were directly related to training bureaucrats for foreign affairs.

As a matter of fact, it is seen that institutions similar to the Translation Chamber, which has an important place in the field of foreign affairs, were opened in Europe long before the Ottoman Empire. Actually, European states started to train civil servants who knew foreign languages in the 16th century. In the Ottoman Empire, this occurred in the 19th century (Polatçı, 2013, p.78). These institutions in Europe were built for the

purpose of learning languages and aimed to serve the political and hegemonic purposes of the state with the manpower they trained (Akkaya, 2020, p. 22). These schools, which were opened within the scope of Orientalism, which was the activities of European states to get to know non-Western societies, were opened as small units where translations and studies were primarily carried out in 1312, which was the beginning of the Renaissance (Coşkun, 2007, p. 166). After the Council of Vienna in the 14th century, it was decided that these studies would continue academically in Paris and Oxford. In 1539, the first Arabic department was established at the College de France in Paris, and the founder of the department, Guillaume Postel, came to Istanbul as an officer in the team of Jean de la Forest, the first permanent ambassador appointed by France to the Ottoman Empire in 1535. Postel, one of the founders of French orientalism, learned Greek, Turkish, Arabic, Coptic and Armenian in Ottoman lands (Arıkan, 2007, p. 333). In addition to these, it should be noted that in the Embassy book of Ebubekir Ratıb Efendi, who was sent to Vienna as an ambassador in 1791, the “Asian Academy”, which constitutes the basis of the Vienna School of Oriental Languages, is mentioned. (Uçman, 1999, p. 58).

Orientalism activities and language education, which European states advanced to improve their ability to govern non-Western societies, became a necessity for the Ottoman Empire in the 19th century when these activities gained momentum and were also used in the military field. As a matter of fact, the establishment of the Translation Chamber, which was opened with the aim of training bureaucrats fluent in Western languages due to the trust problem experienced after the Greek rebellion, also reveals the political and military connection of the issue. For the Ottoman Empire, which faced serious defeats in the military field, unlike in the past, it became necessary to apply modern diplomacy and develop direct relations with European States. With this situation, under the umbrella of the Translation Chamber, the training of the team that will serve at the highest levels of the Empire and make important decisions in foreign affairs in the coming years would begin.

The institution, the Translation Chamber, reached its highest power during the Tanzimat period. As a result of the increase in diplomatic relations, foreign languages have gained importance, and the personnel trained by this institution have become even more valuable. Most of the high-ranking bureaucrats of the Tanzimat period were trained in this chamber and reached high state positions (Bilim, 1990, p. 40).

After a while, other offices started to open next to this chamber, and this chamber played a serious role in the formation of modern Ottoman diplomacy. During the Tanzimat era, this chamber did not only provide education, but it also became a very advanced environment in which a new worldview was developed (Tanpınar, 2003, p. 142-3). Over time, the number of Muslim officials from the Translation Chamber who started to work in the Ottoman bureaucracy gradually increased (Yıldırım, 2017, p. 16-7).

### **The Reform Approaches of Pashas Educated at Translation Chamber and their Effects on the State Administration**

The Translation Chamber, established in the 1820s, began to bear fruit after a while. In the 1840s, there was a period of calm in the internal and external politics of the Ottoman Empire, in which there were no exhausting wars except for a few rebellions. During this period of tranquillity, Ottoman bureaucrats, who were trained in the Translation Chamber and recruited to the state, were presented with a stable environment in which they could continue their reform movements. In this holistic reform process, where the sole aim was to revise the state system in many aspects and save it from its negative situation, a Western-centered modernisation activity was followed. Those who carried out the reforms in question, the Ottoman pashas who were educated in the Translation Chamber since the 1820s, had the opportunity to play a very active role in state administration and foreign policy, and this period, which continued until the reign of Abdulhamid II, witnessed the Ottoman statesmen, most of whom were trained in the Translation Room, become extremely effective, especially in state administration (Yıldırım, 2017, s. 33).

It is seen that these Pashas, who were trained in the Translation Chamber and later took part in important levels of the state, playing a role in vital decisions, took many positions in institutions related to foreign affairs within the state organisation. In this context, in this study, where the effects of Ottoman pashas on state administration are discussed, it is important to consider the structure in which these bureaucrats operated and to clarify the units in which they worked before examining the effects in question one by one. In the institutions where matters related to foreign affairs/foreign ministry are carried out within the empire, it is seen that the most important structures are the units that perform the duty of translation. It is possible to list the most important of these units as the

“Divan-ı Humayun (Imperial Council) Translator” unit in the Reisülküttaplık (Reisül’l-küttab was the chief of the clerks in Imperial Council) and the “Translation Chamber” units located in the First and Second Departments within the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

In the Ottoman Empire, “Reisülküttaplık” was an institution that included the management of a group of clerks. These clerks, who carried out the bureaucratic activities, excluding finance, of the Imperial Council, the central administrative body of the Ottoman state organisation, were called Divan-ı Humayun clerks. This institution of reisülküttab within the Ottoman state is not only an institution but also represents the continuation of the bureaucratic tradition within the Ottoman state (Ahışalı, 1999, p. 1). Another position related to the institution of reisülküttâb is the Translation Agency of the Imperial Council (Dîvân-ı Hümâyûn Tercümanlığı). This office, which is within the scope of the Dîvân-ı Hümâyûn structure, became one of the offices closest to the institution of reisülküttâb, with the adoption of new methods in the field of diplomacy within the Empire in the 18th century. Persons who served as Imperial Council translators took part in the meetings of the chiefs with foreign state ambassadors and played an important role in establishing contact with the residence ambassadors in Istanbul. As a matter of fact, developments regarding European countries were also followed in this way (Ahışalı, p. 8).

Another unit that had an important place within the scope of foreign relations was the “Translation Chamber” located in the First and Second Departments within the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The Translation Chamber, which was the place where the statesmen examined in this study received their first training in the field of foreign relations and whose emergence in the historical and political process was examined in the previous part of this article, emerged within the scope of Selim III’s vision of modernising foreign relations and was used to prevent Greek translators from acting against the state during the Greek rebellion (Mora İsyanı). As a result, it was established in the 1820s with the aim of training people who would take part in foreign relations and who were fluent in European languages. The Translation Chamber, where the foundations of the modern structure of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs were laid within the Ottoman Empire, developed over time in terms of the number of students, work capacity, and quality of activities carried out. Afterwards, it was divided into two branches in order to be more organised. While diplomatic translation works were carried out in the Translation Room,

foreign language teaching was given to young people coming from the offices in the Language Room (Bilim, 1990, p. 37).

Starting from Mustafa Reşit Pasha, almost all of the bureaucrats who reached higher positions in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs learned European languages here and gained job opportunities to be included in the units of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. As a matter of fact, many people who received training in the Translation Chamber were appointed to high-level bureaucratic positions during the Tanzimat period, and this led to the popular saying, “Passing through the Translation Chamber makes the son of a poor king a grand vizier” entered the literature at that time (Bilim, 1990, p. 40). This institution, which is the place where bureaucrats who play a role in the upper levels of the state are trained, was a place where all the statesmen examined in this study had been educated and took official duties. Especially in the official state archives containing the Translation Chamber records, the duties and appointment processes of these people within the foreign ministry can be clearly monitored, and it is seen that most of them worked in foreign embassies of the state (BOA, Y..PRK.HR., 4/89).

In the context of these records, it can be seen that the statesmen in question started their professional lives in the translation room and later worked in various departments operating in the field of foreign affairs. Subsequently, by progressing through these tasks, They held various high-level positions such as ambassadorship, ministership and grand viziership. In this study, the contributions of eight statesmen who took high-level roles at the state level and whose professional adventure started with the Translation Chamber in the context of their services to the state in the field of foreign affairs will be discussed under separate headings for each of them. Official document information obtained from the records of the Prime Ministry Ottoman Archives regarding the positions of these people at the state level will also be included, and the roles they played in the important political decisions of the state will be tried to be revealed in a concrete historical continuity.

### ***Mustafa Reşid Pasha***

Mustafa Reşit Pasha, the leading name of the modernisation of the Tanzimat period, was born in Istanbul in 1800. Pasha, who grew up in the translation chamber, served as a clerk in the army during the Ottoman-Russian War of 1827-1829. After this mission, he was praised by Mahmut II, and from then on, his star began to shine by being appointed to the Paris embassy in June 1836 (BOA., HR.SFR3..., 1/1), he was now directly involved in diplomacy (Yıldız, p. 130). He served as the London



Ambassador in 1836 and was given the title of Minister of Foreign Affairs (BOA., HR.TO., 406/30) along with the title of Pasha, in 1837. Throughout his life, he served as the Grand Vizier six times (BOA., A}TŞF., 5/5), the Minister of Foreign Affairs three times, the Paris Ambassador five times (BOA., A{DVNSNMH.d..., 11/443) and the London Ambassador twice (Ortaylı, 2014, p. 264).

During his youth, he made many trips for various duties and thus had the opportunity to get to know his country closely and see the needs of the society on the field. He worked actively in the state after 1939 and managed the intellectual side of the innovation process. The years that Reşit Pasha spent in the service of the state also include the beginning of the modernisation of diplomacy and the institutionalisation of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in the Ottoman Empire. As a matter of fact, while the Ministry of Foreign Affairs was being established, in the context of institutionalisation, the Undersecretariat of Foreign Affairs unit was created, and the Undersecretary of Foreign Affairs (Hariciye müsteşarlığı) was appointed to this unit in 1836 to assist the minister was Reşit Efendi (BOA., HAT., 1174/46429). It is seen that the institution of the Undersecretariat of Foreign Affairs, which was a very important step in the construction of modern Ottoman diplomacy, was made permanent within the body of foreign affairs in 1854, during the Crimean War (BOA., C.HR., 146/7257). It is quite noteworthy that during these first critical processes, when the Empire developed a Western-style understanding of diplomacy, Reşit Pasha was one of the first names to contribute his ideas and operate in the established units.

Pasha, who repeatedly carried out the duties of minister (BOA., HR.MKT., 9/44), ambassador and grand vizier (BOA., A}DVN.MHM., 4/13), was personally present in the politically problematic areas of the Ottoman Empire and played a role in the solution processes. One of these examples is seen during the Egypt and Mehmed Ali Pasha problem. In addition, he saw the innovations made by Mehmed Ali Pasha closely in Egypt, where he went for negotiations many times, and got to know Europe closely in Paris and London, where he served as ambassador. One of the diplomatic missions in which Pasha played an important role coincided with the Mehmet Ali Pasha rebellion. In Egypt, which became a problematic region after the occupation of France, the governor of the Ottoman Empire, Mehmed Ali Pasha, attempted to establish an independent state, and after the Greeks gained independence, the Empire entered into a serious political crisis with this rebellion. The

Egyptian issue gained an international dimension due to the aim of intervening in the internal affairs of the empire within the scope of imperialist policies and the attention of European states to this region, especially in terms of the Eastern issue. As a matter of fact, following the rebellion, important diplomats of the period, Prince Metternich and Henry John Temple (“Lord Palmerston”, who was the contemporary of Reşid Paşa (BOA., HR.SFR3..., 1/7), put forward the idea of reforming the Ottoman Empire and tried to create a legitimate basis for intervention in the internal affairs of the state.

Reşid Pasha, on the other hand, pursued a balanced policy by expressing the view that internal and external problems could not be solved without the support of Europe. It is understood that Reşit Pasha, who was described by Ahmet Cevdet Pasha as the person who brought the concept of diplomacy to the Ottoman Empire, tried to get support from European states within the scope of his diplomatic activities. In this context, the empire built a policy of balance against these states that had interests in its territory and created a public opinion that the territorial integrity of the Ottoman Empire also affected the peace of Europe. This event had an important place in the construction of the diplomatic personality of the Pasha, who made a significant effort to solve this serious problem. Following these events, the Tanzimat Edict was declared in 1839 (Koyuncu, 2021, p. 28-31).

As a matter of fact, the situation in question is noteworthy in that it shows the influence of Reşid Pasha, especially on the sultan of the period. Mustafa Reşit Pasha convinced Sultan Abdülmecit to accept the idea that the internal and external problems of the state could be resolved as a result of the declaration of the Tanzimat Edict, and he was the person who personally read the edict and declared it. Pasha, who also prepared the content of the edict, aimed to give an official format to the innovation activities and thus to make a declaration against foreign powers trying to interfere in the internal affairs of the state by citing the minorities living in the Empire. The edict declared in 1839 carried the idea of Westernising the state and keeping the society together under the idea of the “Ottoman Nation”. With the proclamation of this edict, which included innovations in many areas, the “Tanzimat Era” began, and civil bureaucracy became more prominent. This was the difference of this period compared to previous periods, and bureaucrats became active in the administration alongside the grand vizier (Kösece and Karakoç, 2021, p. 250).

In this respect, the declaration of Tanzimat represents an exemplary process with the bureaucratic dominance of Reşit

Pasha in terms of showing the influence of the Translation Chamber bureaucrats in the state administration, which is the main subject of this study. The process in question most clearly reveals the importance of the pashas in the Ottoman bureaucracy. As a matter of fact, Ottoman modernisation gained a state-implemented format, which started with the Tanzimat Edict. It can be seen that the pro-modernisation bureaucrats who had a say in the administration in this period turned the administrative authority of the state into a real centre of power. In an interview with the British Foreign Minister, it is quite interesting that Reşit Pasha stated that he himself made all the reforms and that Sultan Mahmut II was responsible for the implementation of these reforms. This situation is noteworthy as it shows the superior influence of the civil bureaucracy on the imperial administration and the will of the bureaucracy on modernisation movements (Kösece and Karakoç, 2021, p. 251).

These Tanzimat years, during which the Pasha served the state, were also a period when efforts were made to re-establish state institutions. Added to that, diplomatic relations with Europe evolved into a completely different path. The Empire, which was in a state of transformation, also needed politicians who were open to new elements and could work in this direction. It was the Translation Chamber that educated these bureaucrats. In this context, Reşit Pasha, who also grew up in this chamber, was a bureaucrat who influenced the other seven names included in this article. During and after his time, prominent figures in politics always followed his school. In addition, not only politicians who grew up in this period but also intellectuals born in the 1820's such as Şinasi Efendi, Namık Kemal and Ziya Pasha, followed this school. In this respect, Pasha's influence on the bureaucrats who would be influential after him, in addition to his active role in the state administration, makes it possible to say that he was the person who changed the official structure of the period (Tanpınar, 2003, p. 139).

### ***Mehmed Emin Âlî Pasha***

Âlî Pasha started writing for the Divan-ı Hümayun (The Imperial Council) in 1830 and joined the Translation Chamber in 1833. Pasha, who was appointed Undersecretary of Foreign Affairs in 1840, became ambassador to London in 1841 (BOA., HR.SFR.3..., 3/66). He held the highest level government positions throughout his life and served as grand vizier (BOA., HR.SFR.3..., 13/53) 5 times between 1852-1871, as minister of foreign affairs 8 times between 1846-1871, as ambassador to London in different periods (BOA., HR.SFR.3..., 13/52), as

president of the Tanzimat council, as various governors during the reign of two different sultans (Beydilli, 1989, p. 425). The period when the effectiveness of the Pashas educated in the translation chamber in the state administration peaked coincided with the period of Âli and Fuat Pashas. Multifaceted reform activities carried out by the state were carried out under the administration of these statesmen, and the sultan's will remained at a minimum level until the 1870s when Abdulhami II took office (Kösece and Karakoç, 2021, p. 251). He was a person who was both influential within the Empire and extremely influential on the sultan of the period, Abdülaziz. Pasha, a well-known statesman in Europe, made great efforts to protect the dignity of the Sublime Porte and had an influence as an important decision mechanism in the most important events of the period, especially regarding foreign relations. In his active political life, the conflicts he had with the Young Ottomans, the leading opposition movement of the period, sometimes put his political activity in the background and caused him to be remembered with these conflicts (Beydilli, 1989, p. 426).

The Reform Edict (Islahat Fermanı) was prepared by Âli Pasha, which granted equal citizenship and many privileges to the non-Muslim people in the empire. He was sent to Vienna to determine the protocol of the peace to be made at the end of the Crimean War. In this appointment, which was made while Âli Pasha was the Minister of Foreign Affairs, it is stated that Pasha was appointed as a "delegate" in order to "bring the war between the Ottoman Empire and its allies with Russia to a good conclusion" (BOA., A{DVNSNMH.d..., 12/124,). Another duty that Pasha carried out on behalf of the Empire was the Paris Peace Treaty, for which he was appointed by the state as an "extraordinary ambassador". He represented the Ottoman Empire as an outstanding representative at the conference held in Paris. Pasha, who signed the Paris Peace Treaty of March 30, 1856 (BOA., HR.SFR.3..., 26/33), enabled the Ottoman Empire to join the European states community at the conference. He thought that with the Reform Edict and the Paris Agreement, he could ensure the territorial integrity of the Ottoman Empire and prevent European states from intervening in the internal affairs of the Ottoman Empire under the pretext of protecting the non-Muslim people (Uluçam, 1999, p. 221).

He served as a senior diplomat in the Cretan rebellion, carried out meticulous diplomacy during this problematic situation and tried to implement a reform program based on the idea of Muslim-Christian balance in this region. On the one hand, he used the diplomatic support provided by England, and on the other hand, he tried to prevent the intervention of

European States by accelerating efforts to reorganise Crete. As a matter of fact, the idea of the reformist program he implemented in this region is based on the understanding of Ottomanism, the leading ideology of the Tanzimat period. Pasha, who aimed to prevent the negative intervention of Europe by establishing a balance between the two communities (Pinar, 2008, p. 19), was not able to do this and followed a compromising policy to solve the problem. Because of this, he was subjected to severe reactions through the press after the negative decisions he had made.

After taking over the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, he strictly governed the Ottoman state's will and foreign policy. He supported the French policy in his works, unlike Reşit Pasha, who followed England. As a matter of fact, he was aware that the results of the German War (1870) would change the balance of power in Europe and have significant consequences for the Ottoman Empire (Beydilli, 1989, p. 426). Another action of Âli Pasha on state policies was the facilities he provided to the non-Muslim people. By facilitating their acceptance into civil service, he led to a rapid increase in the number of non-Muslim civil servants in many departments of the state, especially within the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. This was another activity for which Pasha was subjected to heavy criticism (Uluçam, 1999, p. 221).

Âli Pasha, who carried out highly speculative actions during his important high-level duties, served in a period when the State was exposed to serious developments in foreign policy, domestic issues escalated, and financial difficulties increased. His radical decisions can be evaluated within the framework of his knowledge of the weak and helpless situation the state is in and his belief that a conciliatory way should be adopted in foreign policy at this point. In domestic politics, although he wanted to follow a policy in accordance with the Tanzimat and reform ideas in general, his negative attitude and carelessness in establishing a solid staff that could only carry out such a job made this policy impossible (Beydilli, 1989, p. 426).

### ***Keçecizâde Fuad Pasha***

Keçecizade Mehmed Fuad Pasha was one of the three great bureaucrats of the Tanzimat period of the Ottoman Empire. Pasha, who completed his education in the field of medicine, did not continue his professional life in this direction and turned to the field of diplomacy and became one of the leading Ottoman administrators with his diplomatic talent (Öztuna, 1988, p. V). He joined the Translation Chamber in 1837, and two years later, he rose to the rank of chief translator and became the chief embassy secretary at the London embassy (BOA., HR.SFR.3...,



11/25). He gained important experience here (BOA., HR.SFR.3..., 13/26), and after returning to his country, he was assigned to go to Madrid in 1844 to deliver Abdulmecid's reply letter to Queen Elizabeth of Spain and to strengthen the friendship between the two states. Pasha, who later carried out many duties in the field of diplomacy, served as grand vizier for 4 years in two separate periods between 1861 and 1866 (BOA., TS.MA.e, 640/47) and served as minister of foreign affairs for nearly 10 years.

His years of office coincided with a period in which uprisings arising from the idea of nationalism increased in the Empire, and he played an important role in managing these problematic issues with effective diplomacy methods. Pasha, who was sent to Bucharest to resolve the Hungarian rebellion and independence movements that started in 1848, was later sent by the Ottoman Empire to the Russian Tsar as an extraordinary envoy following the Poles' uprising against Russia in connection with the solution of this issue. Pasha, who took the Sultan's letter to the region and resolved the issue peacefully, was appointed Undersecretary of the Grand Vizier in 1849 for this success. It is seen that he played an important role in the solution of the Egyptian issue, another important diplomatic problem of the period. He was sent to Egypt by Grand Vizier Resid Pasha and followed the processes of both the implementation of the Tanzimat reforms and the settlement of the problem with the regional governor. Pasha, who stayed here for three and a half months, was able to increase Egypt's annual tax, and as a result of this service, he was appointed to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs immediately after returning from duty.

Another important issue he addressed during his ministry was Lebanon. He is sent to Lebanon in order to prevent a possible European intervention as a result of the rebellion that started as a result of the British and French provoking the local people living in the district. Seeing that the events spread to Damascus, Pasha first dealt with this issue, and after long negotiations, the French evacuated this region in accordance with the agreement signed in 1861. Thus, Syria remained under Ottoman rule for half a century. Fuat Pasha, who pursued a pro-British policy, always prioritised the interests of the Empire, even though he trusted this state very much. He closely followed the nationalist movements in Europe, and although he supported the idea of nationalism that would benefit the state, he thought that these currents of thought would harm the Empire, which hosted many nationalities. In this context, he argued that the harmful

consequences of these intellectual movements could be prevented by treating non-Muslim people equally.

In addition to his activities in the diplomatic field, he also contributed to the restructuring of the state in the modernisation process with his various works. In Bursa, where he went for treatment in 1850, he wrote *Kavâid-i Osmâniyye* (Ottoman Laws) and also the regulations of the Ferry Company (*Şirket-i Hayriyye*) together with Ahmet Cevdet Pasha. Moreover, in his will, which was allegedly written to Sultan Abdülaziz just before his death, he explained what path should be followed to ensure the continuation of the Ottoman Empire against the policies of European states. In this context, he saw the only way to save the state as raising all affairs to the level of civilised states. Pasha, who made significant contributions to the modernisation process of the state, pioneered the establishment of the provincial organisation managed by governors with broad authority and carried out public works and educational activities such as the construction of masonry buildings, the expansion of Divanyolu in Istanbul, the establishment of Galatasaray Imperial High School and Darülfünun (The University) (Köprülü, 1996, s. 202-5).

### ***Saffet Mehmed Esad Pasha***

Born in 1814 in Fatih, Istanbul, Saffet Pasha's real name was Mehmed Esat (BOA., DH.SAİDD..., 2/416). He was educated at Beyazıt Mosque and learned French at the Translation Chamber. He entered the Dîvân-ı Hümayun (The Imperial Council) Office in 1831 and then was transferred to the Translation Chamber in 1833. After it was decided that *Takvîm-i Vekayi* (the first Ottoman Turkish official newspaper) would be published in French, a directorate was established for this purpose, and he was appointed to this position in 1839. Saffet Pasha, one of the most important names of the Tanzimat period, served as minister 14 times in various ministries such as trade, education and foreign affairs, and in 1878 he was appointed grand vizier for 6 months. Pasha, who held important positions such as a member of the State Council and a member of the Reform Commission, worked with four sultans during the most troubled periods of the Ottoman Empire and stood out as a reliable statesman, especially due to his dominance in foreign policy. As a matter of fact, the following words Abdülhamit II said to Rüşti Pasha confirm this position of Saffet Pasha: "I do not see anyone other than Saffet Pasha who is close to my ideas. Other government members fail to see the state's deteriorating situation" (İnal, 1982, p. 809-40).

Pasha, who also had various state medals, advocated that the administrative system of the period be regulated as soon as possible by taking Europe as an example and positioning all his activities accordingly. Although he provided services to the state in different fields, it is known that he contributed to the draft of 130 articles during the preparation of the Kanun-i Esasi (The Constitution of the Ottoman Empire). This draft has influenced the accepted main text. Saffet Pasha, who took important actions while he was the minister of education, founded the Galatasaray Imperial High School. In addition, as the Ministry of Education, he reorganised its regulations and built a new system. It is seen that during his service period, education began to be perceived as a state service. In this context, regulations such as compulsory education, new examination and education methods, and grading of schools have been made.

During his time as Minister of Foreign Affairs, he was interested in suppressing the uprisings in Bosnia-Herzegovina, but his attitude towards England during the process was not received positively. Another diplomatic service was his participation as the first delegate in the preliminary peace talks held in Edirne after the Ottoman-Russian war. Here, he was present at the Ayastefanos (San Stefano) negotiations, representing the state, and had to sign the agreement. In addition, Saffet Pasha was assigned to the Tersane (Shipyard) Conference, which was held due to the uprisings in the Balkans and where representatives of the great states came together in Istanbul. As a matter of fact, a successful diplomatic process could not be carried out here, and a period that would progress with Russia's declaration of war began. Another diplomatic duty that Pasha performed while serving as Undersecretary of foreign affairs was that he was appointed as a delegate to conduct negotiations in the agreement with Greece (BOA., A{DVNSNMH.d..., 12/132).

He was appointed as the grand vizier in 1878 after the raid on the Çırağan Palace in order to enthrone Sultan Murad again. During his duty, the issue of leaving the island of Cyprus to England was on his agenda, and he had to consent to the loss of the region. Again, he was the person who approved the Berlin negotiations and treaty (July 20, 1878) as the grand vizier. In this period, when foreign politics was in a major crisis, as a result of some disagreements with Sultan Abdulhamit II, he was dismissed and removed from Istanbul and appointed as ambassador to Paris. After this process, Pasha, who did not stay away from presenting his ideas for the revival of the state, wrote various statements in 1879-1880 and touched on important

problems such as the problem of illumination and the improvement of madrasahs. Another important contribution of Saffet Pasha was the efforts he made in the preservation of ancient artefacts and the development of museology in the Ottoman Empire (Özcan, 2008, p. 467-9).

### ***Sadullah Pasha***

He was born in Erzurum in 1838. Sadullah Pasha, who served at many levels of the state, was appointed to the Ministry of Commerce in 1876 after various duties and also served as the Ministry of Agriculture. After these ministerial duties, he served as the Mabeyn Chief Secretary of Murad IV (BOA., HSD.AFT., 10/36). Pasha, an important statesman, had the knightly rank of Sauveur in Greece, Franz Joseph of Austria, Couronne d'Italie of Italy, Sainte Anne of Russia and Aigle Rouge of Germany, apart from the Murassa' Mecidi and Ottoman insignia. Ahmed Midhat Efendi, one of the leading men of letters of the time, met with him in Vienna in 1889, and he spoke with admiration of his high knowledge and ideas about civilisation.

One of Sadullah Pasha's important contributions to the modernisation process of the state was his effort in the preparation of the General Education Regulation. During his duty as the head book of the Council of State, he also chaired the commission formed for the translation of the French Penal Procedural Law and its adaptation to Ottoman law. Pasha, who was appointed to the Undersecretariat of Education in 1873, served on the commission that organised the education curriculum at different levels of education. In this context, he opened a primary school in Nuruosmaniye Mosque, which will provide teaching activities with the new education management and set an example for new schools to be opened. In addition, it made a significant contribution to the process of preparing the new education curriculum and appointed experts to prepare these textbooks. He established a public library and a Statistics Office in Istanbul.

During his duty as the Minister of Agriculture, the commission established under the chairmanship of Sadullah Pasha after drought and famine arose around Ankara rendered important services in overcoming this problem and in the organisation of aid. Another important duty of the Pasha includes carrying out the censorship activities implemented within the scope of the policies of the Abdulhamit II period. In this context, Sadullah Pasha, who had to carry out the press regulation, put into practice these prohibitions against his friends with whom he had shared similar ideas since the years he joined the Translation Chamber. As a matter of fact, it was

with his will that Diyogen, İbret, Hadika and Sıraç newspapers, which were the leading publications of the period, were closed down.

He was appointed as the chairman of the extraordinary commission tasked with examining the Bulgarian revolt that started in 1876 and gradually expanded and the events that took place after it, and he carried out successful studies here. On May 8, 1877, he was appointed to the Berlin embassy. In the same year, following the defeat in the 1877-1878 Ottoman-Russian War, he was assigned to attend the peace talks to be held in Ayastefanos (San Stefano) as the second delegate. He had to sign an agreement with very harsh conditions after long negotiations. Pasha, who made important contributions to the development of relations with Germany during his five-year stay in Berlin (BOA., Y..PRK.EŞA., 3/31), participated in the international congresses held here as a delegate of the Ottoman Empire. In return for his services, Abdulhamit II gave him the rank of vizier and the title of pasha in 1881 (Akyıldız, 2008b, p. 432-3). In 1883, he was appointed to the Vienna Embassy (BOA., SAİD, 1/24, 06.08.1305).

### ***Ahmet Vefik Pasha***

Ahmet Vefik Pasha was born in Istanbul and grew up in a neighbourhood intertwined with diplomacy. Ahmet Vefik, who is accepted as the founder of Turkism ideology (Gökalp, 2003, p. 9), is also the grandson of Yahya Naci Efendi, who was the founder of the Translation Chamber and the first Muslim translator, who was working in the Engineering School. Along with the leading names in the field of diplomacy, he was the person who laid the scientific ground for the Turkist approach, which will be the main ideology of the new Turkish state after the collapse of the Empire (Ortaylı, 2014, p. 269). Vefik Pasha's achievements in his diplomatic life date back to when he started working as a civil servant in the Translation Office in 1837. This civil service was followed by many successes in his political duties. During his life, he served at the Ministry of Education twice, as the deputy of Istanbul from the first Ottoman Parliament and as the grand vizier in two separate periods between 1878-82. He also served as the Tehran (BOA., A}AMD., 34/13) and Paris embassies (Akyıldız, 2003, p. 145). He was also a member of The Senate of the Ottoman Empire (BOA., İ..DUİT, 1/52) and the Encümen-i Daniş (The Science Advisory Board). Moreover, Pasha was elected a member of the Petersburg Academy of Sciences and participated in the St. Petersburg International Orientalist Congress as a delegate representing the state. (BOA., HR.SFR1..., 67/28). In 1862, he



was appointed to the Presidency of the Court of Accounts by Sultan Abdulaziz and became the first president of the Court of Accounts under its current name.

One of the first important diplomatic missions of the Pasha was to send the Hungarian refugees to the region to solve the problem that emerged as a result of the 1848 revolutions. As a result of the Hungarian lands being affected by the 1848 revolutions, absolutism was opposed in the empire, and non-German nations struggled for independence. In this turbulent process, the Ottoman ambassador warned the Ottoman Empire of the possible asylum attempts by the Hungarians and Poles. He went here as the commissioner of Wallachia and Moldavia. As a result of his meetings with the immigrant leaders and the Austrian consulate, he carried out the necessary diplomatic procedures for the transfer of the immigrants from Shumen to Kütahya. In this process, it is possible to say that he prevented problems that may arise with his persuasion skills and managed the events well.

In 1851, he wanted to be kept away from the diplomacy arena due to his political achievements coming to the fore, so he was removed from Istanbul and appointed as an ambassador to Tehran (BOA, A.}MKT.MVL, 57/73). The news in the British newspapers of the period reveals Vefik Efendi's diplomatic success in the political arena as follows: "If Ahmed Efendi had not been eliminated by being sent to Iran as an ambassador, Russia would not have passed Prut." It is seen that Pasha, who continued this duty for 4 years, took pioneering behaviours that would protect the interests of his country during his diplomatic activities. In this context, during his meetings with the Shah of Iran, he expressed that he wanted to hang the Turkish flag in the Ottoman Embassy and displayed an important diplomatic approach in the context of protecting Turkish interests. Although Iran did not welcome this situation at first, it was resolved as a result of mutual correspondence. Consequently, he was the first Ottoman ambassador to declare the embassy building as the territory of the Ottoman State and raise the flag there. Thus, in modern Ottoman diplomacy, the custom of hanging flags on embassy buildings was initiated in this way. In addition, Ahmet Vefik Pasha, on behalf of the Ottoman Empire, directed the arrangements made in order to prevent confusion in the region due to the problem of Shiites settling in the Iraq-1 Acem (within the Iran borders) region, which caused tension between the two states (Koyuncu, 2021, p. 48-88).

During his time at the Ministry of Foundations, his most prominent service was the repair of Ottoman structures that had been damaged in the 1855 earthquake and had not been

repaired until that day. While he was the governor of Bursa between 1879 and 1882 (BOA., MB.İ..., 90/1), he had the roads and streets of Bursa built, inspired by the mayor of Paris, George Euègene Haussmann (Kumaş, 2011, p. 74-5). The restoration of many important monuments that were damaged in Bursa was carried out by the French architect Leon Parvillee, who was brought to the city by the order of Sultan Abdulaziz (Laurent, 1989, p. 120). In addition to these breakthroughs in terms of the architectural construction of the Empire, Ahmet Vefik Pasha also played a major role in the development of the intellectual ideologies of the state. As a matter of fact, he is considered the ideological founder of the Turkism movement, which would deeply affect the last years of the Ottoman Empire and the founding period of the Republic of Türkiye. Pasha, who carried out various activities in terms of language and society relations, also took steps to use Turkish at the state level after serving as the minister of education and vizier. One of the most important examples of this is that he changed the title of “grand vizier”, which had been used for centuries, to “prime minister” in accordance with the Turkish language (Akyıldız, 2003, p. 148).

### ***Sadık Rıfat Pasha***

Sadık Rıfat Pasha was born in Istanbul and was educated in this city. Pasha, who was one of the names who grew up in the Translation Chamber, started his diplomatic career by being appointed as a civil servant and the chief clerk of the Council of Ministers. He served as the Ottoman Foreign Minister (BOA., A{DVNSNMH.d..., 11/358) and Ambassador to Vienna (BOA., C..HR., 30/1493) twice during his life. While he was serving as the Ambassador in Vienna, his friendship with the Austrian Chancellor Prince Metternich, an influential figure in European politics, significantly influenced his political thoughts. The issues discussed in the meetings between the two were topics such as the law of citizens, regulation of internal administration and the security of the country. As a matter of fact, not only Sadık Rıfat Pasha but also most Tanzimat intellectuals adopted Metternich’s policies of Europe and were of the mindset of modernisation in this direction (Öztürk, 2020, p. 347). In addition, although Metternich was a politician who followed the Ottoman reforms with admiration, he stated that the power of the Empire in foreign policy was linked to the stability of the internal order and did not approve of nationalist movements. Pasha, who developed his views on politics, state and nation with the understanding he gained in this context, thought that

the Empire's rise to the level of European states was possible by enacting some new laws and making partial reforms.

Pasha, who also served as President of the Supreme Court of Appeals for part of his senior diplomatic career (BOA., A}DVN.MHM., 6/19), had significant ideas about Westernization activities that became a state policy after the Tanzimat Edict. He emphasised that this transformation should not be superficial and that it was impossible to become civilised just by building new buildings or changing clothing styles. He also stands out for not only supporting reform practices but also producing multiple solutions to problems and valuing positive moral characteristics. In addition, the articles he wrote about the regions he travelled to are valuable as they reflect the views of society (Semiz, 1994, p. 140). In addition, this statesman, who clearly expressed the issues such as keeping the expenses of the sultan and the palace under the control of the government within a certain budget, constitutes a remarkable example of this attitude, showing the influence of the high-level bureaucrats of the period on the palace administration. Within the scope of his thoughts on state administration, he pointed out the importance of justice and clearly emphasised that European states could give advice on reforms within the Ottoman Empire, but they should not turn this into a tool of intervention in internal affairs. In addition, some of the ideas defended by the Pasha, who was seen to care for balance and stability in domestic and foreign diplomacy, were to avoid war as much as possible, to keep the military force constantly prepared for war, to reduce costs by increasing production, not to go into domestic debt, to avoid new taxes, to expand education in the centres of great states. It can be listed more as having a permanent envoy, preventing bribery and making government policies permanent.

Another critical task of the Pasha in Ottoman diplomacy coincided with the process of Mehmed Ali Pasha's declaration of independence in 1839. As a result of Mehmet Ali Pasha's declaration of independence against the Ottoman Empire in 1839, heavy attacks were carried out in Aleppo, and the Ottoman armies suffered great losses. Sadık Rifat Pasha was also included in the delegation appointed by the Empire to reach an agreement on this issue. As a matter of fact, Pasha went to Alexandria in August 1840 to inform Mehmed Ali Pasha about the finalisation of the Egyptian issue in accordance with the decisions of the London Conference. Although he could not convince Mehmed Ali Pasha in the context of this issue, he was subsequently appointed as the Undersecretary of the Grand Vizier. He was subsequently appointed to the Ministry of

Foreign Affairs and focused on the implementation of the Tanzimat reforms. It is also known that during this period, the Pasha also attended many meetings to discuss the proposals of the Western states during the wars (Akyıldız, 2008a, p. 400-1).

### ***Mehmet Namık Pasha***

Born in Istanbul and one of the most successful members of the Translation Chamber, Mehmet Namık Pasha (BOA., DH.SAİDd..., 2/228) learned French from Yahya Efendi, the founder of the translation chamber. Due to his profession in French, he quickly rose through the ranks and was later assigned to translate various works and instructions from French within the military. Because of his success in this translation process, the sultan of the period, Mahmud II, included him in the military class. Pasha, who also served as the Minister of War (BOA., HR.SFR.3..., 148/9), had important signatures in the innovations in the military field. Moreover, he had the duty of governor of Baghdad, served at the London embassy on an ad hoc basis, and was the founder of the Mekteb-i Harbiye (The Military College).

While the modernisation process accelerated during the Mahmut II period, the field in which the state did the fastest work in this sense was the military. In this context, Namık Pasha, one of the leading statesmen, was sent to Petersburg as a military attaché to get information about the state order of Russia and the organisation of the army after the signing of the Treaty of Edirne. In 1832, he was appointed ambassador to London in order to provide British aid for the Egypt issue. During this duty, he held various meetings in Vienna, Paris, and London, but he could not achieve the desired diplomatic results (Saydam, 2006, p. 379). In 1834, he was appointed with “private office duty” to London in order to provide British aid for the Egypt issue of Mehmed Ali Pasha. During this duty, he held various meetings in Vienna, Paris, and London, but he could not achieve the desired result in diplomatic terms. In his meetings with the King of England and the British Foreign Minister, the answer he received was that “Britain wanted the Ottoman Empire not to take any action against Mehmed Ali Pasha, in case of Russian intervention” (BOA., HAT, 1173/46414). In the context of the Egypt issue, the opposing army advanced to Kütahya, and Namık Pasha went to Petersburg to meet with the Russian forces to discuss this problem. Here, he managed to get assurance from Tsar Nicholas and eased this troublesome process for a while in the eyes of the Ottoman Empire. Another of his diplomatically important tasks coincides with the aftermath of the Crimean War. In this period,

due to the fact that the war in question put the Ottoman Empire in financial difficulties, Namık Pasha went to Paris and London to seek financing as Minister of Trade (BOA., A{DVNSNMH.d..., 13/102); however, the European states did not give these guarantees and the bankers demanded excessively high interest rates (Badem, 2007, p. 262).

When he returned to Istanbul, Pasha took part in the establishment and administration of the Harbiye Mektebi (The Military School), which was opened in 1834, and provided the construction of the Harbiye building, which today functions as Istanbul University. In 1843, with the rank of vizier, he was sent to the marshal of the Arabian army and restored the state authority in the region, which was shaken by the Druze-Maruni struggle. The nomadic tribes in the region have served in the settlement and subordination of the nomadic tribes. In 1849, he was appointed as marshal of the Iraq and Hejaz army (BOA., A.}DVN.MHM., 1/80). In addition to this duty, he was also given the mission of the governor of Baghdad (BOA, HR.SYS, 1909/15). During this period, within the scope of ensuring security policies, he prevented the rebellions in the Sulaymaniyah sanjak and attacks against Iranian pilgrims. Namık Pasha, who was also interested in public works activities, made a significant effort to build new roads, military barracks, schools, and administrative buildings, expand the Basra Shipyard and develop agriculture. In the following years, he became the minister responsible for the Ottoman navy. Pasha, who participated in the studies related to the preparation of the Kanun-i Esasi (The Constitution of the Ottoman Empire) during the reign of Abdülhamit II, had the idea of establishing a structure like the British Parliament and forming a parliament consisting only of Muslims. Although he could not get this idea accepted, it is understood from the sources of the period that he had a certain influence on the Sultan (Saydam, 2006, p. 380).

## Conclusion

One of the most notable areas of Ottoman modernisation, which started during the reign of Selim III and took the form of radical reforms during the reign of Mahmud II, is the transformation of diplomacy. In this context, this article was written to create a certain meaning for the process of transformation of the Ottoman diplomatic tradition from a classical style to a modern one and to examine the effects of Ottoman bureaucrats, whose effectiveness in the state reached its peak within the framework of changing management habits. When the Translation Chamber, which formed the foundation of modern Ottoman diplomacy, was examined from a historical perspective, it was



seen that it fundamentally affected the Ottoman political structure and the means of change on the authority of the Sultan. Another important issue which was encountered in this research is that the Translation Chamber, which was the first step in the construction of modern diplomacy, has an important connection with the Reisülkütblük institution, which has an important place in the foreign ministry tradition of the Ottoman Empire. This is valuable as it shows the chronology of the transition from the traditional process to the modern in the Empire. In addition, it has been seen that similar translation chambers actually emerged as language schools in Europe much earlier and formed the cornerstones of Orientalism. This is important as it shows the source of information that the Translation Chamber provide to foreign relations.

The statesmen who grew up here took part in the highest levels of the state and became the decision-makers on the issues that determined the fate of the Ottoman Empire. Especially in the archive documents of the Prime Ministry, the political duties of all the names discussed in the article in various embassies and at various levels of foreign relations can be clearly traced. These realities show that examining the establishment vision of the Translation Chamber and the effects of the Pashas, who grew up in the state administration together, will give a clearer view of understanding Ottoman modern diplomacy. After revealing the emergence of the translation chamber in a certain framework, the contribution of the eight most prominent statesmen of the period to political life is discussed in order to express this period of Pashas more clearly. These pashas, who served as grand vizier, minister and ambassador, took important roles in the solution process of the most important diplomatic problems of the period, such as the Crimean War, the Lebanon Issue, the implementation of the Tanzimat reforms, the Paris Agreement, the Syria and Crete rebellions.

Among these names, Reşid Pasha, who was the leading figure of the Tanzimat reforms, stands out both in terms of his effective politics in the Western-centered modernisation activities of the state and in influencing the important diplomats who took office after him with his thoughts. Pasha, who designed the Tanzimat reforms with the aim of preventing the intervention of the state under the pretext of innovation movements and nationalist rebellions, took an active role in the process of change that started with the announcement of this Edict. Reşit Pasha, who played a role on many levels, from important political problems such as the Mehmed Ali Pasha problem to the implementation of the Tanzimat reforms, was

one of the first people to be appointed to institutions such as the Undersecretariat of Foreign Affairs, which was created for the first time in the field of foreign relations. Another important name for the era was Âli Pasha, who was from the generation raised by Reşid Pasha. He was sent to Vienna for peace talks to be held at the end of the Crimean War, and during the Paris Conference, with the title of “extraordinary ambassador”, enabled the Ottoman Empire to join the European states community of that time. At the same time, the Pasha, who prepared the Reform Edict (Islahat Fermanı), which gave equal citizenship rights to the non-Muslim people within the Empire, thought that this would ensure the territorial integrity of the Ottoman Empire and prevent European states from interfering in the internal affairs of the Ottoman Empire.

One of the most influential statesmen of the period was Keçecizâde Fuad Pasha, who carried out the duties of gradually controlling the rebellion situations in various regions at a time when nationalist revolts were on the rise. He ensured the security of the region during the Hungarian independence movements against Austria. As the British and French suppressed the rebellion that started as a result of provoking the local people in Lebanon, with Pasha’s diplomatic efforts, the region remained under Ottoman rule for half a century. Safvet Mehmed Esad Pasha, who held various ministerial positions, took part in the preparation of the Kanun-i Esasi (The Constitution of the Ottoman Empire), and while he was the minister of education, he made the education service perceived as a state service, rather than a public service. In addition, he took a role in suppressing the uprisings in Bosnia and Herzegovina, represented the state at the conferences held due to the uprisings in the Balkans and was appointed as a delegate to conduct negotiations in the agreement with Greece.

Sadullah Pasha, who made important contributions to the reforms on education in the modernisation process of the state, took part in the commission that reorganised the curriculum of all levels of the Empire. He was appointed as the chairman of the extraordinary commission responsible for investigating the Bulgarian revolt and the events that took place after it. During his duty as Berlin ambassador, he provided important services in the development of relations with Germany. He served as the Mabeyn Chief Secretary of Murad IV. Ahmet Vefik Pasha, the grandson of Yahya Efendi who was the founder of the translation chamber, was an active politician in the state administration, and at the same time, with his important works, he contributed to the establishment of the new Turkish society in the context of language and culture.

Pasha, who served as the Grand Vizier, the ministry, the Tehran and Paris ambassador. Also, he participated in the St. Petersburg International Orientalist Congress as a delegate representing the state. His other duty was to solve the Hungarian refugee issue that arose as a result of the 1848 revolutions.

Sadık Rifat Pasha, who served as Minister of Foreign Affairs and Ambassador to Vienna, was influenced by the thoughts of Prince Metternich, who directed European politics, and his political thoughts on issues such as the regulation of the internal administration, the security of the country, and the law of the citizens progressed on this basis. He also served as President of the Supreme Court. Pasha, who was on duty in the delegation sent to the region for the solution to the Egypt issue, was very active, especially in the implementation of the Tanzimat reforms. Mehmet Namık Pasha, on the other hand, was a prominent name for his activities in the military field. Pasha, who had important signatures in the innovations in the military field, served as the Minister of War and the Governor of Baghdad twice during his life, became the London Ambassador of the Ottoman Empire and was the founder of the Mekteb-i Harbiye (The Military School). Some of his prominent diplomatic missions include his appointment as an ambassador to London to provide British aid over the Egypt issue and going to Paris & London to seek financial aid as Trade Minister after the Crimean War.

As a result, these statesmen, who dominated the guiding decision-making mechanisms of their period in the most important diplomatic issues during the collapse of the Ottoman Empire, provide us with an important framework in terms of explaining the modernisation process of Ottoman diplomacy and the serious effects of bureaucrats on the administration in the monarchical order, with their activities. In this context, examining the place of the Translation Chamber in Ottoman political history and the influence of the prominent figures among the statesmen who grew up there provides a collective view of the political dynamics of the period. Thus, it has been possible to discuss this unique period in Ottoman politics, in which the sultan's influence in the monarchy administration was restricted, and bureaucrats came to the fore in an understandable and well-defined concept.

## References

### **Prime Ministry Ottoman Archive (Başbakanlık Osmanlı Arşivi, BOA) Documents**

- Bab-ı Asafî, Name-i Hümayun Defterleri: 11/358, 1841; 11/443, 1845; 12/124, 1855; 12/132, 1855; 13/102, 1877.
- Cevdet, Dahiliye: 68/3370, 1821.
- Cevdet, Hâriciyye: 68/3370, 1821; 105-5236, 1822; 146/7257, 1841.
- Dahiliye, Defterler: 2/416, 1815; 30/1493, 1843; 2/228, 1805
- Hariciye Nezareti, Londra Sefareti: 1/1, 1836; 1/7, 1836; 3/66, 1842; 11/25, 1851; 13/52, 1852; 13/53, 1852; 13/26, 1852; 26/33, 1856; 148/9, 1869
- Hariciye Nezareti, Mektubi Kalemi: 9/44, 1845.
- Hariciye Nezareti, Petersburg Sefareti: 67/28, 1876.
- Hariciye Nezareti, Sicill-i Ahval İdare-i Umumiyyesi Müdüriyeti: 1/24, 1888; 3/24, 1894.
- Hariciye Nezareti, Siyasi: 1909/15, 1862.  
Hâriciyye Nezâreti, Tercüme Odası: 406/30, 1845.  
Hatt-ı Hümayun: 856/38253, 1824; 1173/46414, 1834; 1174/46429, 1836; nr. 23465, 1836; nr. 51002, 1838; nr. 52468, 1839.
- İrade, Dosya Usulü: 1/52, 1877.
- İrade, Hususi: 2/29, 1892.
- İrade, Yunanistan: 1/14, 1841.
- Mabeyn-i Hümayun Evrakı, İradeleri: 90/1, 1882.
- Sadaret, Amedi Kalemi Evrakı: 4/63, 1848; 34/13, 1853.
- Sadaret, Meclis-i Vala Evrakı: 57/73, 1852.
- Sadaret, Mühimme Evrakı: 4/13, 1847; 6/19, 1848; 1/80, 1844.
- Sadaret, Teşrifat Kalemi Evrakı: 5/5, 1848.
- Satın Alınan Evrak, Ali Fuat Türkgeldi Evrakı: 10/36, 1889.
- Topkapı Sarayı, Topkapı Sarayı Müzesi Arşivi Evrakı: 640/47, 1864.
- Yıldız, Arzuhal Jurnal: 8/58, 1892.
- Yıldız, Hariciye Nezareti Maruzatı: 4/89, 1879.
- Yıldız; Elçilik, Şehbenderlik ve Ateşemiliterlik: 3/31, 1882.

### **Periodicals and Review Works**

- Ahışhalı, R. (1999). Osmanlı Devlet Teşkilatında Reisülküttablık Müessesesi (18. yy.) [The Institution of Reisülküttab in the Ottoman State Organization, 18th Century] (PhD

- Thesis). Marmara University, Institute of Social Sciences, Istanbul, Türkiye.
- Akkaya, S. N. (2020). Türk Romanında Self-Oryantalizm (1870-1980) [Self-Orientalism in Turkish Novel (1870-1980)] (PhD Thesis). Istanbul University, Institute of Social Sciences, Istanbul, Türkiye.
- Akpınar, M. (2014). Osmanlı İmapratorluğu'nda hariciye Nezareti'nin Kuruluşu ve Dış Politikanın Kurumsallaşması [The Establishment of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Institutionalization of Foreign Policy in the Ottoman Empire]. *Tarih İncelemeleri Dergisi*, XXIX(1), 59-85.
- Akyıldız, A. (2003). Meclis-i Vükela [The Government]. *TDV Encyclopedia*, 28, 251-253. Istanbul: Diyanet Foundation Publishing.
- Akyıldız, A. (2008a). Sadık Rıfat Paşa. *TDV Encyclopedia*, 35, 400-401. Istanbul: Diyanet Foundation Publishing.
- Akyıldız, A. (2008b). Sadullah Paşa. *TDV Encyclopedia*, 35, 432-433. Istanbul: Diyanet Foundation Publishing.
- Arıkan, Z. (2007). Guillaume (Wilhelm) Postel. *TDV Encyclopedia*, 34, 333-334. Istanbul: Diyanet Foundation Publishing.
- Aydın, B. (2007). Divan-ı Hümayun Tercümanları ve Osmanlı Kültür ve Diplomasisindeki Yerleri [The Imperial Translators and Their Place in Ottoman Culture and Diplomacy]. *The Journal of Ottoman Studies*, 29, 40-86.
- Badem, C. (2007). The Ottomans and the Crimean War (PhD Thesis). Sabancı University, Social Sciences Institute, Istanbul, Türkiye.
- Balcı, S. (2006). Osmanlı Devletinde Tercümanlık ve Bab-ı Ali Tercüme Odası [Translation in the Ottoman Empire and Sublime Porte Translation Chamber] (PhD Thesis). Ankara University, Social Sciences Institute, Ankara, Türkiye.
- Berridge, G. R. (2010). *Diplomacy: Theory and Practice* (4th ed.). Palgrave Macmillan, London, UK.
- Beydilli, K. (1989). Âli Paşa, Mehmed Emin. *TDV Encyclopedia*, 2, 425-426. Istanbul: Diyanet Foundation Publishing.
- Bilim, C. (1990). Tercüme Odası [The Translation Chamber]. *OTAM Ankara University, Osmanlı Tarihi Araştırma ve Uygulama Merkezi Dergisi*, 1(1), 29-43.
- Davison, R. H. (2000). The Modernization of Ottoman Diplomacy in the Tanzimat Period (Trs. Durdu Mehmet Burak). *OTAM*, 11, 849-861.



- Freeman, C. W., & Marks, S. (2024). Diplomacy. Retrieved February 16, 2024, from <https://www.britannica.com/topic/diplomacy>
- Griffiths, M., O'Callaghan, T., & Roach, S. (2008). *International Relations: The Key Concepts* (2nd ed.). Routledge, New York, USA.
- Gökalp, Z. (2003). *Türkçülüğün Esasları* [The Fundamentals of Turkism]. Kumsaati Publishing, Istanbul, Türkiye.
- İnal, İ. M. K. (1982). *Son Sadrazamlar* [The Last Grand Viziers] II (3rd ed.). Dergah Publishing, Ankara, Türkiye.
- İskit, T. (2007). *Diplomasi* [Diplomacy]. Istanbul Bilgi University Publishing, Istanbul, Türkiye.
- Kodaman, T., & Akçay, E. Y. (2010). *Kuruluştan Yıkılışa Kadar Osmanlı Diplomasi Tarihi ve Türkiye'ye Bıraktığı Miras* [The History of Ottoman Diplomacy from the Establishment to the Collapse and the Legacy Left for Turkey]. *Süleyman Demirel University Social Sciences Journal*, 22, 75-92.
- Koyuncu, G. (2021). *Ahmet Vefik Paşa'nın Diplomatik Görev ve Faaliyetleri* [Ahmet Vefik Pasha's Diplomatic Missions and Activities] (Master Thesis). Istanbul University, Social Sciences Institute, Istanbul, Türkiye.
- Köprülü, O. F. (1996). *Fuad Paşa, Keçecizade*. TDV Encyclopedia, 13, 202-205. Istanbul: Diyanet Foundation Publishing.
- Kösece, Y., & Karakoç, R. (2021). *Osmanlı Devleti'nin Modernleşme Sürecinde Bürokrasinin Rolü Üzerine Bir Değerlendirme* [An Evaluation on the Role of Bureaucracy in the Modernization Process of the Ottoman Empire]. *Türk İdare Dergisi*, 492, 237-262.
- Kumaş, N. (2011). *II. Abdülhamit Döneminde Bursa'da Sosyal Hayat* [Social Life in Bursa during the Period of Abdulhamit II] (1876-1909) (PhD Thesis). Uludağ University, Social Sciences Institute, Bursa, Türkiye.
- Laurent, B. (1989). *Ottomanization and Modernisation: The Architectural and Urban Development of Bursa and The Genesis of Tradition 1839-1914*. Harvard University, Massachusetts, USA.
- Lewis, B. (2000). *Müslümanların Avrupa'yı Keşfi* [Muslims' Discovery of Europe] (Trs. İhsan Duru). Ayışığı Bookstore, Istanbul, Türkiye.
- Organski, A. F. K. (1968). *World Politics* (2nd ed.). The University of Michigan, New York, USA.

- Ortaylı, İ. (2014). İmparatorluğun En Uzun Yüzyılı [The Longest Century of the Empire] (40th ed.). Timaş Publishing, İstanbul, Türkiye.
- Özcan, A. (2008). Saffet Mehmed Esad Paşa. TDV Encyclopedia, 35, 467-469. İstanbul: Diyanet Foundation Publishing.
- Öztuna, Y. (1988). Keçecizade Fuat Paşa. Ministry of Culture and Tourism Publishing, İstanbul, Türkiye.
- Öztürk, R. H. (2020). Osmanlı Değişim Çabaları ve Mehmet Sadık Rıfat Paşa [Ottoman Change Efforts and Mehmet Sadık Rıfat Pasha]. Akademik İncelemeler Dergisi, 15(1), 345-366.
- Pınar, H. (2008). Diplomasi ile Siyasetin Birlikteliği: Girit İsyanı ve Âli Paşa [The Unity of Diplomacy and Politics: Cretan Revolt and Ali Pasha]. Süleyman Demirel University Social Sciences Journal, 18, 1-22.
- Polatçı, T. (2013). Osmanlı Diplomasisinde Oryantalist Memurlar [Orientalist Officials in Ottoman Diplomacy]. Akçağ Publishing, Ankara, Türkiye.
- Saydam, A. (2006). Namık Paşa. TDV Encyclopedia, 32, 379-380. İstanbul: Diyanet Foundation Publishing.
- Semiz, Y. (1994). Sadık Rıfat Paşa (1807-1857) Hayatı ve Görüşleri [His Life and Views]. Selçuk University Türkiyat Research Journal, 1, 135-144.
- Tanpınar, A. H. (2003). 19'uncu Asır Türk Edebiyatı Tarihi [History of 19th Century Turkish Literature] (10th ed.). Çağlayan Publishing, İstanbul, Türkiye.
- Uçman, A. (1999). Ebubekir Ratıb Efendi'nin Nemçe Sefaretnamesi [Ebubekir Ratıb Efendi's Nemçe Embassy-Book]. Kitabevi Publishing, İstanbul, Türkiye.
- Uluçam, M. (1999). Âli Paşa. Yaşamları ve Yapıtlarıyla Osmanlılar Ansiklopedisi [Encyclopedia of Ottomans with Their Lives and Works]. Yapı Kredi Culture Art Publishing, İstanbul, Türkiye.
- Yalçınkaya, M. A. (Ed.). (2013). Osmanlı Diplomasisi [Ottoman Diplomacy]. Anadolu University Press
- Yıldırım, E. (2017). "Dağılma Döneminde Osmanlı Dış Politikası" (Ottoman Foreign Policy in the Period of Disintegration) (Master Thesis). İstanbul, Türkiye: Beykent University Social Sciences Institute.