

ITALIAN SPARK ON BALKAN ARSENAL: ITALIAN-TURKISH WAR (1911-1912)

Bülent DURGUN*

Abstract

Willing to keep her influence on the Western Great Powers' policy over the Eastern Mediterranean, the Sublime Porte did not want to lose the last land stripe of hers on the Northern Africa. For this reason she decided to defend that land to preserve her political and military dignity by eliminating the military attack of Italy. The battlefield was far away from the mainland and there was no direct transportation link. Trying to support her units in the field, the Porte consumed all of her resources, particularly economic and military ones. Because of that, the war with Italians became very destructive for the Ottoman Empire. Consumption of resources during the war caused the Ottoman Empire having difficulties to provide economic and military sources to use in the Balkan Wars which had already started while war against Italians had not ended. Eventually Ottoman Empire could not hinder the loss of the Balkans which had been accepted as a part of mainland. Defeat in the Tripoli War against Italy caused Ottomans lost of the Dodecanese Islands along with her rights to execute power in both East Mediterranean and the Aegean Sea. In addition to that the weakness of her Navy, which was also one of the main reasons of losing the East Aegean Islands, was exposed. The loss of Aegean Islands could easily threaten both the security of Anatolian peninsula and the trade along the east-west and south-north trade routes, one of which is Silk Road.

This essay, prepared by studying year books, periodicals, wide range of national and international literature, aims to explain the political, diplomatic, economic and military effects of The Tripoli War on the Balkan Wars. Along with Bulgarian Prime Minister Ivan Evstratiev Geshov's memoirs, published in 1915, the work of Tittoni, prepared by compilation of reports of the Italian General Staff and published in 1914, were capitalized in this study. Assessments endeavoured to explain within limited pages are comprised of three subtitles as *Prelude, Italian-Turkish War (1911-1912) and The Impacts on the Balkan Wars*.

Keywords: *the Ottoman-Italian War, Tripoli and Cyrenaica (Libya), the Balkan Wars, East Mediterranean, the Aegean Sea.*

* Dr., (b_durgun@hotmail.com).

BALKANLARI TUTUŞTURAN İTALYAN ATEŞİ: TÜRK-İTALYAN HARBİ (1911-1912)

Öz

Doğu Akdeniz’de büyük güçlerin uygulamaya koyacakları politikalarda söz hakkını muhafaza etmek isteyen Osmanlı İmparatorluğu, Kuzey Afrika’da elinde kalan son toprak parçasını kaybetmek istemiyordu. Bu nedenle, İtalya’nın Trablusgarp’a yönelttiği saldırıyı bertaraf ederek askeri ve siyasal onurunu da korumak üzere savunma yapmaya karar verdi. Kuzey Afrika’daki muharebe alanı merkezden oldukça uzaktaydı ve doğrudan bir ulaşım sistemi ile merkezle bağlantısı bulunmuyordu. Muharebe alanını Anavatandan desteklemeye çalışan imparatorluk, bu maksatla başta askeri ve ekonomik olmak üzere bütün kaynaklarını tüketmek zorunda kalmıştı. Bu nedenle Osmanlılar için İtalyanlar ile Trablusgarp’ta yapılan savaş çok yıkıcı bir mahiyet kazandı. Kaynakların tüketilmesi, daha İtalyanlarla savaş sona ermeden baş gösteren Balkan Harbi’nde kullanılacak mali ve askeri kaynak tedarikinde güçlüklerle karşılaşılmasına neden oldu. Sonuç olarak Osmanlı İmparatorluğu, anayurt olarak belirlediği Balkanların dahi elinden çıkmasına engel olamadı. Trablusgarp Savaşı’yla Oniki Ada’yı da kaybetmesi, korumaya çalıştığı Doğu Akdeniz’deki söz hakkının dışında, Ege’de de söz hakkını yitirmesine neden oldu. Bu durum Anadolu Yarımadası’nın güvenliğini tehdit ederken, Boğazlar üzerinden geçen Karadeniz ticareti ile Doğu-Batı istikametindeki İpek Yolu’nun kontrolü için son derece önemli bir bölgenin de önce İtalyanlara daha sonra da Yunanlara kaptırılmasına neden oldu.

Çeşitli salnameler ile süreli yayınların yanı sıra Türkçe ve İngilizce geniş bir literatür taraması ile hazırlanan bu çalışmanın amacı Trablusgarp Harbi’nin Balkan Harbi’ne askeri, ekonomik, diplomatik ve siyasal etkilerini açıklamaya çalışmak olacaktır. Dönemin Bulgar Başbakanı Ivan Evstratiev Geshov’un 1915 yılında yayınlanan anıları ve İtalyan Genelkurmay’ının raporlarının tercümesi ve derlenmesi ile 1914 yılında basılan Tittoni’nin eseri de çalışmada kullanılan yayınlar arasındadır. Sınırlı sayfa ile anlatılmaya çalışılan değerlendirmeler, *Giriş, Trablusgarp Harbi ile Balkan Harbine Etkileri Açısından Değerlendirme* başlıkları altında üç bölümden oluşmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Osmanlı-İtalyan Savaşı, Trablusgarp ve Bingazi (Libya), Balkan Harbi, Doğu Akdeniz, Ege Denizi.

Prelude

The Congress of Vienna was held in the years 1814-1815 under the influence of Austria-Hungarian foreign minister Metternich in order to reshape the Europe, shattered by the Napoleon leded France¹. With the Vienna Settlement signed on June 9th 1815, Germany, and Italy kept fragmented and remained under the control of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Thus Metternich succeeded in blocking the Italian Unification and moulding the new Europe as imagined according the European Concert.

Following the Treaty of Karlowitz (Jan. 26, 1699), signed in consequence of the loss of Second Vienna Siege; the Ottoman Empire entered a process of decline. Henceforth, together with her invincibility she began to lose territory in Europe. As for the significance of the Congress of Vienna for the Ottoman Empire, it stems from the Eastern Question², first stated by the Russians, meaning forced migration, extermination and assimilation of Turkish entity in Europe.

Although the insurrections, as a result of growing nationalist trends in Italy, were suppressed by Austria after the Congress of Vienna, time proved to be in favour of Piedmont-Sardinia that contributed with 15.000 troops to the Crimean War in order to ensure the support of Britain and France. Thanks to Count Cavour by whose successful financial operations, Italy joined the Great Powers along with Britain, France, Russia and Prussia and set for the search of raw materials and markets, including securing colonies yet not occupied³.

“The Sick Man of Europe”⁴ the Ottoman Empire, first stated by Russian tsar, was whetting imperialist Great Powers’ appetite in the contest of securing market and raw materials.⁵ Bosworth, described Italy as the weakest of the Great

1 G. A. C. Sandeman, *Metternich*, Brentano’s Publications, New York, 1911, p. 114; According to Carr, extremely comprehensive articles on Klemens Metternich(1773-1859), are to such an extent that it supported a supposition of a pseudo “Metternich Age”, E.H. Carr ve J. Fontana, *Tarih Yazımında Nesnellik ve Yanlılık*, Çeviren: Özer Ozankaya, İmge Kitabevi, Ankara, 1992, pp. 34-35.

2 Özer Sükan, *21 Yüzyıl Başlarında Balkanlar ve Türkiye*, Harp Akademileri Basımevi, İstanbul, 2001, pp. 64, 77-80; William L. Langer and Robert P. Blake, “The Rise of the Ottoman Turks and Its Historical Background”, *The American Historical Review*, Vol. 37, No. 3 (Apr., 1932), pp. 468-505; Suat Muhtar, “Şark Meselesi”, *İstisare*, Cilt 1, Sayı 18, 14 Kanunusani 1324, pp. 840-844; Enver Ziya Karal, *Osmanlı Tarihi V. Cilt*, Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi, 4. Baskı, Ankara, 1983, pp. 203-204.

3 Coşkun Üçok, *Siyasal Tarih 1789-1950*, 6. Bası, Başnur Matbaası, Ankara, Ankara, 1967, pp. 183, 188-194.

4 *Ibid*, p. 176.

5 Charles Seymour, *The Diplomatic Background of the War 1870-1914*, Yale University Pres, Tenth Printing, Yale, 1918, pp.166-221; Orhan Kurmuş, *Emperyalizmin Türkiye’ye Girişi*, Savaş Yayınları, Üçüncü Baskı, Ankara, 1982, p. 12; Rifat Uçarol, *Siyasi Tarih (1789-1999)*, Filiz Kitabevi, Beşinci Baskı, İstanbul, 2000, p. 49; Bayram Kodaman, “II. Abdülhamit ve Kürtler-Ermeniler”, *SDÜ Fen Edebiyat Fakültesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, Mayıs 2010, Sayı: 21; Norman Dwight Harris, “The Effect of the Balkan Wars on European Alliances and the Future of

Powers, stated the policy of United Italian towards Turkey in the contest as: “‘O tutti, o nessuno’ – either a place for Italy or no Great Power should be warmed in the Ottoman sun.”⁶ He also likened the Italian contribution to the efforts made by the Great Powers to the “the Sick Man” to a disease of the skin and not of the heart.⁷ With this feature, Italy came to prominence as the first to initiate the activities striking down the Porte.

Regarded as one of the reasons of the Balkan Wars⁸, the Tripoli War is also important as it revealed the severity of the illness of the Ottoman Empire and directly affected Turkey in the successive wars for the next ten years.

After the Congress of Vienna in 1815 Austro-Hungarian Empire’s dominance prevailed over the Italian peninsula, remaining only as a geographical place name. This dominance was conducted either by direct control of the central government in Vienna, as in the north of Venice and Lombardy, or appointing Austrian archdukes as governors like in Tuscany and Modena.⁹

As the France fire of nationalism spread all over the Europe, Italian passionate love for freedom was also set ablaze. However, Austria with the Prime Minister of Metternich and the Pope were the biggest obstacles to realization of the united Italy. Italy led by the Prime Minister Camillo Benso, Count of Cavour, achieved the unity in 1870, for the duration of time starting from the Vienna Agreement.¹⁰

The unification of Italy was one of the most important issues occurred in the 19th century for what first of all brought about big changes in the European Concert established by Metternich in 1815. Although she was the weakest of the Great Powers, United Italy emerged as a new actor of the European Diplomatic Balance, in the South of Europe and in the Middle of the Mediterranean.¹¹

Most of the European countries, namely Spain, Portugal, Netherlands,

the Ottoman Empire”, *Proceedings of the American Political Science Association*, Vol. 10, Tenth Annual Meeting (1913), pp. 113, 116; G. H. Gordon, “Balkan Problems and Their Solutions”, *Advocate of Peace through Justice*, Vol. 84 No. 4 (April 1922), p. 144.

6 R. J. B. Bosworth, “Italy and the End of the Ottoman Empire”, *The Great Powers and the End of the Ottoman Empire*, Edited by Marian Kent, Frank Cass&Co.Ltd., England and USA, 1996, p. 52.

7 *Ibid.*

8 Ömer Esenyel, *Balkan Harbinden Günümüze Bakış*, Harp Akademileri Basımevi, İstanbul, 1995, pp. 50-51.

9 Sandeman, *ibid.*, p. 168; As Metternich once called “geographical expression”, Gordon A. Craig, *Europe 1815-1914*, Third Edition, Orlando, USA, 1989, p. 186.

10 Gordon, *ibid.*, p. 186-203; Hüner Tuncer, *19. Yüzyılda Osmanlı-Avrupa İlişkileri*, Ümit Yayıncılık, Ankara, 2000, pp. 19-29, 55-56; Hamdi Ertuna, *Türk Silahlı Kuvvetleri Tarihi Osmanlı Devri Osmanlı-İtalyan Harbi (1911-1912)*, Gnkur. Basımevi, Ankara, 1981, p. 46; Karal, *ibid.*, pp. 246-247; Uçarol, *ibid.*, pp. 234-239; Üçok, *ibid.*, pp. 189-194; Şevket Süreyya Aydemir, *Makedonya’dan Ortaasya’ya Enver Paşa (İkinci Cilt 1908-1914)*, 5. Basım, Remzi Kitabevi, İstanbul, 1993, p. 217; Fahir Armaoğlu, *20. Yüzyıl Siyasi Tarihi (1914-1990) Cilt I: 1914-1980*, Türkiye İş Bankası Yayınları, Ankara, 1991, p. 12.

11 *Ibid.*, p. 194.

France and England had managed to take hold of their colonies, long before Italy completed her unity, in order to transfer the affluence of the overseas countries. While partition of the wealth of the colonies¹² was almost turning the 18th century the age of scramble for colonies, starting from the second half of the 18th century, the industrial and commercial revolutions developed intercontinental trade, and forced the developed countries to search for new markets for their manufactures and resources for the demand of their industries.

In this context, the colonial struggles in the 19th century were directly influencing the European power balance. All the continents other than Europe were shared between France, Belgium, Netherlands, Russia, Spain and Portugal under UK's leadership either by occupation or dominating the economy until 1870.¹³

Upon completion of the unification Italy, in the middle of the Mediterranean, stepped forward not to be late taking her share from the North African coast the importance of which increased by the opening of the Suez Canal¹⁴ in the second half of the 19th century.¹⁵

When it comes to the Ottoman-Italian relations Italy benefited from the legal, economic and political privileges of capitulations which were gained by the small kingdoms through centuries. For example Genoa was the first one who gained those of capitulations in 1352. Venice followed the same path. Naples-Sicily obtained same privileges in 1740. Piedmont established her diplomatic relations with Ottoman Empire in 1819 and benefited all the rights emerged from the commercial agreements later on. The United Italy inherited the imperial policy along with diplomatic and commercial rights of those small states mainly Piedmont's. Although the Habsburg dynasty was a greater issue for the United Italian Kingdom, Italian foreign office focused their efforts on Libya, Balkans, Dodecanese, Adalia and Albania before the year 1914.¹⁶

In 1882 with the loss of Egypt, in North Africa the last stripe of land remaining in the Ottoman's sovereignty was Tripoli, conquered, on August 15, 1551, from the Knights of Malta, by Kaptan-ı Derya Sinan Pasha commissioned by the Sultan Suleiman the Magnificent, then became the third naval base following Algeria and Tunisia.¹⁷ Following the conquest, in the initial period, Tripoli was governed with Algeria and Tunisia collectively. She was the most loyal of these three states known as "Garp Ocakları".¹⁸

12 Armaoğlu, *ibid.*, pp. 11-13; Enver Ziya Karal, *Osmanlı Tarihi IX. Cilt (İkinci Meşrutiyet ve Birinci Dünya Savaşı(1908-1918))*, Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi, Ankara, 1996, pp. 258-259.

13 Uçarol, *ibid.*, pp. 289-291; Armaoğlu, *ibid.*, pp. 11-13, 79-81.

14 Danyal Beniz, "Süveyş Kanalı'nın Önemi", *Ankara Üniversitesi Dil ve Tarih-Coğrafya Fakültesi Dergisi*, Cilt: 9, Sayı: 3, Year: 1951, pp. 329-352.

15 Armaoğlu, *ibid.*, pp. 80-81.

16 *Ibid.*, pp. 51-52.

17 Hale Şıvgın, *Trablusgarp Savaşı ve 1911-1912 Türk-İtalyan İlişkileri*, Atatürk Araştırma Merkezi Yayınları, Ankara, 2006, p. 1; Karal, *Osmanlı Tarihi IX*, p. 256-257;

18 Aydemir, *ibid.*, p. 215; Şıvgın, *ibid.*, p. 1.

Between the years 1551-1864 as an autonomous state of Tripoli was governed by local dynasties. As a Dey, Ahmed Pasha, the founder of Qaramanli dynasty took over the government of the state on July 29, 1711. Qaramanli dynasty managed to be in the power for a hundred years. "In May 1835 an Ottoman naval vessel was sent to Tripoli carrying troops, ostensibly to aid in quelling a rebellion. As it happened, the troop commander, Mustafa Najib Pasha, entered Tripoli on May 28 as the new governor. Thus, the reign of the Qaramanli dynasty was ended, and for the next seventy-six years the Ottomans were to rule directly.¹⁹"

With a regulation adopted in 1864 and establishing the Vilayets, Tripoli was connected directly to Istanbul. In this new administrative system, Tripoli was divided into five provinces in 1866, Sanjak of Cyrenaica (Benghazi), Sanjak of Trablus Garb, Sanjak of Khoms, Sanjak of Jabal al-Gharb and Sanjak of Fazzan. In 1908 Benghazi became an independent sanjak once again.²⁰ By the amendment introduced in order to prevent possible interventions of the Great Powers, in this second phase of Tripoli under the Ottoman rule, the central government had the chance of strengthening her authority in the provinces distant from the coast.²¹ These initiatives causing local reactions in Tripoli are interpreted as the first intervention from outside by some researchers²².

With the Fazzan (Fizan in Turkish) Sanjak located on the south of the country, Tripoli was reminded as a "Saharan Siberia" for political exiles in the period of Abdülhamid II.²³ Tripoli was expanding of an area of 1.033.400²⁴km² with a population of 1.000.000 inhabitants, mostly living on the coastal regions of the country and comprised of Arabs and Berbers.²⁵

Despite having vast land and human resources, Tripoli lost her military and economic significance for the Ottoman Empire due to the developments on steamships and the end of piracy age on the Mediterranean²⁶. From the table below the economic relations of the state with the central government can be inferred in terms of revenue gathered from Tripoli and the allotment from the central budget:²⁷

19 Lisa Anderson, "Nineteenth-Century Reform in Ottoman Libya", *International Journal of Middle East Studies*, Vol.16, No.3 (3 Agu., 1984), p. 327.

20 Enver Ziya Karal, *Osmanlı Tarihi VIII. Cilt (Birinci Meşrutiyet ve İstibdat Devirleri (1876-1907))*, 3. Baskı, Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi, Ankara, 1988, p. 340; Şivgin, *ibid.*, pp. 1, 7.

21 Karal, *Osmanlı Tarihi IX*, pp. 256-257.

22 John Wright, *Libya: A Modern History*, Croom Helm, London&Camberra, 1981, p. 11.

23 Cami Baykurt, *Son Osmanlı Afrikası'nda Hayat (Çöl İnsanları, Sürgünler ve Jön Türkler)*, Hazırlayan: Arı İnan, Türkiye İş Bankası Kültür Yayınları, İstanbul, 2009, p. 11; Anderson, *ibid.*, pp. 325-326.

24 Ertuna, *ibid.*, p. 18.

25 Aydemir, *ibid.*, p. 216; Ertuna, *ibid.*, p. 39.

26 Aydemir, *ibid.*, p. 215.

27 Muharrem Öztel, "Osmanlı Devleti'nde Sosyoekonomik Yapısıyla Öne Çıkan Vilayet ve Sancakların Kamu Maliyesindeki Yeri ve Önemi (1325-1327/1909-1912)", *Maliye Dergisi*, Sayı 160, Ocak -Haziran 2011, pp. 224, 226.

Fiscal Year	Revenue (<i>kuruş</i>)	%	Allotment (<i>kuruş</i>)	Central Budget Rate %
1909-1910	31.949.775	1,19	17.014.093	0,61
1910-1911	20.958.399	0,73	22.071.908	0,65
1911-1912	No income	-	Not applicable	Not applicable

Just like the other countries on the North Africa, social and economic life was full of hardship to the common people despite the comfortable life of the privileged ones.²⁸ Products of the peasant farmers were barely enough for self-consumption.²⁹ Earning more than the amount of money enough to cover the daily expenses of life was considered disgraceful in Tripoli. For this reason nobody could have imagined grain trade or rehabilitation of the wild olive trees in the forests. The people living outside the city were simply covering their bodies with a piece of coarse cloth called ihram. Their main course of meal was made up of barley, olive oil and oca. Tripoli's main trade partner was the Europe. Salt, olive oil, leather were the major exports of the country. Besides Tripoli was serving like free trade zone for the ostrich, ivory and some other products coming from Sudan and heading towards Europe.³⁰

The industry, concentrated on the city of Tripoli and dominated by Italians, was composed of five sectors.³¹ They were textile, wickerwork, leather works, soap manufacturing and some other enterprises. Actually the production lines and factories in Tripoli were very limited. There were four steam engines to compress fibre, an ice factory and four flour plants.³²

During the long lasting reign of Abdulhamid II, there was not even a dime of investment from the central budget to Tripoli. For this reason construction, transportation, cultural and health care facilities were unavailable. The defence of Tripoli was also left to the mercy of the God. Such a location, abandoned to her fate and dynamism, was appeal to foreign ambitions.³³ The Ottoman's neglect of the region was consistently exaggerated and abused by the western powers in order to prepare the western public opinion for the future interventions of Italian for the land which had been promised to Italy in the Berlin Congress.³⁴

28 Şıvgın, *ibid.*, p. 53.

29 Karal, *Osmanlı Tarihi IX*, p. 255.

30 *İbid.*, p. 256.

31 Yusuf Hikmet Bayur, *Türk İnkılap Tarihi II/1 (Trablusgarp ve Balkan Savaşları Osmanlı Asyasının Paylaşılması için Anlaşmalar-1911 başından Balkan Savaşı'na Kadar)*, Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi, Ankara, 1983, p. 78.

32 Ertuna, *ibid.*, p. 27.

33 Aydemir, *ibid.*, p. 216.

34 "The European insistence on the Ottoman neglect of the province was, however, exaggerated and self-serving.", Anderson, *ibid.*, p. 344; Karal, *Osmanlı Tarihi IX*, p. 257; Şıvgın, *ibid.*, p. 13.

The Italian-Turkish War (1911-1912)

Upon completing her unity, Italy recognized that her development and taking part in the European policy were dependent solely on taking the possessions of colonies. Searching for a land for growing population, raw material and market for developing industry, Italy was forced to consent to Tripoli which was secretly proposed in the Congress of Berlin in 1878, after the France's conquest of Tunisia in 1881 and British occupation of Egypt and Cyprus in 1882 and 1887 respectively.³⁵ Moreover as Italian fourth shore Tripoli, stuck between French Tunisia and British Egypt, gained strategic importance lest she could be occupied by either France or England³⁶. For this reason "Italian policy towards Turkey, the real spur to Italian action was bound to neither internal nor local events, nor even to Italy's particular relationship with Turkey. It came, rather, from Italy's position with regard to the other Great Powers."³⁷

The principle of "effective occupation"³⁸ established in 1885 at the end of Berlin Congress in order to possess colony in Africa speeded up Italian preparations for making move on Tripoli and creating excuses to legitimate her demands.

To enable smooth capture of Tripoli and to avoid bloodshed, Italy primarily utilized economic, religious and educational instruments.³⁹ In addition to trying to curb the ties between Tripoli and the Sublime Porte, Italians struggled to influence the Sublime Porte in her choice of new governor and commander to Tripoli⁴⁰. For this reason Italians had the Sublime Porte replace the governor and commander of Tripoli Müşir İbrahim Pasha with Namık Bey who was famous for his incompetence.⁴¹

Despite determined objections of İbrahim Pasha, troops up to a division stationed at Tripoli were ferried to Yemen to suppress the insurrection flared in 1910.⁴² Therefore the amount of troops in Tripoli was decreased to a level just enough to maintain law and order. Although the weapons in warehouses were outdated and supposed to be used by the militia, Tripoli was virtually discharged by the shipment of the weapons to Istanbul for refurbishment.⁴³

35 Karal, *Osmanlı Tarihi VIII*, p. 78; Esenyel, *ibid.*, p. 9-11; "Italy had long been considering Libya as a promised land for herself.", Aydemir, *ibid.*, p. 216, 217-218; Ertuna, *ibid.*, p. 116; Üçok, *ibid.*, p. 277; The Ottoman loss on the North Africa in square kilometer: 505.769 km² Algeria to France, 167.400 km² Tunisia to France, 994.300 km² Egypt to England, 1.033.400 km² Tripoli to Italy. Total loss 2.700.879 km²., H. Cemal, *Tekrar Başımıza Gelenler*, Osmanlıca aslından çeviren, Murat Çulcu, Kastaş A. Ş. Yayınları, İstanbul, 1991, p. 274.

36 Karal, *Osmanlı Tarihi IX*, pp. 260-261; Şıvgın, *ibid.*, pp. 3-4; Üçok, *ibid.*, p. 276.

37 Bosworth, *ibid.*, p. 56.

38 Armaoğlu, *ibid.*, pp. 84-85.

39 Bayur, *ibid.*, p. 78; Karal, *Osmanlı Tarihi IX*, pp. 264-265.

40 Aydemir, *ibid.*, p. 219.

41 Baykurt, *ibid.*, p. 38.

42 Number of troops left in Tripoli was 1.700. , İbrahim Artuç, *Balkan Savaşı*, Kastaş A.Ş. Yayınları, Birinci Baskı, İstanbul, Kasım 1988, pp. 56-58; Şıvgın, *ibid.*, pp. 8-9, 52.

43 Aydemir, *ibid.*, p. 219.

Italy declared war on 29 September 1911 pledging civilization to Tripoli, without waiting the answer to her ultimatum from the Sublime Porte.⁴⁴ While struggling with domestic problems since the declaration of Constitutional Monarch and isolated diplomatically by Italian international agreements the Ottoman Empire was caught unprepared to this war declaration.⁴⁵ Italy started invasion by landing troops to the city of Tripoli. She expanded her invasion by the successive landings to Khoms, Derna and Benghazi on October 3rd, 11th and 21th respectively⁴⁶.

On the contrary to Karal's two phased evaluation, Italians assessed the Turko-Italian war as three phases which are;

The first occupation (October, 1911),

The establishment of bases (until March, 1912),

The intensification of the war in Libya and the Aegean Sea(from April, 19 12, to the conclusion of hostilities).⁴⁷

Particularly on the second phase of the Ottoman reign in Tripoli, "the Sublime Porte had managed to create some embryonic bureaucratic and military structures, and, willy-nilly, had brought some geographical unity to the country. Her policy allowing the Sanusiyya to act in a semi-autonomous fashion created a regional focus of leadership within Cyrenaica that would prove important for the country's future during the colonial period and at independence."⁴⁸

Despite the negative impact of Banco di Roma, the limited Ottoman investments in Libya fostered the development of the national bourgeoisie.⁴⁹ The development of these groups was useful and played an active role in the resistance against the Italians. In practice, the conflict between the Ottomans and Italians lasted until 1917. As their homeland was occupied by the Christians, Libyans kept the resistance for 20 years.⁵⁰ Therefore, the Italians in Libya could barely have established peace and order in 1932.⁵¹

44 Tanin, 29 September 1911, p. 1; 30 September 1911, p. 1; 1 October 1911, s. 1.

45 Bayur, *ibid.*, pp. 58-59; Nihat Erim, *Devletlerarası Hukuku ve Siyasi Tarih Metinleri I*, Ankara Üniversitesi Hukuk Fakültesi, Ankara, 1953, p. 448; Karal, *Osmanlı Tarihi IX*, pp. 261-262, 264-265.

46 Üçok, *ibid.*, pp. 276-278; Mevlüt Çelebi, *Milli Mücadele Döneminde Türk-İtalyan İlişkileri*, Atatürk Araştırma Merkezi Yayınları, Ankara, 2002, pp. 1-2; Şıvgın, *ibid.*, p. 4; Fehmi Özatalay, *Türk Silahlı Kuvvetleri Tarihi Balkan Harbi Garp Ordusu Karadağ Cephesi, III ncü Cilt 3 ncü Kısım*, Genelkurmay Basımevi, İkinci Baskı, Ankara, 1993, p. 7.

47 Renato Tittoni, *The Italo-Turkish War (1911-1912)*, Franklin Hudson Publishing Company, Kansas City, 1914, p. 25; Karal, *Osmanlı Tarihi IX*, p. 281.

48 Dirk J. Vandewalle, *A History of Modern Libya*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 2006, p. 22.

49 *Ibid.*, p. 23; Anderson, *ibid.*, pp. 326, 336; Özcan Mert, "Osmanlı Belgelerine Göre Banco di Roma'nın Trablusgarp'daki Faaliyetleri", *Belleten*, C. LI/200 (Agu. 1987), pp. 832-847.

50 Wright, *ibid.*, p. 28.

51 Şıvgın, *ibid.*, p. 141; Vandewalle, *ibid.*, pp. 16-22.

Notwithstanding the naval supremacy, Italian army could not find opportunity to move inwards from the coast.⁵² Due to the extraordinary resistance of local volunteers under the command of Turkish officers namely Mustafa Kemal and Enver Bey who had been appointed by the Ottoman Parliament⁵³, Italians were confined to the coastal region.⁵⁴ Confinement of the Italian army to the coastal region, called a halt to the evaluation of war as a “military excursion”⁵⁵. In order to break the deadlock, Italians first annexed Libya then expanded the war to the Mediterranean, Aegean and the Dardanelles.⁵⁶ By taking measures mentioned above, Italy aimed to force the Sublime Porte to make peace. So that Italy would be able to decrease the increasing cost of war⁵⁷ and protect her local and worldwide public image. On the pretext of controlling the military shipping via the Aegean Sea, Italy occupied Rhodes and Dodecanese Islands, attacked Dardanelles and kept a large fleet afloat on the exit of the Straits.⁵⁸

After the bombardment of Dardanelles, Italian navy exercised in the open sea off Cape Teke, the fleet was afloat in the vicinity of Donkey Islands. The weak Ottoman fleet neglected during period of the Abdulhamid II⁵⁹ retreated to Maydos as Italian Navy cruised up to the middle of the Dardanelles and sailed back. Thus the Ottoman Navy was confined in the Northern exit of Dardanelles which lasted until the early phase of the Balkan Wars⁶⁰. The Greek Navy enjoyed the confinement of the Ottoman Navy in the Marmara Sea by preventing the Ottoman military naval shipment in the Aegean Sea and occupying the East Aegean Islands easily⁶¹.

Comprehending of the stalemate in the battlefield, Turkish blockage of Dardanelles for all the ships, increasing local and international reactions to the invasion of Tripoli and increasing financial burden on economy forced Italy to make demarche to the Great Powers for a reasonable agreement.⁶²

“The war was vastly more expensive to Italy than to Turkey, and the latter evidently relied upon the probability of the Italians becoming exhausted

52 Esenyel, *ibid.*, pp. 27-28.

53 MMZC 20 Nisan 1328(1912), II. Devre, 1. Sene, 4. İçtima, C: 1, p. 31.

54 *Tanin*, 27 October 1911, p. 3; *Askeri Tarih Belgeleri Dergisi*, Yıl 59/Sayı 125, Genelkurmay Basımevi, Ankara, Haziran 2010, pp. 22-24.

55 Aydemir, *ibid.*, p. 220.

56 Italian shelling of Beirut killed 200 citizens and wounded 50., MMZC 21 Temmuz 1328(1912), II. Devre, 1. Sene, 46. İçtima, C: 2, p. 621.

57 Paul S. Reinsch, “Diplomatic Affairs and International Law, 1912”, *The American Political Science Review*, VII/1 (Feb. 1913), p. 65.

58 MMZC 26 Nisan 1328(1912), II. Devre, 1. Sene, 3. İçtima, C: 1, p. 17; Erim, *ibid.*, p. 449; Uçarol, *ibid.*, pp. 427-429; İsrail Kurtcephe, “İtalyan Donanması'nın Çanakkale Boğazını Geçme Teşebbüsleri”, *OTAM Dergisi*, Sayı:1, 1990, p. 306.

59 Şıvgın, *ibid.*, p. 46.

60 “İtalyan Donanmasının Bahri Sefid Boğazına Taarruzu”, *Ordu ve Donanma*, 1 Cilt, sayı 5, Temmuz 1328, p. 344; *Tanin*, 2 October 1911, p. 1.

61 Karal, *Osmanlı Tarihi* IX, p. 263.

62 Uçarol, *ibid.*, p. 429.

before they could decisively make good their position in Tripoli. The naval action indeed worried the Turkish government not a little, and yet it was felt that, should the Italians actually carry the war into the more central Turkish dominions, they would find it a very serious undertaking. On the other hand, the reconquest of Tripoli by Turkey was rendered difficult, if not impossible, by the sea power of the Italians...

But immediately after the second half of the year had begun, another danger dawned upon Turkey in the form of the pressing demands of the Balkan states. This rendered the Porte somewhat more inclined to consider Italian proposals.⁶³

The situation of the Ottoman Empire was no better. Her navy in the Mediterranean was mostly worn out, Dodecanese Islands were invaded, Dardanelles was endangered, communication lines between central government and provinces from sea had been cut off, last but not least the internal upheavals and political tension in the parliament had increased. Along with the political crisis, the Ottoman Army got politicized and the economy came to a dead-end.⁶⁴ While the Sublime Porte was living her solitude in the diplomatic arena, Balkan Nations wanted to take the advantage of her hardships and restless situation. The preparations of Balkan Nations to take action in the appropriate time surged the Balkan Peninsula into turmoil. For this reason the Ottoman Empire was in a state of mind requesting peace.⁶⁵

Eventually the Tripoli War was terminated by the signature of the Ouchy Agreement on 18 October 1912 by the loss of last strip of land on the North Africa for the Ottoman Empire. Italy retained Rhodes and Dodecanese Islands in order to guarantee the evacuation of Ottoman officers from Tripoli. Another excuse of the retention of islands was the possible Greek threat against Islands.⁶⁶ Thus, the Ottoman Empire not only lost the territories but also the remnants of her illusion of military, economic and political power.⁶⁷

The Impacts on the Balkan Wars

According to Reinsch, "the dominant fact in foreign affairs in the year 1912 was the existence of the wars against Turkey. Turkey in Europe, and the entire Balkan region, had long been looked upon as the powder barrel of Europe. Anxiety concerning the future of this region had become a constant fear

63 Reinsch, *ibid.*, p. 65; In 1913 with \$50 millions, Italy was the sixth nation on naval expenditures. As Italy had been at war her new military constructional and armament expenditures were not available. Dennis, *ibid.*, p. 36.

64 Şivgin, *ibid.*, p. 49.

65 Uçarol, *ibid.*, p. 429.

66 Sertaç Hami Başeren, *Ege Sorunları, Türk Deniz Araştırmaları Vakfı, İstanbul, 2003*, pp. 25-28; Tanin, 1 January 1912, p. 2.

67 Üçok, *ibid.*, p. 278; Uçarol, *ibid.*, pp. 429-431.

in European diplomacy, and although scares were of frequent occurrence, the nerves of Europe did not seem to get accustomed to them.⁶⁸ The situation was an early indication of the First World War in Europe. Every conflict and crisis was considered as a possible trigger of imminent war in the continent.⁶⁹ Just like the invasion of Morocco by France triggering Italian occupation to Tripoli and Cyrenaica (Libya)⁷⁰, the latter triggered also the Balkan Wars. However hard the European Powers tried, they could barely localize the Tripoli War. Evaluated as the pioneer of the attacks to terminate the Ottoman Empire and exterminate Turks in Europe,⁷¹ the war between Italy and the Ottoman Empire induced Balkan Wars.⁷²

Another important outcome of the Ottoman-Italian War was the establishment of the Balkan League, which had not been formed for many years. Main purpose of the alliance was to take the advantage of the situation at which the Ottoman Empire was in. The league was established to prevent the influence of The Austro-Hungarian Empire on the region and impede her any land gaining from the Ottoman territory. The struggle to keep the Italians, who were trying to expand the Tripoli War and grasp some share from Ottoman Europe, out of the region, was also another primary aim of the league. Eventually the league started war against the Ottoman Empire.⁷³

Considered Albania and the Eastern Adriatic coast as her natural settlement areas and Adriatic Sea as her inland sea, Italy by utilizing all the instruments including mass media, conspired Balkan states against the Ottoman Empire. Her conspirations had enormous effects on the declaration of the Balkan Wars by the league. The process of the unification of Italy set an example to the Balkan Nations on their demands of independence and territorial expansions. Italian mass media was encouraging the Balkan Nations against the Ottomans and Habsburgs in Austria by establishing similarity between Italian Unification and their independence endeavours. Moreover Italians were backing up the local insurgents by financing their material and weapon procurements.⁷⁴

68 Reinsch, *ibid.*, p. 63.

69 *Ibid.*

70 Craig, *ibid.*, p. 443; Uçarol, *ibid.*, pp. 381-382; Üçok, *ibid.*, pp. 238-239.

71 Ertuna, *ibid.*, p. 467.

72 Reinsch, *ibid.*, p. 63; Şıvgın, *ibid.*, p. 28.

73 Esenyel, *ibid.*, pp. 50-51; Karal, *Osmanlı Tarihi IX*, pp. 287-295; İsrail Kurtcephe, *Türk-İtalyan İlişkileri (1911-1916)*, Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi, Ankara, 1995, p. 67; Craig, *ibid.*, p. 443; Stefanos Yerasimos, *Milliyetler ve Sınırlar (Balkanlar, Kafkasya ve Ortadoğu)*, İletişim Yayınları, 2. Baskı, İstanbul, 1995, pp. 67-70; Erım, *ibid.*, p. 449; Hale Şıvgın, "Osmanlı Arşiv Belgeleriyle 1902-1912 Yıllarında Makedonya", *Hacı Bektaş Velî Dergisi* Yıl: 2007, Sayı: 43, p. 87; I.E. Gueshoff, *The Balkan League*, London, 1915, pp. 37-38; Alfred L. P. Dennis, "Diplomatic Affairs and International Law, 1913", *The American Political Review*, Vol. 8, No.1 (Feb., 1914), p. 28; Bayur, *ibid.*, pp. 226-228.

74 Özatalay, *ibid.*, p. 7; Ertuna, *ibid.*, p. 414; Bosworth, *ibid.*, p. 54; Şıvgın, *Trablusgarp Savaşı...*, p. 142.

The invasion of Tripoli by Italy, while deeply damaging internal political stability of the Ottoman Empire, aggravated her international loneliness in the diplomatic field.⁷⁵ The Italian Parliament's positive supports to the Italian government on the operations in Tripoli were cited as good examples in discussions of the Ottoman Parliament.⁷⁶

Flared up during this period, the internal political controversies inflicted the Ottoman army adversely. Political controversies in the army affected the morale and motivation and reduced the perseverance and willingness to fight in the Balkan Wars.⁷⁷ However the Turkish officers, despising the enemies, were sure of the victory of the Ottoman Army in a forthcoming battle in the Balkans. The overconfidence led the preparations to frivolity and caused the military elites' misjudgement of the battlefield as an opportunity to demonstrate new military skills and weapons.⁷⁸ Under the impression of Tripoli War, none of the members of the Great Powers could predict such a hasty and definite defeat of the Ottomans. The heroic clashes in Tripoli and stalemate of the 100.000 Italian troops of with the support of most mighty navy concealed the depth of the corrosion in the Ottoman Army. If such a defeat of the Ottomans had been anticipated, Austria and Germany could have implemented some measures before the Balkan Wars broke out.⁷⁹

Like the shipment of the soldiers from Tripoli to Yemen, as precaution the military units in Balkan Peninsula were deployed to the locations where the Italian interventions were expected. Along with the units, weapons and military equipments were relocated to the critical areas where Italian landings were expected namely Izmir and Dardanelles.⁸⁰

"The Italian Chief of the General Staff, Alberto Pollio, decided, at the end of June, that drastic measures were called for. In a remarkable *pro memoria*, he suggested that now was the time for Italy to engage in total war against Turkey and simply to dismantle the Ottoman Empire. An Italian force, landed at Smyrna, would provide the military muscle, but Italy should also excite the

75 Tüccarzade İbrahim Hilmi, *Balkan Harbinde Neden Münhezim Olduk*, Kütüphane-i İslam ve Askeri, İstanbul, 1329, pp. 22, 28-29; Kurtcephe, *Türk-İtalyan İlişkileri...*, p. 261; İsrail Kurtcephe, "Osmanlı Parlamentosu ve Türk İtalyan Savaşı (1911-1912)", *OTAM Dergisi*, Sayı: 4, 1993, pp. 257-258.

76 MMZC 27 Haziran 1328(1912), II. Devre, 1. Sene, 30. İçtima, C: 2, p. 205.

77 Mahmut Muhtar Paşa, "Ruzname-i Harp (Balkan Savaşı Günlüğü), Üçüncü Kolordu ve İkinci Şark Ordusunun Muhaberati", *Rumeli'yi Neden Kaybettik*, Örgün, İstanbul, 2007, p. 193-195; Ertuna, *ibid.*, p. 98; Gustov von Hochwächter, *Balkan Savaşı Günlüğü "Türklerle Cephe"*, Çeviren: Sumru Toydemir, Türkiye İş Bankası Kültür Yayınları, 2. Baskı, İstanbul, 2009, pp. xvii-xxix.

78 *İbid.*, pp. 3-4; Georges Remond, *Mağluplarla Beraber (Bir Fransız Gazetecinin Balkan Savaşı İzlenimleri)*, Osmanlıcaya çeviren: Hasan Cevdet, Hazırlayan: Muammer Sarıkaya, Profil Yayıncılık, İstanbul, 2007, pp. 15-23; Stephane Lauzanne, *Balkan Acıları*, Kastaş A.Ş. Yayınları, İstanbul, 1990, p. 13.

79 Bayur, *ibid.*, p. 312.

80 Gueshoff, *ibid.*, p. 41.

Christian people of the Balkans to rise and expel Turkey from Europe. 'The Eastern Question', he argued, had 'lasted for centuries'. It was Italy's task to cut the Gordian knot and to ensure that the collapse of Turkey, which was certain in the immediate future in any case, would happen now at the moment of greatest advantage to Italy.⁸¹

The Ottoman Empire was making preparations for such plots. For example: Şirket-i Hayriye was taking part in the exercises by shipping the units and equipments in order to develop the counter measures of the Ottoman Army for the contingent invasion of the Dardanelles.⁸² Deployment of well trained and equipped railway units to the various critical areas was another example.⁸³

Redeployment of these units to the Balkan battlefields was imposing unbearable burden on the Ottoman Government. It required more time, energy, money, assets and infrastructures. Excessive usage of these resources caused malfunctions on the redeployment.⁸⁴ For this reason "some soldiers remained in north Africa in the aftermath of the war against the Italians. While the Ottoman high commandants drawing upon these Asian forces to obtain decisive numbers in a war against the Balkan states, they still faced the immense difficulties of gathering these soldiers from the remote corners of the empire and transporting them to the European battlefields."⁸⁵

Due to the Tripoli War the financial burden and political pressures on the Ottoman Government increased on the eve of the Balkan Wars. For the mitigation of the financial burden, the Sublime Porte was forced to disband 120.000 fully trained troops, who were summoned back later.⁸⁶ Therefore, a very great confusion and chaos prevailed. Improper time management and disorder of transportation assets involved in the shipment caused wastage. Even the remobilized veterans could not have been transported to their original units.⁸⁷

The economic and military inability of the Ottoman Empire and the exposure of the weakness of her navy caused the consideration of an exceptional opportunity by the nations of the Balkan League, particularly Greece whose navy was relatively more powerful than the Ottomans' in the Aegean Sea.⁸⁸

81 Bosworth, *ibid.*, p. 60.

82 *Şirket-i Hayriye Tarihçe, Salname*, Ahmet İhsan Şirketi (Matbaacılık Osmanlı Şirketi), İstanbul, 1330 (1914), p. 31.

83 ATASE Arşivi Kls. 2, Dos. 6, Fih. 001-01.

84 ATASE Arşivi; Kls. 17, Dos. 26, Fih. 7-9.

85 Richard C. Hall, *The Balkan Wars 1912-1913 Prelude to the First World War*, Taylor & Francis e-Library, 2002, p. 19; Richard C. Hall, *Balkan Savaşları (1912-1913 I. Dünya Savaşı'nın Provası)*, Çeviren: Tanju Akad, Homer Kitabevi ve Yayıncılık, I. Basım, İstanbul, 2003, pp. 25-26.

86 Fevzi Çakmak, *Batı Rumeli'yi Nasıl Kaybettik*, Yayına Hazırlayan: Ahmet Tetik, Türkiye İş Bankası Kültür Yayınları, İstanbul, 2011, pp. 13, 16, 86; Kurtcephe, *Türk-İtalyan İlişkileri...*, pp. 261-262.

87 Mehmet Ali Nüzhet, *1912 Balkan Harbinde Sevkiyat ve Nakliyatı Askeriye*, Yeni Turan Matbaası, İstanbul, 1332, p. 10; Çakmak, *ibid.*, p. 13.

88 Reinsch, *ibid.*, p. 67; Merle T. Cole, "Turkish Coast Defenses on the Eve of the Great War", *Coast Defense Study Group (CDSG) Newsletter*, May 2010, p. 4; Üçok, *ibid.*, p. 278; Afif

Gueshoff observed the situation as follows: “What reason had we for being over-punctilious with an Empire already exhausted by the war with Italy, torn by internal feuds, with an undisciplined army and an empty treasury?⁸⁹”

Bulgarian employment of Italian mentors in the army and speeding up the deployment of their troops to the borders conjured up Bulgarian assault to the Ottomans in favour of the Italians. Thus on understanding the Balkan Nations to take the advantage of the situation⁹⁰, the Ottomans “rushed to conclude peace with Italy. The Treaty of Ouchy ending the war was signed near Lausanne, Switzerland, on 15 October.⁹¹” But it was too late for the Sublime Porte since the nations had already started taking the actions against the Ottoman Empire. Moreover 800 Italian volunteers under the Italian General Garibaldi fought against the Ottomans with the Greek army until September 1912.⁹²

According to Tüccarzade İbrahim Hilmi the reasons forcing the Ottomans to make peace were:

Scattered in vast geography, soldiers remained useless,
Hardship on financing the battle.

As an Italian ally, German reluctance on supplying weapon and ammunition to the Ottomans.

He also thinks that the Ottomans lost the Balkans while trying to save the Tripoli. Furthermore the war with Italy caused disasters and destruction.⁹³

Büyüktuğrul, *Türk Silahlı Kuvvetleri Tarihi Balkan Harbi VII. Cilt Osmanlı Deniz Harekatı (1912-1913)*, Genelkurmay Basımevi, İkinci Baskı, Ankara, 1993, pp. 13, 34-36, 51, 56; *Dokuzuncu Askerî Tarih Semineri Bildirileri II*, Genelkurmay Basım Evi, Ankara, 2006, p. 38; Ertuna, *ibid.*, p. 467; Kurtcephe, *Türk-İtalyan İlişkileri...*, pp. 215-216; Büyüktuğrul, *ibid.*, pp.34-36; Reşat Hallı, *Türk Silahlı Kuvvetleri Tarihi Balkan Harbi (1912-1913) I. Cilt, Harbin Sebepleri, Askerî Hazırlıklar ve Osmanlı Devleti'nin Harbe Girişi*, Genelkurmay Basımevi, İkinci Baskı, Ankara, 1993, p. 183; Necdet Hayta, “Balkan Savaşları Sırasında Ege Adaları Sorunu”, *Dokuzuncu Askerî Tarih Semineri Bildirileri II*, p. 259; Bülent Durgun, “Ülke Savunmasında Deniz Yolu Ulaşımının Önemine Bir Örnek: Balkan Harbi'nde Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'nun Deniz Yolu”, *Güvenlik Stratejileri Dergisi*, Aralık/December 2011, Yıl/Year 7, Sayı/Issue 14, pp. 146-150

89 Gueshoff, *ibid.*, p. 49; *Report of the International Commission to Inquire in to the Causes and Conduct of Balkan Wars*, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace Division of Intercourse and Education, Washington D.C., 1914, p. 43; Şıvgın, *Trablusgarp Savaşı...*, p. 29-30.

90 Kurtcephe, *Türk-İtalyan İlişkileri...*, p. 68; Şıvgın, *Trablusgarp Savaşı...*, pp. 31, 141-142.

91 Hall, *The Balkan Wars...*, p. 56.

92 Philip S. Jowett, *Balkan Harplerinde Ordular 1912-1913*, İllüstrasyonlar: Stephen Walsh, Çeviren: Emir Yener, Türkiye İş Bankası Kültür Yayınları, İstanbul, 2012, p. 21; “the main Greek force, supplemented by a corps of foreign volunteers under the Italian General Ricciotti Garibaldi, the son of Giuseppe, advanced toward the Ottoman stronghold of Janina (Greek, Ioannina; Turkish, Yanya). General Garibaldi had led a similar corps on behalf of the Greeks in the war of 1897.”, Hall, *The Balkan Wars...*, p. 63.

93 Tüccarzade İbrahim Hilmi, *ibid.*, pp. 9-13.

Conclusion

Completion of Italian and German respective unification in the second half of 19th century emerged alternative powers for the Ottoman Empire to utilise against England and France for the balance of diplomacy. The Sublime Porte gained this option on the expense of giving the Italian's share of interest.

Italy, the weakest of the Great Powers, was trying to realize the opportunities offered to her by the others, instead of determining her interests independently. The intervening of Italian to Libya made Italy the trigger of partition of the Ottoman Empire.

Libya had long been promised to Italy. Italians considered Libya important from the economic, political and strategic point of view. As she had been late for the colonial rivalry her interests on the African continent were clamped on just a limited area, one of which was Libya. However, the most significant reason of Italian invasion of Libya was her aspiration of power in the policy making process of Great Powers.

The Ottoman Empire was mainly considering Tripoli as a land of exile on the account of her poverty. Just like the neighbouring ex-Ottoman countries of North Africa, Libya had long been neglected. The endeavours to link the political and economic systems of Tripoli with central Ottoman Government did not make much progress on the miserable situation of the common people. The new regime of Young Turks, trying to oppose the Italian entity in Libya made a big mistake by pulling the military units and materials out of the country, which made mainland vulnerable for an attack. Appointment of untalented governors also encouraged Italians to mingle with Tripoli. Eventually the neglect of Tripoli, exaggerated by the Europeans, was the main reason of Italian's invasion.

Italian attempts of peaceful penetration by using the Bank of Rome to Tripoli, followed by a military invasion on September 29. The timing of the occupation was at a time when France and England's main concern was German policy on Morocco and Congo, conditions of Persia was considered as Russian interest and the Ottoman Empire was having domestic uprisings. The three phased battle was not as simple as Italy considered at the beginning.

By defending Tripoli, the Ottoman Empire was aiming not only strengthening the Turkish nationalism in the country but also trying to make a powerful image to keep her interests in the Eastern Mediterranean and Balkans. But the situation did not develop as the Young Turks predicted. The war on Tripoli exposed the chain of mistakes of political, military and economic despair of the Sublime Porte to the publicity of world. Willing to take advantage of this despair situation of the Ottoman Empire, Balkan states took the action ending up with an alliance against her under the Russian inspiration.

However rest of the Europe tried hard to limit the war between the Ottoman and Italy in Tripoli, Italy made efforts to extend the war into the Balkan Peninsula by supporting Balkan states to force the Ottoman Empire obey the terms of peace. Along with the Russian inspirations, the War of Tripoli facilitated the formation of the Balkan League and triggered the Balkan Wars.

Following the termination of the war by the Ouchy Agreement, the Ottoman Empire lost Tripoli and Cyrenaica along with Rhodes and Dodecanese Islands. During this war the exhausted Ottoman Empire consumed all the human, military, economic, tangible and intangible resources she had. To take the advantage of her exhausted situation the united Balkan League nations launched an attack on the Ottoman Empire which caused the loss of the Ottoman Europe and the Eastern Aegean Islands. To conclude, it would not be wrong to infer that The Ottoman-Italian War triggered the Balkan Wars, both of which erased the Turkish entity from the North Africa, Balkans and Aegean Islands while depriving the power of the Sublime Port to defend her interests on the Eastern Mediterranean.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

I. Archive Documents

Turkish General Staff ATASE Archive Balkan War Collection

ATASE Arşivi Kls. 2, Dos.6, Fih.001-01.

ATASE Arşivi; Kls. 17, Dos.26, Fih.7-9.

Official Publications

Meclisi Mebusan Zabıt Cerideleri

MMZC 26 Nisan 1328 (1912), II.Devre, 1.Sene, 3. İçtima, C: 1, s. 17.

MMZC 20 Nisan 1328(1912), II.Devre, 1.Sene, 4. İçtima, C: 1, s. 31.

MMZC 21 Temmuz 1328(1912), II.Devre, 1.Sene, 46. İçtima, C: 2, s. 621.

Report of International Commission

Report of the International Commission to Inquire into the Causes and Conduct of Balkan Wars, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace Division of Intercourse and Education, Washington D.C., 1914.

II. Reference Works & Studies

ANDERSON, Lisa, "Nineteenth-Century. Reform in Ottoman Libya", *International Journal of Middle East Studies* Vol.16, No.3 (3 Agu., 1984), pp. 325-348.

ARMAOĞLU, Fahir, *20. Yüzyıl Siyasi Tarihi (1914-1990) Cilt I: 1914-1980*, Türkiye İş Bankası Yayınları, Ankara, 1991.

ARTUÇ, İbrahim, *Balkan Savaşı*, Kastaş A.Ş. Yayınları, Birinci Baskı, İstanbul, Kasım 1988.

AYBARS, Pamir "Kapitülasyon Kavramı ve Osmanlı Devleti'ne Etkileri", *Ankara Üniversitesi Hukuk Fakültesi Dergisi*, Cilt: 51, Sayı: 2, Yıl: 2002, pp. 79-119.

AYDEMİR, Şevket Süreyya, *Makedonya'dan Ortaasya'ya Enver Paşa (İkinci Cilt 1908-1914)*, 5. Basım, Remzi Kitabevi, İstanbul, 1993.

BAŞEREN, Sertaç Hami, *Ege Sorunları*, Türk Deniz Araştırmaları Vakfı, İstanbul, 2003.

- BAYKURT, Cami, *Son Osmanlı Afrikası'nda Hayat (Çöl İnsanları, Sürgünler ve Jön Türkler)*, Hazırlayan: Arı İnan, Türkiye İş Bankası Kültür Yayınları, İstanbul, 2009.
- BAYUR, Yusuf Hikmet, *Türk İnkılap Tarihi II/1 (Trablusgarp ve Balkan Savaşları Osmanlı Asyasının Paylaşılması için Anlaşmalar-1911 başından Balkan Savaşı'na Kadar)*, Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi, Ankara, 1983.
- BENİZ, Danyal, "Süveyş Kanalı'nın Önemi", *Ankara Üniversitesi Dil ve Tarih-Coğrafya Fakültesi Dergisi*, Cilt: 9, Sayı: 3, Yıl: 1951, pp. 329-352.
- BOSTAN İ. , Kurumahmut A. , Oğuz M., Övenç A. F. ve Aydın Y. A. *Trablusgarp ve Balkan Savaşlarında İşgal Edilen Ege Adaları ve İşgal Telgrafları*, SAEMK Yayınları, Ankara, 2003.
- BOSWORTH, R. J. B., "Italy and the End of the Ottoman Empire", *The Great Powers and the End of the Ottoman Empire*, Edited by Marian Kent, Frank Cass&Co.Ltd., England and USA, 1996, pp. 51-72.
- BÜYÜKTUĞRUL, Afif, *Türk Silahlı Kuvvetleri Tarihi Balkan Harbi VII. Cilt Osmanlı Deniz Harekatı (1912-1913)*, Genelkurmay Basımevi, İkinci Baskı, Ankara, 1993.
- CARR, E.H. ve J. Fontana, *Tarih Yazımında Nesnellik ve Yanlılık*, Çeviren: Özer Ozankaya, İmge Kitabevi, Ankara, 1992.
- CEMAL, H., *Tekrar Başımıza Gelenler*, Osmanlıca aslından çeviren, Murat Çulcu, Kastaş A. Ş. Yayınları, İstanbul, 1991.
- COLE, Merle T., "Turkish Coast Defenses on the Eve of the Great War", *Coast Defense Study Group (CDSG) Newsletter*, May 2010, p. 4.
- CRAIG, Gordon A., *Europe 1815-1914*, Third Edition, Orlando, USA, 1989.
- ÇAKMAK, Fevzi, *Batı Rumeli'yi Nasıl Kaybettik?*, Yayına Hazırlayan: Ahmet Tetik, Türkiye İş Bankası Kültür Yayınları, İstanbul, 2011
- ÇELEBİ, Mevlüt, *Milli Mücadele Döneminde Türk-İtalyan İlişkileri*, Atatürk Araştırma Merkezi Yayınları, Ankara, 2002.
- DENNIS, Alfred L. P., "Diplomatic Affairs and International Law, 1913", *The American Political Review*, Vol. 8, No.1 (Feb. , 1914), pp. 25-49.
- DUNGAN, Stephen P., "Balkan Diplomacy I", *Political Science Quarterly*, Vol. 32, No. 1 (Mar. , 1917), pp. 36-59.
- DURGUN, Bülent, "Ülke Savunmasında Deniz Yolu Ulaşımının Önemine Bir Örnek: Balkan Harbi'nde Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'nun Deniz Yolu Ulaştırması", *Güvenlik Stratejileri Dergisi*, Aralık 2011, Yıl 7, Sayı 14, pp. 143-167.

- ERİM, Nihat, *Devletlerarası Hukuku ve Siyasi Tarih Metinleri I*, Ankara Üniversitesi Hukuk Fakültesi, Ankara, 1953.
- ERTUNA, Hamdi, *Türk Silahlı Kuvvetleri Tarihi Osmanlı Devri Osmanlı-İtalyan Harbi (1911-1912)*, Gnkur. Basımevi, Ankara, 1981.
- ESENYEL, Ömer, *Balkan Harbinden Günümüze Bakış*, Harp Akademileri Basımevi, İstanbul, 1995.
- GORDON, G. H., "Balkan Problems and Their Solutions", *Advocate of Peace through Justice*, Vol. 84 No. 4 (April 1922), World Affairs Institute, Heldref Publications, pp. 143-146.
- GUESHOFF, I.E., *The Balkan League*, London, 1915.
- HALL, Richard C., *Balkan Savaşları (1912-1913 I. Dünya Savaşı'nın Provası)*, Çeviren: Tanju Akad, Homer Kitabevi ve Yayıncılık, I. Basım, İstanbul, 2003.
- , *The Balkan Wars 1912-1913 Prelude to the First World War*, Taylor & Francis e-Library, 2002.
- HALLI, Reşat, *Türk Silahlı Kuvvetleri Tarihi Balkan Harbi (1912-1913) I. Cilt, Harbin Sebepleri, Askerî Hazırlıklar ve Osmanlı Devleti'nin Harbe Girişi*, Genelkurmay Basımevi, İkinci Baskı, Ankara, 1993.
- HARRİS, Norman Dwight, "The Effect of the Balkan Wars on European Alliances and the Future of the Ottoman Empire", *Proceedings of the American Political Science Association*, Vol. 10, Tenth Annual Meeting (1913), pp. 105-116.
- HAYTA, Necdet, "Balkan Savaşları Sırasında Ege Adaları Sorunu", *Dokuzuncu Askerî Tarih Semineri Bildirileri II*, Genelkurmay Basım Evi, Ankara, 2006, pp. 255-275.
- HOCHWÄCHTER, Gustovvon, *Balkan Savaşı Günlüğü "Türklerle Cephe"*, Çeviren: Sumru Toydemir, Türkiye İş Bankası Kültür Yayınları, İkinci Baskı, İstanbul, 2009.
- "İtalyan Donanmasının Bahri Sefid Boğazına Taarruzu", *Ordu ve Donanma*, 1 Cilt, sayı 5, Temmuz 1328, pp. 338-345.
- JOWETT, Philip S., *Balkan Harplerinde Ordular 1912-1913, İllüstrasyonlar*: Stephen Walsh, Çeviren: Emir Yener, Türkiye İş Bankası Kültür Yayınları, İstanbul, 2012.
- KARAL, Enver Ziya, *Osmanlı Tarihi V. Cilt, Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi, Dördüncü Baskı*, Ankara, 1983.
- , *Osmanlı Tarihi VIII.Cilt (Birinci Meşrutiyet ve İstibdat Devirleri (1876-1907))*, Üçüncü. Baskı, Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi, Ankara, 1988.

- , *Osmanlı Tarihi IX.Cilt (İkinci Meşrutiyet ve Birinci Dünya Savaşı(1908-1918))*, Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi, Ankara, 1996.
- KODAMAN, Bayram, "II. Abdülhamit ve Kürtler-Ermeniler", *SDÜ Fen Edebiyat Fakültesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, Mayıs 2010, Sayı:21, pp.131-138.
- KÖSOĞLU, Nevzat, *Şehit Enver Paşa*, Ötüken Neşriyat, İstanbul, 2008.
- KURMUŞ, Orhan, *Emperyalizmin Türkiye'ye Girişi*, Savaş Yayınları, Üçüncü Baskı, Ankara, 1982.
- KURTCEPHE, İsrail, *Türk-İtalyan İlişkileri (1911-1916)*, Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi, Ankara, 1995.
- , "İtalyan Donanması'nın Çanakkale Boğazını Geçme Teşebbüsleri", *OTAM Dergisi*, Sayı:1, 1990, pp. 299-312.
- , "Osmanlı Parlamentosu ve Türk İtalyan Savaşı (1911-1912)", *OTAM Dergisi*, Sayı: 4, 1993, pp. 235-258.
- LANGER, William L. and Robert P. Blake, "The Rise of the Ottoman Turks and Its Historical Background", *The American Historical Review*, Vol. 37, No. 3 (Apr., 1932), pp. 468-505.
- LAUZANNE, Stephane, *Balkan Acıları*, İstanbul, 1990.
- Mahmut Muhtar Paşa, Fazlı Necip, *Rumeli'yi Neden Kaybettik*, Örgün, İstanbul, 2007.
- MERT, Özcan, "Osmanlı Belgelerine Göre Banco di Roma'nın Trablusgarp'daki Faaliyetleri", *Bellekten*, C. LI/ 200(Agu. 1987), pp. 829-847.
- NÜZHET, Mehmet Ali, *1912 Balkan Harbinde Sevkiyat ve Nakliyatı Askeriye*, Yeni Turan Matbaası, İstanbul, 1332.
- ÖZATALAY, Fehmi, *Türk Silahlı Kuvvetleri Tarihi Balkan Harbi Garp Ordusu Karadağ Cephesi, III ncü Cilt 3 ncü Kısım*, Genelkurmay Basımevi, İkinci Baskı, Ankara, 1993.
- ÖZTEL, Muharrem, "Osmanlı Devleti'nde Sosyoekonomik Yapısıyla Öne Çıkan Vilayet ve Sancakların Kamu Maliyesindeki Yeri ve Önemi (1325-1327/1909-1912)", *Maliye Dergisi*, Sayı 160, Ocak -Haziran 2011, pp. 224, 226.
- REINSCH, Paul S., "Diplomatic Affairs and International Law, 1912", *The American Political Science Review*, VII/1 (Feb. 1913), pp. 63-86.
- REMOND, Georges, *Mağluplarla Beraber (Bir Fransız Gazetecinin Balkan Savaşı İzlenimleri)*, Osmanlıcaya çeviren: Hasan Cevdet, Hazırlayan: Muammer Sarıkaya, Profil Yayıncılık, İstanbul, 2007.
- SANDEMAN, G. A. C., *Metternich*, Brentano's Publications, New York, 1911.

- SEYMOUR, Charles, *The Diplomatic Background of the War 1870-1914*, Yale University Press, Tenth Printing, Yale, 1918.
- Suat Muhtar, "Şark Meselesi", *İstişare*, Cilt 1, Sayı 18, 14 Kanunusani 1324, pp. 840-844.
- SÜKAN, Özer, *21 Yüzyıl Başlarında Balkanlar ve Türkiye*, Harp Akademileri Basımevi, İstanbul, 2001,
- ŞIVGIN, Hale, *Trablusgarp Savaşı ve 1911-1912 Türk-İtalyan İlişkileri*, Atatürk Araştırma Merkezi Yayınları, Ankara, 2006.
- , "Osmanlı Arşiv Belgeleriyle 1902-1912 Yıllarında Makedonya", *Hacı Bektaş Velî Dergisi* Yıl: 2007 Sayı: 43, pp. 81-87.
- Şirket-i Hayriye Tarihçe, Salname*, Ahmet İhsan Şirketi (Matbaacılık Osmanlı Şirketi), İstanbul, 1330 (1914).
- Tanin Gazetesi*.
- TEZEL, Yahya Sezai, *Cumhuriyet Döneminin İktisadi Tarihi*, Tarih Vakfı Yurt Yayınları, Beşinci Baskı, İstanbul, 2002.
- TITTONI, Renato, *The Italo-Turkish War (1911-1912)*, Franklin Hudson Publishing Company, Kansas City, 1914.
- TUNCER, Hüner, *19. Yüzyılda Osmanlı-Avrupa İlişkileri*, Ümit Yayıncılık, Ankara, 2000.
- Tüccarzade İbrahim Hilmi, *Balkan Harbinde Neden Münhezim Olduk?*, Kütüphane-i İslam ve Askeri, İstanbul, 1329.
- UÇAROL, Rifat, *Siyasi Tarih (1789-1999)*, Filiz Kitabevi, Beşinci Baskı, İstanbul, 2000.
- ÜÇOK, Coşkun, *Siyasal Tarih 1789-1950*, 6. Bası, Başnur Matbaası, Ankara, 1967.
- YAVUZ, Celalettin, "Balkan Harbî'nde Osmanlı Donanması Neden Kullanılmadı?", *Dokuzuncu Askerî Tarih Semineri Bildirileri II*, Genelkurmay Basım Evi, Ankara, 2006, pp. 373-397.
- YERASİMOS, Stefanos, *Az gelişmişlik Sürecinde Türkiye I*, Tercüme Eden: Babür Kuzucu, Gözlem Yayınları, 3. Baskı, İstanbul, 1977.
- , *Milliyetler ve Sınırlar (Balkanlar, Kafkasya ve Ortadoğu)*, İletişim Yayınları, 2. Baskı, İstanbul, 1995.
- VANDEWALLE, Dirk J., *A History of Modern Libya*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 2006.
- WRIGHT, John, *Libya: A Modern History*, Croom Helm, London & Canberra, 1981.