

# UTMUN



## THE DEMANDS OF MUHAMMAD ALI PASHA

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## A LETTER FROM YOUR DIRECTOR

Dear Delegates,

It is my highest privilege to be your director for this year's historical Joint Crisis Committee: The Demands of Muhammad Ali Pasha. I am a second-year student at the University of Toronto majoring in Political Science and History, and this will be my first time directing a crisis committee. Nonetheless, I intend to make this conference a fruitful learning experience for the interrelated subjects of military science, diplomacy and statecraft. Managing internal affairs on the homefront, facing a determined enemy on the fields of battle, maintaining popular support at home, overseeing the logistics of a war effort, and propping up strained economies can be a daunting task for even the most experienced statesman or military leader.

This committee is set at a pivotal point in European and Middle Eastern History. In 1821, the Great Powers of Europe contend to ensure a **balance of power** to maintain peace amid the spectre of conflicts over colonial, territorial, and economic interests. The Ottoman Empire, long considered to be the sick man of Europe, wrestles with increasing civil unrest in its outlying **eyalets** in the Balkans, Arabia and North Africa, which threaten to tear the socioeconomic fabric of the empire apart. Now, a new question has arisen in Egypt, where an ambitious **Vali** who has consolidated his power through radical reforms seems to grow increasingly autonomous from the authority of the Imperial Court in Istanbul.

This **Vali** is no other than decorated Ottoman General Muhammad Ali Pasha, who assumed control of the bountiful lands of Egypt in 1805. While some in the Imperial Court believe this venerable soldier to be a loyal servant to the Sultan, proven by his suppression of an Arab uprising, others suspect that Ali is a man of insatiable greed who wants Egypt for himself. What is apparent, however, is that both the Empire and the **Vali** of Egypt could stand to benefit from the quelling of the Greek uprising; the Sultan himself has formally requested the help of Ali to assist in this matter.

The events to follow will test the integrity of the empire. Whether the cabinets choose to co-operate or feud will be determined by you, the delegates. The fate of millions across the Ottoman Empire will rest upon the choices made in these crucial committee sessions. I look forward to seeing your decisions in person.

Most Respectfully,

Steve Zhu

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## GLOSSARY OF TERMS

For ease of reading, the following terms have been bolded wherever they appear in this guide. Please be advised that you may come across these terms in different contexts in your research, where they could have different meanings. For the purposes of both this background guide and the committee, the following definitions will apply.

- **Anatolia**: the plateau which sits between the Mediterranean and Black seas, sometimes referred to as “Asia Minor.” It is the heart of the Ottoman Empire and contains the capital of Istanbul.
- **Balance of Power**: in political theory, this refers to an international system in which some security is achieved by prohibiting individual countries from becoming too powerful. More specifically, the term is applied to the system that was agreed to at the Congress of Vienna in 1815, in order to avoid conflict in Europe.
- **Bey**: a local authority who rules over a small principality, which is typically part of a larger **eyalet**.
- **Byzantine Empire**: this empire consisted of the eastern provinces of the former Roman Empire, including many territories in Asia. It acted as a powerful political and military force, until it was destroyed and effectively replaced by the Ottoman Empire.
- **Eyalet**: an administrative subdivision within the Ottoman Empire, which can be thought of as a province.
- **Hejaz**: a region on the west coast of the Arabian Peninsula. Significantly, it contains the Islamic holy cities of Mecca and Medina as well as several important trade routes.
- **Levant**: a region on the eastern shore of the Mediterranean Sea, extending from the Sinai Peninsula in the southwest, to Syria in the northeast.
- **Mamluks**: the sovereign rulers of Egypt before it became an Ottoman province. After Egypt’s incorporation into the Empire, the Mamluks maintained power as the elite ruling class of the new **elayet**, until they were effectively eliminated by Muhammad Ali Pasha.
- **Millet**: a self-governing, semi-autonomous legal body of a religious minority, which has local authority over members of that religion within the Ottoman Empire.
- **Pasha**: an honorary designation within the Ottoman Empire, bestowed by the Sultan.
- **Porte**: also referred to as the “Sublime Porte” or the “High Porte,” this term denotes the central Ottoman government, and especially its foreign policy arm.
- **Security Dilemma**: in international relations theory, a dilemma that occurs when states take measures to protect their own security, forcing other states to do the same, resulting in an unwanted increase in interstate tensions and conflicts.
- **Vali**: an Ottoman governor, responsible for the administration of an **eyalet**.
- **Viziers**: ministers of the Imperial Council, the Ottoman Empire’s main executive body. Led by the Grand Vizier, they are responsible for advising the Sultan and developing plans of action for various issues.
- **Waqf**: land or property whose assets and revenues are tax-exempt, in order that they may be set aside for charitable or religious usage.

## A BRIEF PROFILE OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

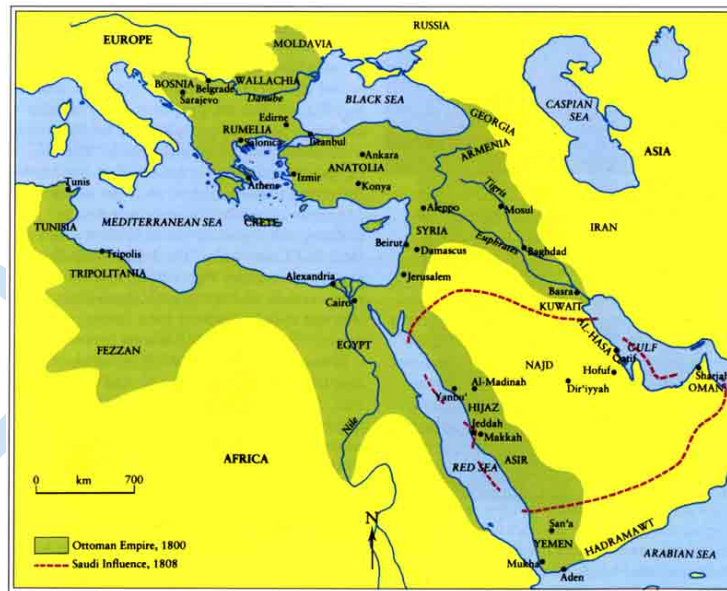
At the height of its power, the Ottoman Empire controlled key territories including the **Hejaz**, Palestine, Arabia, the **Levant** and North Africa in addition to its heartlands in **Anatolia**. These territories held both great riches and strategically important trade routes that linked Europe to Asia and Africa. The Empire provided social, military and scientific innovations that were key to its rapid expansion and accumulation of wealth and territory, and which would shape the world for centuries to come. The empire currently stands weakened from decades of civil unrest in its imperial possessions and intermittent wars with Eastern European rivals, predominantly the Russian Empire, which coveted Ottoman controlled territories.

### GEOGRAPHY OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

The Ottoman Empire in 1800 stretches from Bosnia in the Balkans to Tunisia in North Africa, with Asia minor, rich with the spoils of conquests and the new development of industries, serving as its seat of power. Great cities such as Istanbul, Izmir and Ankara, acting as important cultural and economic centers, are home to millions of Turks and minorities from disparate parts of the Empire. The Ottoman Empire sources its food from two fertile regions: the **Levant**, an area between the Tigris and Euphrates river in present day Iraq, and Egypt, where annual floods of the Nile act as a natural fertilizer. The Balkan territories are largely mountainous, while **Anatolia** features rough terrain across its northern and southern shores and contains the strategically crucial entry into the Black Sea, the Bosphorus strait. The **Levant** is characterized by rolling hills and relatively flat terrain, including the Golan Heights, a key piece of territory connecting Palestine and Syria. North Africa, including Egypt, is connected to the Empire by the relatively flat and dry Sinai Peninsula. Large populations inhabit the Nile River Delta and its floodplains, which snake across the Egyptian Desert. Settlements dot the flat Mediterranean coastlines of Algeria, Tunisia and Libya, which are suitable for farming. The cities of Juba and Khartoum rest further down the Nile in Sudan.

## FOUNDING AND EXPANSION

The Ottoman Empire in 1800



The Ottoman state grew out of the Seljuk Turk Empire in the 1290s and 1300s, which itself formed from the decaying and rebellious Khanates originally established by the Mongols. As the Seljuk Empire fractured into small, militant polities, the Ottomans emerged as a dominant force in the Anatolian peninsula. Capitalizing on their relations with the **Byzantine Empire**, the Ottomans increased their strength relative to other Turkic groups and engulfed their Anatolian competitors, until they became more powerful than Byzantium itself. Sultan Mehmed II captured Constantinople in 1453, putting an end to the **Byzantine Empire**. The Ottomans would advance as far north as Vienna under Suleiman the Magnificent, who besieged the city in 1529 but was unable to take it from the Austrians. Nonetheless, the Ottomans were able to take many Balkan territories from the Austrians, including Hungary, Moldavia, Romania and Serbia among others. Further conquests were made by Sultan Selim I into the **Mamluk** territories of Palestine and Egypt between 1512 and 1520, and by Sultan Suleyman I into the **Levant** between 1520 and 1566. As it stands in 1821, the Ottoman Empire generally reflects these boundaries.<sup>1 2</sup>

## SOCIETY, GOVERNMENT, AND ECONOMY

At the turn of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the Ottoman Empire was largely agrarian, enriched by its conquests of territories in Europe, Africa and the Middle East. It was a colonial Empire that maintained a physical presence throughout its territories, drawing on their resources to maintain

<sup>1</sup> Turnbull, Stephen R. Essential Histories of the Ottoman Empire 1326-1699. Taylor & Francis, 2003.

<sup>2</sup> McCarthy, Justin. The Ottoman Turks: An Introductory History to 1923. London: Routledge, 2015.

centralized rule from Istanbul. While Europe underwent intellectual, socio-political and economic revolutions in the 18th and 19th centuries, facilitated by the advent of the steam engine and the industrial revolution, the Ottoman Empire had not undergone these processes. European monarchies, augmented by the economic boom fuelled by colonialism, erected ever larger industrial apparatuses, becoming fabulously wealthy and powerful relative to the economically backwards Ottoman Empire. The Ottoman economy remained largely agrarian, which ultimately led to poorer productivity compared to the rapidly industrializing European colonial powers (mainly in Western Europe and Germany). Attempts under Sultan Selim II to industrialize and overhaul the Ottoman economy met stiff internal opposition and were initially unsuccessful.

Ottoman society reflected its multiethnic empire, encompassing Turks, Albanians, Arabs, Armenians, Assyrians, Georgians, Greeks, Jews, Kurds, Slavs and others, each with their own distinctive culture. Society was deeply stratified, with people being strictly divided according to their economic status and **millet**s. The Sultan and those involved with the administration (i.e. officers of the Ottoman military, religious authorities and government administrators) comprised the ruling echelon of society. Their preeminence became a major source of social contention as the state modernized in response to increasing European political, military and economic pressure. Religious authorities played a major role in the administration and social life of the empire; those who held administrative positions in the government and armed forces were Muslim, and the judicial system was based on religious laws. Islam was the official state religion, but other religions were tolerated on an ostensibly separate but equal basis; minorities could practise their religion but were considered a lower social class for taxation purposes. Followers of minority religions were also barred from entering mosques, bathhouses, coffeehouses and certain areas of social congregation, which limited their connections with the ruling Muslim class and consequently, their social mobility. Minorities in the Empire were given administrative autonomy in certain issues, such as the election of their community/religious leaders, the upholding of dowry obligations and the officiation of marriages/divorces. Minority leaders could also request an audience with the Sultan to arbitrate over matters that they were unable to resolve amongst themselves. Minorities were subject to the Devshirme (literally: uplifting) system, where their sons were taken, converted to Islam and schooled in **Anatolia**, before being placed in either public administration or military service. Many who were placed in military service became part of the elite Janissary Corps, though this was eventually abolished during the reign of Ahmet III between 1703-1730. The Janissaries proved to be dogged fighters in the Ottoman campaigns of expansion, but by the start of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, they had become an increasingly obsolete, unwieldy and unreliable institution. Significantly, Sultan Selim III was deposed by a Janissary revolt when he tried to implement military reforms along European lines.

The Ottoman government exercised a great deal of centralized control over social, economic and political life. Unlike in Western European states of the early 19<sup>th</sup> century, Ottoman landowners, industrialists and merchants did not have any significant influence over the economic policies of their Empire. This, combined with the rigid attitude of the Ottoman administration towards its classical economic system, contributed to the late industrialization



of the Ottoman economy. **Viziers** often bickered with each other without coherent plans for badly needed economic and military reforms, and without paying due attention to the threat of rebellion in Arabia and the Balkans. Nonetheless, the Ottoman territorial bureaucracy was competent and effective; under a meritocratic system, rulers were given considerable autonomy to oversee their **Eyalets** as they wished. Each **Eyalet** had a **Vali**, who served as a premier or viceroy that oversaw their daily administrative operations. **Valis** organized their own territorial militias/yeomanry and implemented infrastructure projects and even social programs at their own initiative.<sup>3 4</sup>

## THE BALANCE OF POWER, TROUBLES IN THE BALKANS AND THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

There was plenty of bad blood between the Ottomans and their Eastern European foes: Austria, Russia, and Prussia. Aside from the apparent religious divide between the Ottomans and the so-called Three Black Eagles, there were also conflicting interests over territories, particularly over access to the Bosphorus straits – a vital chokepoint between the Mediterranean and the Black Sea, and the Balkan territories. The Balkan Peninsula was home to a disparate array of ethnicities and religions, including Orthodox Bulgarians, Muslim Albanians/Turks, and Roman Catholic Croats. Austria and Russia were able to sow discord from these longstanding cultural and religious tensions in order to destabilize Ottoman authority in the region. As the Ottoman Empire's economic and military capabilities declined relative to its Eastern European rivals, its ability to project power over Balkan possessions was correspondingly weakened. The Russo-Ottoman War of 1768-1774 demonstrated the drastic decline of this once formidable power; the Russian Empire was able to extract punishing war reparations, and claimed the ports of Kerch and Azov, expanding Russian influence over the Black Sea. The conclusion of the Congress of Vienna in the wake of the Napoleonic Wars established a radically different European order that became increasingly concerned with and committed to the **Balance of Power** in Europe. The rest of Europe watched with apprehension as the Russian Empire expanded their power and influence at the expense of the Ottomans, since a more powerful Russia could destabilize the delicate relationship between Prussia, Austria and Russia in Eastern Europe. The constant threat of war between the Eastern powers, and the incursions of Russia into Ottoman territories became known as the "Eastern Question," which Britain and France were keen to solve by supporting the Ottoman Empire militarily and economically. By bolstering the Empire as a bulwark against Russian aggression, the balance of power was maintained, and the risk of war in Eastern Europe or the Near East was temporarily averted.<sup>5</sup>

<sup>3</sup> McCarthy, Justin. *The Ottoman Turks: An Introductory History to 1923*. London: Routledge, 2015.

<sup>4</sup> Göçek, Fatma Müge. "Ethnic Segmentation, Western Education, and Political Outcomes: Nineteenth-Century Ottoman Society." *Poetics Today* 14, no. 3 (1993)

<sup>5</sup> Bridge, Roy, and Roger Bullen. *The Great Powers and the European States System 1814-1914*. Routledge, 2014.



## QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. Given the apparent obsolescence of the Ottoman economic system, how would you reform and modernize it?
2. The Balkans have long been an area of political, religious and social tension. What measure would you implement to ensure that there is a lasting peace in this volatile region?
3. Given the important strategic position that the Ottoman Empire holds in the strategic context of European geopolitics, how would you ensure the continuity of the Empire against Prussia, Austria and Russia?
4. Although it is known that Western European powers such as Britain and France have an interest in ensuring the survival of the Ottoman Empire, to what extent could they be trusted?



## MUHAMMAD ALI PASHA: GENERAL, VICEROY, CONQUEROR

Muhammad Ali led an illustrious life as both a skilled tactician and statesman, climbing from his humble beginnings as a tax collector to commander of the Albanian contingent of the Ottoman forces sent to pacify Egypt in the wake of Napoleon's withdrawal in 1801. His shrewd negotiation skills enabled him to win over the local sheiks and territorial administrators, ultimately making him the **Vali** of Egypt in 1805. He and his eldest son Ibrahim would go on to fight for the Sultan in the Sudan campaign, and in the Arabian campaign against encroaching Wahhabi influence under the House of Saud. In Egypt, he instituted radical reforms which overhauled and industrialized the entire Egyptian military, administration and economy. His efforts resulted in a visibly modern and centralized Egypt.

Despite Ali's loyal service to the Empire on the battlefield and his spectacular successes in increasing the productivity of Egypt, not every vizier or public servant in the imperial government is sure of his loyalty. What is certain however, is that a talented man like Muhammad Ali could prove very useful, at least for the moment, in administering the economically crucial Egyptian **Eyalet**.

## MILITARY CAMPAIGNS UNDER THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE AND RISE TO POWER

Muhammad Ali arrived in Egypt as a part of a three-hundred-strong Albanian regiment, sent to quell the civil war between the **Mamluks** and the Sultan's troops in the wake of the power vacuum created by Napoleon's retreat. While the **Mamluks** and Ottomans fought each other for control of Egypt, there were also internal power struggles within both the **Mamluk** and Ottoman leadership. When an incompetent Turkish noble named Husret Pasha was sent to reestablish Ottoman control of Egypt, he had administered the **Eyalet's** finances so poorly that his troops mutinied and killed him because he failed to pay them. Meanwhile, the **Mamluk** elites who comprised the upper echelons of Egyptian society feuded with each other, and the Egyptian populace suffered from rampant political unrest. Ali saw this as an opportunity to take power for himself. As an ally to Al-Bardisi, one of the **Beys** contending for power amongst the **Mamluks**, he aligned himself with local merchants and religious leaders. These relationships made Ali a popular figure with the local populace. The Sultan would dispatch two more officials, both of whom were gravely injured in skirmishes with the **Mamluk** cavalry while attempting to reassert Ottoman control over Egypt. These efforts were unsuccessful, as the Turkish officials had resorted to brutalizing the locals to maintain order, which made them appear as tyrannical overlords. In the wake of popular protests, local sheiks urged Selim III to remove the unpopular

Turkish **Valis** and replace them with Muhammad Ali. The Sultan relented and gave Ali the position of **Vali** of Egypt, elevating him to the status of **Pasha**.

Muhammad Ali made his wars a family affair. His sons, Ibrahim, Ismail, Tusun and Sa'id, all contributed to their father's campaigns as battlefield commanders and advisors. While Sultan Selim III had given Muhammad Ali the governorship of Egypt, he had done so reluctantly, since a man as sharp and talented as Ali could easily pose a threat to the integrity of the Empire should his loyalties be swayed. The Saudi takeover of the **Hejaz**, and by extension the holy cities of Mecca and Medina, posed a threat to the Sultan's claim to be the protector of Islam. Instead of sending Ottoman troops from **Anatolia**, Sultan Mahmud II ordered Ali to take back the Arab lands from the House of Saud. By doing this, he could sap Muhammad Ali's strength, preventing him from becoming too powerful and eliminating the Wahhabi presence in Arabia in one stroke. Ali's Arabian campaign, also known as the Wahhabi war, was not easily fought; he lost his son Tusun in battle, and encountered significant difficulties subduing the city of Diriya due to supply and logistical difficulties. Despite heavy overall losses, Ali would ultimately emerge victorious, claiming the **Hejaz** for himself.

Muhammad Ali also launched a campaign into Sudan, ostensibly to root out dissident **Mamluk** Emirs who had sought refuge there. This offensive proved disastrous. The appointment of his son Ismail as the task force commander was a poor choice, due to his brashness and inexperience. Ali's troops were undersupplied and lacked medical support and consequently thousands perished to disease. Thousands more deserted due to the incoherent, indecisive and often cruel leadership, and even Ismail himself fell during the campaign. However, the superficial strategic gains of additional territories and the spoils of war hid another objective of these conquests: elimination of Ali's increasingly reluctant Albanian troops and Turkish officers. Ali's bloody campaigns into Sudan and Arabia caused many of these men to fall in battle, which allowed Ali a free hand to create a new army in their place.<sup>6 7</sup>

## REFORMIST VALI

When Muhammad Ali was installed as the **Vali** of Egypt in 1805, his first course of action was to consolidate his power, which meant eliminating any potential challenges to his authority. While the **Mamluks** held influential positions in Egyptian society and had proven useful in his rise to **Vali**, they presented a threat to his plans of centralizing authority. Ali invited the **Mamluk** leaders to a celebration and military parade in the Cairo citadel, where he corralled them into the central court yard and sealed the doors. He then ordered his troops to open fire on the

<sup>6</sup> Fahmy, Khaled, and Kālid Maḥmūd Fahmī. All the Pasha's men: Mehmed Ali, his army and the making of modern Egypt. Vol. 8. Cambridge University Press, 1997.

<sup>7</sup> Fahmy, Khaled. "The Era of Muhammad 'Ali Pasha, 1805–1848." The Cambridge History of Egypt 2 (1998): 139-79.

**Mamluks**, killing all in the court yard. Without its leaders, **Mamluk** influence in Egypt subsided, allowing Muhammad Ali Pasha to centralize his rule in preparation for his planned reforms.

Muhammad Ali Pasha's structural adjustment programs in Egypt are a well-studied example of successful industrialization, economic modernization, and taxation reform. Ali commenced land reforms with the *Iltizam* agricultural levy, which removed a system wherein tax collectors would collect the surplus from agricultural lands and pay the state in fixed installments. Instead, the state collected land surpluses directly, eliminating the inefficiencies of tax collectors who often pocketed surpluses for themselves, and drastically increasing tax revenues from all agricultural land. Furthermore, Ali imposed an agricultural goods monopoly wherein all cash crops had to be sold to the government, which resold them to consumers at a higher price to maximize profits. He also retracted the tax exemption extended to **Waqfs**, land occupied for religious, educational or charitable purposes. This angered the sheiks and religious leaders who had assisted him in his rise to power, as *Waqfs* constituted one-fifth of all cultivable land in Egypt.

By increasing taxable land and monopolizing the market for cash crops, Ali was better able to embark on infrastructure projects. The reach of irrigation canals was extended, which improved the overall yields of the yearly harvests by expanding the areas suitable for productive agriculture. He also expanded the ancient canal that linked Alexandria to the Nile, at a cost of 35,000 purses (approx. 7.5 million Francs) and anywhere between 12,000 and 100,000 lives. Ali then pursued industrialization. He imposed tariffs on manufactured goods from European factories, which allowed newly established industries in Egypt to remain competitive. He also mandated industrial self-sufficiency initiatives that ensured goods like textiles, processed foods, paper and glass were manufactured in Egypt. Ali hired European managers to oversee his new factories and French educators to establish technical institutes, to ensure successive generations of domestic specialists.

By the time he had started reforming his army in 1820, Ali had already been **Vali** of Egypt for fifteen years. His economic reforms had created the arms industries and expanded tax base that would allow Egypt to support a larger military apparatus. Ali invited French military advisors to help train his new army along European lines; he established a special camp in Aswan that acted as an officer's academy and enforced harsh training regimens that hardened troops into effective soldiers. Unlike previous **Valis**, Ali ensured that his troops were well-paid, supplied and fed, while providing them with a new uniform made in large quantities in state factories. In order to levy a large standing army, Ali implemented a system of conscription, in which Arabs were enlisted as soldiers and Turks as officers. This stratification of authority in his army ensured that Arabs, who occupied a lower status in Egyptian society, were deprived of the opportunity to lead a military coup against Muhammad Ali's government. These measures created a standing army numbering 150,000 men by 1821. An indigenous arms industry was also established by Ali's industrialization initiatives but remained a relatively

small part of the economy. It employed 15,000 people and consisted of only 5.76% of the total manufacturing output.<sup>8 9 10</sup>

## THE DEMANDS OF MUHAMMAD ALI PASHA

In 1821, a Greek revolt has broken out in Morea, and quickly spread to the Aegean islands. It is apparent that this is another attempt by foreign powers to spark unrest in the Empire by agitating the Orthodox Christian population. Greece is an important possession of the Empire due to its economic and strategic significance. The loss of this territory would cause unfathomable damage to the tax base and the damaged reputation of the Ottoman Empire. Sultan Mahmud II has realized that his forces are spread thin, and requested that Muhammad Ali Pasha send an Egyptian contingent to assist the Ottoman forces in quelling the rebellion, a request that Ali has begrudgingly accepted. Despite the fact that the Sultan offered Ali's son Ibrahim the **Eyalet** of Peloponnesia in return for his support, Ali recognizes the significant financial burden that Egypt must shoulder to hold up his end of the bargain. Sustaining an overseas deployment is no cheap endeavour, and a fleet would need to be assembled to bring troops and supplies to Greece. To make matters worse, reports have come in suggesting that the Russian, French and British navies are mustering their ships in support of the Greek revolt. Their arrival would mean a disastrous reversal of fortune for the Ottoman army in Greece and the navy tasked with protecting supply lines in the Mediterranean.

In order to muster a fleet, Muhammad Ali would need to acquire more timber than what Egypt, Sudan and the **Hejaz** can supply, and so he looks toward Syria. Ali had hoped as early as the days of the Wahhabi War to claim Syria for himself, as this **Eyalet** is important for many reasons. It holds large populations that serve as an important source of tax income and occupies a strategically important position – linking the Palestinian territories (and by extension, Arabia, the **Levant** and Egypt) with **Anatolia**. It also contains vital strategic resources such as ores and high-quality timber. Presently, Ali's most immediate consideration regarding Syria is the acquisition of these natural resources, which are vital for the building of muskets, cannons and warships. Time will tell whether Ali attempts a cordial solution, or one that is forceful.<sup>11 12</sup>

<sup>8</sup> Fahmy, Khaled, and Kālid Maḥmūd Fahmī. All the Pasha's men: Mehmed Ali, his army and the making of modern Egypt. Vol. 8. Cambridge University Press, 1997.

<sup>9</sup> Fahmy, Khaled. "The Era of Muhammad 'Ali Pasha, 1805–1848." The Cambridge History of Egypt 2 (1998): 139-79.

<sup>10</sup> Panza, Laura, and Jeffrey G. Williamson. "Did Muhammad Ali foster industrialization in early nineteenth-century Egypt?" The Economic History Review 68, no. 1 (2015): 79-100.

<sup>11</sup> Fahmy, Khaled, and Kālid Maḥmūd Fahmī. All the Pasha's men: Mehmed Ali, his army and the making of modern Egypt. Vol. 8. Cambridge University Press, 1997.

<sup>12</sup> Fahmy, Khaled. "The Era of Muhammad 'Ali Pasha, 1805–1848." The Cambridge History of Egypt 2 (1998): 139-79.

## QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. Muhammad Ali's reforms compromised relationships with many of his former allies: religious leaders, common folk of the land, and the **Mamluks**. How will you ensure that the social pressures at home do not interfere with either the Pasha's ambitions, or his duties to the Sultan?
2. Although Ali's industrial and land reforms proved to be wildly successful, how will you expand on these accomplishments to further the productivity and wealth of Egypt?
3. Europeans were central to Muhammad Ali's reforms and are important trading partners, but can they be trusted, considering their support for the rebellious Greeks?
4. Although the Sultan has bestowed Ali with the governorship of Egypt, he has also ordered Ali to carry out costly military campaigns in faraway lands. Are the Ottomans truly concerned with the wellbeing of Egyptians and their **Vali**?





## APPENDIX: BEYOND THE OTTOMAN WORLD

The 1800s were a fateful time for the world, and especially Europe. Rapid industrialization contributed to greater colonial ambitions for raw resources, in order to sustain both domestic manufacturing and the international markets for the goods this produced. Industrial superpowers like Britain maintained colonies all over the world, ushering in the age of globalization. The 19<sup>th</sup> century was also incredibly violent. The Napoleonic Wars wrought death and destruction as France plundered its way through Europe, bringing republican ideals of state and citizenship with it. Art, science and philosophy flourished amid popular revolts for social change and more open conflicts among the great powers.

### THE NAPOLEONIC WARS, THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA AND ITS AFTERMATH

The French Revolution and subsequent Revolutionary Wars created the perfect storm for a talented artillery officer from Sardinia to rise to power in the wake of the instability and unrest of Republican France. Napoleon was a remarkable General, introducing cutting-edge military reforms; the use of propaganda in combination with conscription created loyal legions inspired by a nationalistic elan. He also devised new tactics of employing highly mobile field artillery for use in combination with cavalry. The rise of the citizen soldier and industrialized warfare led to the concept of total war. By mustering the contributions of every man, woman and child towards a war effort, this constituted an unprecedented military revolution. Napoleon eventually suffered serious losses in Russia and was finally defeated at the Battle of Waterloo in 1812, putting a decisive end to the First French Republic. Determined to prevent such catastrophic wars from occurring once more, the warring parties of Europe, including France, negotiated a peace hosted by Austrian Foreign Minister Klemens von Metternich in Vienna.

The Congress of Vienna was a significant development in international politics, and a successful means of maintaining (relative) peace on the European continent for almost four decades. The philosophy of the **Balance of Power** was utilized to its full effect at the negotiating table; states were torn apart or combined with other states, alliances were formed, and peace was restored to Europe. Despite the rapprochement of the Great Powers at the Congress of Vienna, tensions still ran high in the colonized territories of the Great Powers. As the liberal ideas of Liberty, Equality and Fraternity embodied in the French Revolution spread far and wide, oppressed populations rose in revolution against their rulers. The Greek Revolution was one such example, where revolutionary ideas were exacerbated by the decision of the Ottoman **Porte** to execute Patriarch Grigory IV in Istanbul. Instead of assisting the Ottoman Empire in putting down the Greek revolt, many Europeans felt an obligation to help Greece, as Ancient Greece was considered the basis of European culture, arts, science and philosophy. This conflict increased the already strenuous tensions between the Ottoman and Russian Empires, as Russia considered itself the protector of Orthodox Christians, and objected to the execution of Orthodox priests in the Ottoman Empire.

## THE EASTERN QUESTION AND EUROPEAN INFLUENCE IN THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

The decline of the Ottoman Empire, signalled by the Russian victory in the first Russo-Ottoman War in the late 1700s, resulted in the traditional opponents of Russia (primarily Britain, France and Prussia) assisting the Ottoman Empire through diplomatic, economic, and military means. Russia's potential to take advantage of a weakened Ottoman Empire was concerning to other European powers, as this would upset the delicate **Balance of Power**. Thus, despite its perceived cultural, religious and political backwardness, the maintenance of the Ottoman Empire was necessary, in order to avoid a **security dilemma**.

Russia secured another victory against the Ottoman Empire, when the Sultan aligned himself with Napoleon against Russia in 1806. When the Ottomans blocked Russian ships from entering the Black Sea via the Dardanelle strait in 1807, Tsar Alexander I dispatched the Russian Black Sea fleet and soundly defeated the Ottoman fleet at the battle of the Dardanelles. Ottoman offensives in the Caucasus and Bulgaria during this conflict proved disastrous. Russian defenders at Bucharest inflicted heavy losses on the Ottoman attackers at little cost. The Ottomans would sue for peace in the treaty of Bucharest in 1812, ceding Wallachia and Moldavia to the Russian Empire.

## THE NATURE OF WARFARE IN THE 19TH CENTURY

By the 19<sup>th</sup> century, gunpowder armaments like smoothbore muskets, rifles, grenades, cannons, and to a more limited extent, explosive rockets had been in proliferate use by various European militaries and the Ottoman Empire. However, the quality of such weapons differed significantly depending on their place of manufacture, due to differences in tactical doctrine, quality of materials and methods of manufacture. Unit organization was also heavily based on soldiers' role in tactical doctrine and their issued equipment. For example, British infantry were divided into line, rifle and grenadier designations. Line infantry were given Brown Bess muskets because they were faster to load and better suited for the closer distances of engagement; riflemen were given slower loading, but more accurate and longer-range Baker rifles to deliver harassing or supporting fire behind the line infantry or terrain obstacles; and grenadiers were issued explosive grenades and smoothbore muskets as they were expected to spearhead assaults on entrenched positions.

The most significant event in the evolution of warfare in the 19<sup>th</sup> century was, as previously stated, the Napoleonic Wars, which ushered in the concept of total war. New strategies and tactics were developed with the introduction of increasingly destructive weapons. Napoleon was not only a genius because he had mastered the fundamentals of war strategy, but also because he thoroughly understood how to employ his weapons to maximize their

effects. For example, at the Battle of Austerlitz: infantry acted as the vanguard of offensive actions; cavalry acted as fast-moving assaulters to defeat enemy breakthroughs, exploit weaknesses in enemy lines and chase down retreating enemies; and artillery provided long-range fire support for infantry and cavalry.

Battle on the high seas was defined by the cannon-armed, wooden sailing ships of the period, with a large array of cannons pointed to the side of ships and a lesser amount of “chaser” cannons pointed forward. Weather naturally played a large role in these naval battles; the wind affected the speed and direction of sail-powered warships, and fog at sea hampered visibility, allowing for ambushes and flanking attacks. Ships would often arrange themselves with their sides facing the enemy in order to maximize the number of cannons they could bring to bear. Broadships, wherein the cannons on the side facing the enemy fired in unison to either destroy the masts or damage the hull of the enemy ship, became a characteristic trait of naval combat during this period. British and Dutch tactical doctrine dictated that their gun crews aim lower, to take out as many of the enemy’s guns as possible and minimize enemy retaliation, while French doctrine stipulated that the guns be aimed higher to demast the enemy’s ship and prevent them from giving chase or escaping. When sparring ships came close enough to one another, sailors would attempt to board the enemy’s ship to tie up or kill the crew, so the ship could be taken out of action or captured. Boarding parties carried weapons optimized for the close-quarters to be expected onboard a ship, including pistols, carbines, grenades, and the occasional rifle. Melees between crews and boarding parties were almost always bloody and personal encounters, where combatants fought one another at extremely close distances.

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