
The Decline of the Ottoman Hegemony and the Diplomatic Strategies of the Republic of Turkey: A Message to the Contemporary World

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ABSTRACT

This research investigates what historical events and the causes that are responsible for the Ottoman's decline. This paper outlines the path to how Turkey was able to conduct its foreign policy successfully after establishing the Republic of Turkey from the Ottoman Empire, more precisely, on the eve of World War II, and how it signifies present-day International Relations. Since methodology is the key to examining and bringing out new perceptions in any field, a methodology for it was formulated at the inception of the study. Both qualitative and quantitative approaches are used in this research. The quantitative method provides significant data collection and evaluation results. A descriptive qualitative approach to the study was utilized, which consisted of planned activities to explain and disclose informant interpretations through description. The collection of data relies on literary research that uses corresponding publications, scholarly articles, and other materials as secondary documentation. Research findings showed that European capitalism, uncontrolled population growth, religious polarization, corrupt legal system, excessive national debt, political and economic corruption of rulers, and the weakness of reforms were the prime reasons for the decline of the Ottoman Empire. One of the successes of Turkey's foreign policy was the development of relations with Britain and France shortly after the establishment of the Republic. In addition, it was able to bring dynamics to its economy by establishing alliances with the Soviet Union and Germany and building commercial relations. However, when World War II started, its foreign policy faced a massive challenge. Due to the bitter experience of participating in the First World War, Turkey adopted a policy of neutrality with great discretion. But it had to pay a lot for that. Turkey pursued its foreign policy by countering German and Soviet threats and balancing Anglo-French pressure. By trying to maintain this balance, Turkey often upset both camps. Whenever any party was irritated or offended by this Turkish policy, it made some concessions, flexed its attitude, or provided reassurance to prevent the eventual deterioration of the relationship. This research functions as an educational framework for counselors and educational experts to develop proficiency in the decline of the Ottoman Empire and the International Diplomacy of the newly established Turkish Republic. Learners who acquire knowledge from this research will gain a detailed understanding of the reasons behind the downfall of the Ottoman hegemony and the neutral international policy of the Republic. A distinctive element of this research focused on analyzing how the Republic of Turkey pursued its foreign policy by countering German and Soviet threats and balancing Anglo-French pressure. National and International governments, along with peace advocates and policymakers, need to study the collective information about the causes of the decline of the empire and further their neutral diplomacy in order to enhance national identity while rebuilding national consciousness so they can establish international relationships for developing a better resilient nation.

1. Introduction

The Ottoman Empire was one of the most powerful states in the history of the Muslim World, and to write about Ottoman history is a major undertaking. The history of the Ottomans began when Turkmen left their residence in Turkestan to move into the area that would become known as Asia Minor following the decline of Seljuk governance. A period of 69 years brought forth two different kings to rule. Ertugrul Ghazi served as the founding ancestor of the Ottoman royal line while they operated under Seljuk rule. During his rule, Osman bin Ertugrul managed to free himself from Seljuk's dominance by demolishing Rome (Bogheiry, Fall 2022).



Figure: 1 (Agoston, Gabor, & Master, 2009)

During the years spanning 1453 to 1606, which began with the control of Constantinople until the treaty of Sitva-Torek (Zitvatorok), the Ottoman Empire gained international prominence as a global power. The status of world power allowed it to make direct moves against Spain in Western waters while simultaneously supporting the enemy nations of Protestant England and the Netherlands and Catholic France and securing its positions across Indian waters up to Sumatra to assist local Muslim populations against Portuguese control (Cizakca, 2011). By order of the Constituent Assembly led by Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, the Ottoman Empire faced abolition in 1918 and 1922 before the Republic of Turkey emerged in 1923. At that time, Ottoman borders extended across only the territory equivalent to modern Turkey. Ottoman Empire led its resources into mismanagement while completely leaving behind domestic power systems for relying on foreign power sources. Ottoman Empire joined World War I on the side of Germany and Austria against the United Kingdom, Russia, and France after this time period ended (Bogheiry, Fall 2022). Since its foundation, the Republic of Turkey has chosen to follow a neutral diplomatic theory in its external relations. The Republic gained one of its most important diplomatic achievements through its new relations with Britain and France following its declaration. The economic relations Turkey built with the Soviet Union and Germany allowed the country to introduce new strategic elements to its economic system.

2. Brief History of the Ottoman Empire

The Ottoman Empire displayed a typical cyclical pattern in its international development, which started with foundation growth and ultimately ended through decline and collapse. This empire extended its period of development beyond other dynasties in the world.

During the late 13th century, when Ottomans established their dynasty, they formed a minor Sultanate (beylik) that fought holy wars against Christianity. This unimportant small Sultanate approached the borders of the Byzantine Empire and then took control of adjacent territories. By conquering Arabic lands in 1517, Ottomans achieved the status of being the most dominant Islamic nation. Suleiman I (1520-1566) achieved the eternal military success that stretched from Middle Europe to the Indian Ocean, thus establishing a powerful Ottoman Empire (Inalcik, 2006).

The most crucial international trading pathways and intersection points belonged to the Ottoman Empire because they extended from the Balkans through the Black Sea region to Syria, Mesopotamia, and Anatolia area and included the areas of Basra Gulf, Egypt, and North Africa. Over three decades in the period spanning the 17th to 18th centuries, the Ottoman Empire sustained a population exceeding thirty million individuals from multiple cultural backgrounds. The fact automatically brings historians to focus through the natural draw it creates. The prolonged conflicts of the 17th century caused Ottoman power to decline as Europe gained superiority against them. During the 18th century, the empire entered a state of economic and political dependence on Europe (Inalcik, 2006).

The Ottoman Empire continued its independent status against all others to survive until 1900 because of its extreme desirability as a possession. The situation of control over Europe and Asia in a Dominant position represented one of

the most fascinating periods in history. During the 13th century, Ottomans maintained control over one of the multiple Turkmen tribal beyliks that bordered the Byzantine Empire, and it experienced a declining period. During two centuries, Ottomans built an empire that extended from Southeastern Europe and Byzantine Anatolia territory to Hungary and Arabian territory (Shaw, 2004)

The abolishment of the Ottoman Empire occurred in 1918 and 1922 through orders from the Constituent Assembly, which Mustafa Kemal Atatürk led before Turkey became a republic in 1923. At this time, the Ottoman borders spanned only the geographic regions which correspond to present-day Turkey. During this time, the Ottoman Empire experienced poor governance while wholly turning away from their home-made sources of power to adopt overseas alternatives. Ottoman Empire went to war with Germany and Austria in support of their alliance against Russia, France, and the United Kingdom during the first global conflict (Bogheiry, Fall 2022)

After the Allies of World War I gained dominance over the Central Powers, the stage became suitable for the United Kingdom, Russia, and France, which launched simultaneous external attacks on the Ottomans using treaties against them. The Sykes-Picot Treaty was enacted in 1916, which resulted in the division of Arab lands from the empire. When the Ottoman Empire surrendered in World War I through the Mudras Treaty, multiple enemies now effectively controlled substantial territories of the nation. The 1920 Treaty of Sur resulted in the process that made the Dardanelles and Bosphorus straits international and separated Armenia alongside Izmir and multiple other states and their European territories from the Ottoman Empire. Internal anti-Ottoman rebellion received support from opponents who sought to weaken the Empire through such assistance. Due to these circumstances, the Young Turks, under the leadership of Kemal Atatürk (Bogheiry, Fall 2022) received their backing. This substantial backing involved them terminating the provisions established by the Treaty of Sur through the creation of the Lausanne Treaty. The present-day territorial limits of Turkey emerged from the 1923 Treaty of Lausanne negotiations. The Turkish National Assembly simultaneously abolished Ottoman rule by removing Sultan Mehmed V as the last sultan of the Empire, which led to the establishment of the Republic and brought Kemal Pasha into power.

3. The Reasons for the Decline and Fall of the Ottoman State

The Ottoman State collapsed due to the disappearance of those driving forces which had originally led to successful victories. History books about the Ottoman State, together with the corpora of laws, justice, and politics, have detailed these reasons. Kochi Bey (Ali Kemal Aksut, 1939) highlights that the decline of the Ottoman Empire began in Sulaiman, the Lawmaker's late reign, leading historians to falsely associate its beginning with Murad III's era.

3.1 European Capitalism

During the Industrial Revolution, Western European nations, particularly England, developed their economies into low-cost massive production systems. European capitalist relations transformed both the Ottoman economic system of production and commercial transactions and social structures that produced new socio-economic classes (Pamuk, 1978).

European capitalism spread through foreign investments as well as economic debt transactions that Third World nations, including the Ottoman Empire, received. Most European investments in Ottoman specialized in developing infrastructure through building railway lines and harbors as well as canals in order to increase international trade capacity. The foreign capital that stimulated agricultural and industrial production and mining activities remained restricted until the start of World War I. Foreign capital displays a specific market preference by positioning itself to support foreign commercial activities and export operations. Foreign investment activities grew considerably, especially with France and Germany, despite a previous deterioration in Ottoman-European trade. Statistics reveal that foreign direct investment maintained stability throughout the early 1860s until the late 1880s, yet it surged drastically between 1890 and 1914 (Quataert, 1987).

3.2 Population Growth

Various statistical data exist regarding Ottomans' population numbers. Documents scientifically substantiating the increase in population indicate that the Ottoman Empire had 17,134,000 citizens in 1884, and this number rose to 17,381,670 in 1893, then to 19,050,000 in 1897, 28,652,000 in 1910 and finally reached 29,357,000 in 1913 (Adresi, 2008).

The growth of population represents a source of power provided states have proper social infrastructure and economic support. The rise in population becomes difficult to manage because it leads to more societal problems, including economic and political issues. In the 16th century, the Ottoman Empire developed to such large numbers that

agricultural lands failed to sustain them. During the period of most power, when disease was low and security was high, the Ottoman Empire experienced population growth (Shaw, Stanford, & Kural, 1977). The population surge delivered benefits during the war but turned into instability because European Ottoman conquests halted in the late 16th century. The numerous inhabitants of that time required employment in addition to financial stability. Some people entered the military forces, but others became part of governmental positions and selected seminaries for educational purposes. Because the seminaries lacked enough funds for student survival expenses, they sent students out in large groups to gather money in the villages. The dissatisfactions grew gradually, which caused the Ottoman to lose both his public backing and enabled more social turmoil and escalating criminal activities across the empire. The Ottoman kings exerted considerable efforts toward establishing lawful stability yet failed to achieve internal peace, although they ruled during their most prosperous period.

3.3 Weakness of economic approach

The traditional structure of the Ottoman economy did not change over time. They abstained from implementing economic strategies during their conquests, which prevented them from pursuing colonial expansion, as observed through European countries. The conquerors maintained their original plans of non-interference with occupied territories to stay independent of local resources. Their competitors from Portugal, as well as the Netherlands and Great Britain, acquired substantial profits from trading colonial land products. According to Islamic laws, the Ottomans refused to create an institutional slave trade system because they accepted restrictions on using the free human resources of their conquered lands. The economic advantages reaped by European imperial competitors directly contradict the historical lack of financial benefits from such means for the Ottomans (Bogheiry, Fall 2022).

In the 1880s and 1890s, the growth speed of Ottoman foreign trade was clearly low. From the table (figure 2), the scale of imports and exports calculated by fixed prices of 1880 shows that the increase per annum between the years 1879-81 and 1897-99 was a little above 3 percent. Exports fell off at the rate of 0,9 per annum if we calculate the growth and exchange ratio by means of current prices, the period which intervened between 1879 and 1880, and the period between 1887 and 1888. This is the case between the periods 1879–81 and 1897–99, so the year-to-year growth rate increased to 1.2 percent between the periods 1887–88 and 1898–9. The recovery process led to a 0,6 percent year-to-year growth rate in imports on current prices (Duranoglu & Okutucu, 2009).

Table 1: Growth Speed of Ottoman Foreign Trade (Prices in terms of pound sterling)

Years	Exports		Imports	
	Current Prices	1880 Prices	Current Prices	1870 Prices
1839/41- 1852/54	5,3	5,3	5,5	6,4
1857/59-1871/73	5,0	6,2	4,9	5,2
1879/81-1897/99	1,2	2,7	0,6	2,5
1879/80-1887/88	0,9	2,8	-0,8	2,0
1887/88-1898/99	2,3	2,2	1,4	2,7
1897/99-1905/07	4,3	3,4	6,0	4,3

(Duranoglu & Okutucu, 2009)

3.4 National Debts

European nations employed debt agreements as a method to expand their operations within Istanbul. European investors obtained backing from their supporters to grant financial loans to the Ottoman Empire, which sometimes required security assurances. When Duyun-i Umumiye was officially established in 1881, Europeans gained control of the management of Ottoman internal affairs, specifically economic policy governance. The guarantee was extended to investors, according to Pamuk (Pamuk, 2008). During the 18th and 19th centuries, the Ottoman Empire experienced limited control over both politics and administration, which caused the financial resources sent to the central government to remain small. Due to its deficient taxation system, the government needed to split tax revenue with powerful provincial groups because it lacked administrative networks to extract tax profits. Starting in the 1820s, the empire decreased provincial power, which allowed it to regain control over tax collection. In that period, incomes

increased by real value while expenditures kept growing. The empire conducted its centralization procedures of finance management through extended internal borrowing programs.

Table 2: Estimated Fund Flows Emanated From Foreign Investment in the Ottoman Empire (annual averages: million pound sterling)

Years	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	State Debt		Foreign Direct Investment		Total Flow		
	Capital Flow related with New Loans	Total Debt Payments	Net Investment	New Profit Transfers	Capital Flows (1)=(3)	Debt Payments and Profit Transfers (2)=(4)	Net (5)-(6)
1854-1875	4,7	3,1	0,6	0,2	5,2	3,3	2,0
1880-1898	0,9	2,8	2,3	1,1	3,1	3,9	-0,8
1899-1913	2,7	4,6	1,4	2,7	4,1	7,2	-3,1
1854-1864	2,0	0,8	0,4	0,04	2,4	0,8	1,6
1865-1875	7,3	5,4	0,8	0,3	8,1	5,8	2,3
1876-1879	0,7	0,6	0,04	0,3	0,7	0,9	-0,2
1880-1887	0,8	2,1	0,3	0,7	1,1	2,8	-1,7
1888-1898	0,9	3,4	3,7	1,3	4,6	4,7	-0,1

(Duranoglu & Okutucu, 2009)

3.5 Political and economic corruption of rulers

The Ottoman kings who possessed multiple properties chose state and religious interests above wealth and luxurious living. The turn towards greater aristocratic privileges happened when Süleyman the Magnificent ruled as the Ottoman Empire achieved its peak power. Unfortunately, the new leadership approach surfaced during the reign of Süleyman the Magnificent. The elevation of harem issues into top priorities resulted in harem women gaining more power to affect state policies, which represents this kind of example. During the administration of Chancellor Rostam Pasha, the practice of using public power improperly escalated along with political corruption. Bribes, together with gifts and official position trade, became ordinary practices according to Shahbazi (Shahbazi, 1998) . Several strong systems existed to stop nepotism from affecting governmental administration. Before Osman II entered office, there was no Sultan who married a subject, and this violated the legal prohibition against family members running state operations.

The rulers who were sent to Damascus chose rule-appointed individuals through monetary and bribery payments, which required various oppressive methods to obtain spent funds and gain additional profits. The Ottoman government was incapable of managing the situation due to its weak state, and the subjects needed to pay money. The local governments, along with foreign interferences, suppressed revolts against unreasonable oppression, resulting in growing public discontent (Hammer, 1989).

3.6 Religious polarization

The spiritual motive to share God's word (I'IE'KalimEt Allah), which previously led to Ottoman State success, seemed to disappear. Instead of remaining devoted to Islam, the Turks separated themselves from their faith by adopting materialistic pursuits, which brought them status over Allah's Divine sanction. Each sector experienced the beginning of corruption and decomposition because of these factors (Akgunduz, 2009).

3.7 Weakness of Reforms

The Ottoman Empire became aware of its weaknesses, so it decided to implement reforms. The process of restructuring both military organizations and supplies became their initial step toward weakness elimination. During these initial reforms, two main problems arose: the unilateral nature of changes and the selection of the French model as the standard. Multiple issues emerged from the efforts of reform. Sultan Mahmud II ordered an execution of the

janissaries who rejected the military reforms in 1826. After Sultan Mahmud II left office, another Sultan issued Khat Sharif Gulkhaneh, which was finalized by the hatt-i sharif or imperial edict termed Edict of Gülhane or Tanzimât during 1839. These decrees established a set of recommendations for financial, civilian, military, and educational reforms patterned after French laws alongside the elimination of slavery and the allowance of religious minority rights and citizenship rights observance. These two decrees bestowed total safety measures on the life, honor, and property of every nationality and minority within the country. The highest level of political reform took place after establishing the Constitution. The ascension of Sultan Abdul Hamid in 1876 resulted in reform processes declining to the point of total breakdown (Yagi & Ahmed, 2010).

3.8 Corrupted Legal System

Corruption within the Ottoman legal system reached such severity that the system lost its ability to safeguard both Muslim and non-Muslim subjects. The state adopted tyranny instead of justice, while civil servants took control over legal decrees. A system of oppression started to replace real justice, resulting in the harsh treatment of subjects in the Ottoman Empire. Justice-based unity, similar to an umbrella that formerly kept subjects together with the State, began to break down as different groups started separating from it (Akgunduz, 2009).

Ottoman Empire spent much effort in preserving traditional order since various factors led to the loss of its power. Domestic and international events created most of the challenges that the Ottoman Empire confronted. The new developments in the empire's vicinity generated significant disturbances, and the Ottomans failed to adapt properly to the new changes. All crucial factors, both within and without, demonstrate that a decline was imminent for this empire. Ordering from the Constituent Assembly led by Mustafa Kemal Atatürk resulted in the abolishment of the Ottoman Empire in 1918 and 1922 and the establishment of Turkey as the Republic of Turkey in 1923. The boundaries of the Ottoman Empire restricted themselves to the area which later became Turkey (Mather, 2014)

The defeat and subsequent downfall of the Ottoman Empire occurred naturally because of all these conditions in the aftermath of the war (Calisir, 2011). The authors established that the Ottoman Empire's failure to adopt domestic and international changes, alongside its inadequacy to resist external threats, became the fundamental reason behind the empire's downfall.

4. The Turkish Foreign Policy

World War I transformed Türkiye from a great power into a small sovereign nation-state due to the establishment of the Turkish Republic after the end of the Ottoman Empire. Turkey maintains its democratic status through its independent position and sovereign identity despite the reduction of its national borders. Türkiye demonstrated much greater strength than the weak Ottoman Empire. Türkiye succeeded in eliminating foreign countries from interfering in both domestic and external policies. Türkiye possesses complete control over forming its international policies according to its national interests. Before the signing of the Treaty of Lausanne, Mustafa Kemal demonstrated several failed foreign policy initiatives, but his successors, together with him, developed realism-based foreign strategies aiming for peace maintenance and stability in the region. It needed time for the Turkish people to eliminate their anti-imperialist feelings.

Türkiye attempted cooperation with anti-imperialist Russia during the first decade of the republic to resolve the unsettled issues from the Treaty of Lausanne, including the unresolved Mosul problem and the Alexandretta conflict and straits settlement challenges. In 1921, Turkish Foreign Minister Bekir Sami Bey executed an alliance negotiation trip to Moscow with Soviet Russia. The distant relationship between Communistic Russia and Capitalistic France and Britain allowed Türkiye to work on resolving its Lausanne Treaty-related unsettled issues (Lenczowski, 1982). The Soviet Union showed support for Türkiye because of its opposition to British and French imperialism. The Soviet Union chose to work with Türkiye for multiple reasons: to show Asia that it stood as the sole supporter of exploited nations. The Soviet authorization carefully disguised its real intention to acquire Türkiye's battle tactics as supply weapons against capitalist opposition in upcoming conflicts. The creation of a favorable environment between the two nations became possible because of these developments.

4.1 Ango-Turkish relations

The connection between Britain and Turkey grew worse after World War One broke out. Several events that took place after World War I created obstacles for Turkey and Britain to restore normal diplomatic ties. Several postwar decisions made by Britain, including backing Greece in 1919 alongside Turkish minority sympathies, establishing British occupation of Constantinople, and helping Arabs together with Kurdish and Mosul support, prevented positive relations between Britain and Turkey. Turkey considered British political backing as endangering its national borders.

British military authority held control of Mosul because the Treaty of Lausanne failed to resolve the Mosul issue. Britain approached the League of Nations in 1924 to present the unresolved Mosul issue because no solution emerged during the first year after the Treaty was signed.

Following the recommendation of an international commission established by the League of Nations on December 16, 1925, Iraq received Mosul with a condition for British Mandatory authority in Iraq to continue for 25 years (Lewis, 1968). The League faced legal opposition against its official ruling from Turkey regarding the matter. The Union failed to generate any commitment from Turkish officials for a 10-year friendliness and anti-aggression treaty. The international political environment prompted Britain and Turkey to start establishing ties between their nations. A final accord between Great Britain and Turkey emerged in June 1926. Turkey relinquished its claims for Mosul through this diplomatic treaty. Britain agreed to provide Turkey with 10 percent of Mosul's oil assets as the principal part of their bilateral agreement. Britain decided to include no Kurdish self-governance within the terms of their agreement with Turkey to secure Turkey's agreement. Under the June 1926 agreement, Britain respected Turkish policy, which banned the repatriation of Assyrians deported from Turkey during World War I. The end result of this treaty enhanced the diplomatic ties between Britain and Turkey. Throughout 1926, the hostile stance between the two nations transformed into diplomatic friendship (Lenczowski, 1982). Throughout his short period as monarch, Edward VIII sailed in the Mediterranean, where he made an official stop in Istanbul. Ismat Inunu, as an aide to Kemal, participated in Turkish delegation events, which included the May 27th King George VI English coronation and subsequent British-Turkish three loan agreements.

The British Foreign Secretary authorized a meeting with Turkish officials in Ankara as they tried to manage Mussolini's growing aggressiveness against Greece. The Germans successfully occupied both Yugoslavia and Italy during the initial months of 1941 and then captured Crete before deploying their soldiers to Libya. The anti-British rebellion in Iraq compelled Turkey to deal with Axis activities in Syria controlled by the VC Romania and Bulgaria and German troop deployments within the Aegean Island because Turkish territory became enveloped by German-occupied and politically German-influenced nations. Turkey resolves its crisis situation by remaining diplomatically close to Britain. Turkey relied on Britain for the majority of arms acquisitions.

The British Cabinet executed the move to permit Turkey to fight as an Allied force in December 1942. British Prime Minister Churchill met Turkish President Ismat Inunu in the Turkish town of Adana in February 1943 (Mongol & Andrew, 2002). British military commanders from the Middle East area made a swift trip to Ankara shortly afterward. The danger of German air raids made Turkey incapable of joining the Allied war effort. Both London and Washington continue their efforts to encourage Turkey to become a war participant. President Roosevelt and British Prime Minister Churchill made a joint plea to Turkish president Inunu for permission to use Turkish air bases by Allied forces. The offer received limited but implicit approval from Inunu. Turkey did not become an allied fighter in World War II.

4.2 Turkish – French relations

The dispute between Turkey and France over Alexandretta grows more complex because Syria plays an active role as a third party. Under the 1921 Franklin-Bouillon Agreement, the governing body of Alexandretta received a designated rule that included Turkish inhabitants at 40%. The special regime operated for multiple years. Turkey has not surrendered its aspirations of negotiating an agreement with France. France accepted Syrian independence in the 1936 AD Franco-Syrian arrangement, which triggered serious complications regarding the issue. Turkey voiced its firm opposition against French authorities who presented the dispute to the League of Nations' council. The council approved the autonomous arrangement of Alexandretta in May 1937 through mutual agreement while ordering the army to leave and protect Turkish citizens in the region. The district received Turkish-French joint ruling authority through an agreement that Turkey and France signed on July 3rd, 1938 (Mather, 2014).

The leaders of Turkish and French military forces planned to occupy Alexandretta, and future political decisions would come from future local elections according to a new agreement. Out of 40 seats in the September general

election's parliament, the Turkish party secured 20 victories. During that same month, the Alexandretta legislature declared the territory an independent nation called the Republic of Hatay. Under the new Republic of Hatay, the Turkish flag was ascended, and Turkish dominance became complete across Hatay. A non-aggression pact between Turkey and France from June 23rd, 1939, declared that Turkey could absorb Hatay territory. The establishment of friendly relations between Turkey and France received its final clearance with this development. The governance of Turkish-French relations took place under the supervision of Anglo-French-Turkish relations. Throughout World War II, France functioned as Britain did by working toward Turkish involvement in warfare. At this time, Turkish foreign policy pursued independence from invasion and foreign occupation, so Turkey refused to comply. Turkey enforced its ban on Foreign ships passing through the Straits in 1939 based on Articles 20 and 21 of the Montreux Straits Convention. When Germany took control of France in June 1940, and Italy started its invasion of Greece in October 1940, the conflict extended into the Mediterranean region (Palmar & Alen, 2011). As per the agreements of the Anglo-French-Turkish alliance, Turkey had to take action against the invasion of Italy. When the war developed through total strategic shifts, France, Romania, and Bulgaria put their support behind Germany, and Turkey decided to stay out of battle.

4.3 Turkish-German Relations

Turkey and Germany enjoyed historical friendship while Turkish people recalled their wartime alliances during World War I. Both states shared mutual objections toward the Allies after World War I despite holding different political stances during the war. The Allies signed a damaging agreement, which brought great shame to both countries. Due to the positive post-war conditions, the Weimar Republic managed to easily forge an alliance with Turkey. Turkey welcomed numerous German professors and expert educators from construction companies to establish an environment for rebuilding historical bilateral friendship between both states under Mustafa Kemal's rule. Following Hitler becoming leader, the Turkish population had concerns about his totalitarian government style, yet they failed to reach any settlement throughout the 1930s. German product imports from Turkey occurred at prices that exceeded international market prices by a range of 20% to 40% (Parry & Richar, 2003). In 1939, Germany managed to procure almost 50% of Turkey's exports worldwide. The German government rejected Turkey's system of world power control since they sought substantial shifts in global system guidelines. The German strategic outlook stretches to the extent of its premodern planning method. Before the Euro came into focus, Turkey did not need recognition in the international arena. The establishment of Rome-Birlon Maitri eventually resulted in a deterioration of German-Turkish political relations. Germany's backing of Italy's aggressive regional policies caused hostility from Germany because Turkey gained support from Turkey during the 1937 Christian Neon Conference for its homecoming in the Mediterranean region. Britain's idea to create alliances with France damaged Germany in a significant way. In April 1939, Hitler dispatched Franz Von Papen as an ambassador to Ankara to stop Turkey from entering the Paschma alliance. Ambassador Papen directed Turkish diplomacy toward remaining both nonaligned and independent of Anglo-French relations for approximately one year from 1939 to 1940. During the Second period (1941-1943), the Turkish leader focused on developing significant economic and political-military ties between his Ankara government and Berlin. He performed diplomatic work during the last period (1944) to stop Turkey from becoming involved in the conflict.

Turkey manifestly signed a bilateral agreement with Germany in 1941 after German power gained complete control in the Balkan region. A 10-year agreement avoiding hostility between German and Turkish forces was finalized on June 18th, 1941. Turkey entered the agreement for self-protection against impending German military engagements. The agreement does not affect current agreements that either party has previously made. Turkey entered into a 1941 agreement with Germany to sell chrome for above world market value totaling 90,000 tons. Germany would deliver war materials to Turkey worth 100 million Turkish pounds according to the agreement (Lenczowski, 1982).

During 1941 and 1942, Papen made continuous attempts to strengthen German-Turkish foreign relations. Southward German expansion resulted in favorable territorial conditions, which helped the country take control of Muslim-dominated Soviet territories (Crimea and Caucasus) to define diplomatic relations with Turkey. The German Foreign Officers showed a willingness to hire Turkish experts who would establish autonomous governance systems in the Turkish-speaking areas. During the discussion of the regional futures, Turkey received exclusive rights to make

decisions. Germany seeks Turkey's backing through this agreement. The German policy drew Turkish pan-Turanists together with some military officers but did not produce Turkish official agreements with Germany. Germany's situation started to decline after both the Battle of Stalingrad and the Anglo-American invasion of North Africa in 1942. Germany experienced severe diplomatic challenges at that time. During the summer of 1944, Turkey imposed diplomatic relations rupture with Germany along with blocking chrome exports to Germany through their coastal waters, which Turkey used to prevent German shipping activities (Mather, 2014).

4.4 Turkish-Soviet relations

The dispute over Mosul between Britain and Turkey after World War I created conditions that enhanced the relationships between Soviet Russia and Turkey. Britain received approval from the League of Nations, so Turkey chose to build new relations with Russia. A ten-year alliance agreement was established in 1925 by the two parties. Friendly relations between these nations developed into a substantial economic partnership. The Soviet Union provided Turkey with industrial loans together with technical support for executing Turkey's five-year industrial plan in 1934. The relationship in this regard existed on the brink of the Second World War. The Western World's alliance with Turkey was among the various factors causing this situation. Eventually, in 1939, Britain and France accepted communist Soviet Union cooperation despite their socialist opposition because they regarded Germany as an endangerment to worldwide peace generic term. The leaders of Turkey experienced dismay when the Soviet and German countries signed their August 23, 1939 agreement (Lenczowski, 1982). The German invasion of Poland on September 1st and the Soviet occupation of eastern Poland provinces on September 17th created enormous political pressure. Moscow worked to obtain Soviet backing for Turkish independence and territorial sovereignty in late September by establishing the Sukru Sracoglu Agreement. Russia developed France-Turkey-Germany closeness because of its rising alliance with Germany. German foreign policy at that time set Turkey's prevention of Western alliances as its main strategic goal owing to multiple underlying factors. The accomplishment of these goals proved too difficult for Germany to achieve on its own. Germany believed Turkey could achieve this through its nearby and influential neighboring nation, Russia (Khan & Kawsar, 2019).

4.5 Turkish Foreign Policy Review

Shortly after the Republic's founding, Turkey achieved notable foreign policy success through strengthening diplomatic ties with Britain and France. Through political ties with Germany and the Soviet Union, Turkey managed to introduce new economic dynamics, which led to commercial cooperation. The emergence of World War II marked a significant international obstacle in Turkey's direction of foreign policy. Feelings from the First World War's bitter experience caused Turkey to embrace diplomatic neutrality while exercising great caution. The Republic had to make large sacrifices because of this decision. Turkey conducted its foreign policy by fighting against German and Soviet interests and avoiding excessive influence from Anglo-French powers. The attempt to balance between two conflicting groups regularly caused Turkey to face displeasure from both sides. The Turkish government always followed up with concessions and attitude changes to reassure parties who became angry or offended by its diplomatic policies, which prevented relationships from deteriorating seriously. Since its declaration as the Turkish Republic after the downfall of the Ottoman Empire, Turkey successfully ran its foreign policy operations.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The Ottoman Empire dedicated tremendous effort to keeping its traditional order, while multiple factors forced the empire to lose its power. Many difficulties affected Ottoman society because they originated from domestic matters and international developments. The emergence of developments throughout the empire led to a turbulent situation that the Ottomans could not adapt to. Based on all factors, both internal and external, it becomes evident that every condition required for empire decline has been present. The new Turkish Republic faced challenges as a result of dealing with worldwide powers. The Turkish government implemented an internationally recognized foreign policy achievement by forming better diplomatic relations between France and Britain. The development of political agreements between Turkey and Germany, as well as the Soviet Union, enabled Turkey to establish economic dynamics that stimulated commercial growth. The Republic of Turkey, established after the Ottoman Empire, provided successful diplomatic results, and Turkey became a significant global relations model for today's world. The world leaders may look at the neutral diplomatic strategies of Turkey to establish a comprehensible and strong bond to their neighbors as well as the global world. To avoid wars, crimes, human devastation, violation of human rights, and making a globalized nation, neutral diplomacy can play a massive role in the contemporary world. However, it was struggling to find resources on the constitutional form of the newly established Republic of Turkey where future researchers may work and boost their experiences.

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