

GALLIPOLI-GELIBOLU CANAKKALE-DARDANELLES STRAITS BATTLE, FEBRUARY 1915 – JANUARY 1916

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“Mothers who sent their sons to the war from the very far lands!
Please stop crying.
We hold your sons to our bosom.
They are tranquil here and they will repose peacefully.
As they died on these lands, we consider them as our sons.”
Mustafa Kemal Ataturk, 1934

“Of the 760 of the Wellington Battalion who had captured the height that morning, there came out only 70
unwounded or slightly wounded men.
Throughout that day not one had dreamed of leaving his post.
Their uniforms were torn, their knees broken.
They had had no water since the morning; they could talk only in whispers; their eyes were sunken; their knees
trembled; some broke down and cried.”
C. E. W. Bean, ‘The Story of Anzac,’ Sydney, 1924, Vol. II, p. 679.

INTRODUCTION

After the collapse of the Ottoman Empire at the end of World War I, the European powers divided upon themselves the spoils of the former Ottoman territory. The “Treaty of Sèvres” ensued. Three years later, after a series of military victories by the former Ottoman Brigadier General Kemal Ataturk Pasha, the European powers had to relent to Turkish pressure and replace the Treaty of Sèvres with the less oppressive “Treaty of Lausanne.”

In Turkey, a widespread fear exists that the Western powers aim, through proselytizing, to take back the lands of Turkey that they used to possess before the Ottoman conquest. A 2001 report by the National Intelligence Organization at MIT suggests that "missionaries refer to Pontos [an ancient Greek land] in the Black Sea area, Yazidism, the Chaldean [Church] and Christian Kurds in southeast Turkey, Armenians in eastern Turkey and the ancient Christian lands in the Aegean region and in Istanbul to impress people and win them over."

For eight long months, British troops, alongside those from Australia, New Zealand and Ireland, France, India, and Canada’s Newfoundland battled harsh conditions and Ottoman forces desperately fighting to protect their homeland. By the time the campaign ended, more than 130,000 men had died: at least 87,000 Ottoman soldiers and 44,000 Allied soldiers, including more than 8,700 Australians. Among the dead were 2,779 New Zealanders, about a sixth of all those who had landed on the peninsula.

In the wider story of the World War I, the Gallipoli campaign made no large mark. The number of dead, although horrific, pales in comparison with the death toll in France and Belgium during the war. However, for New Zealand, along with Australia and Turkey, the Gallipoli campaign is often claimed to have played an important part in fostering a sense of national identity.

TREATY OF SEVRES, 1920

Squabbling among the Allies delayed the signing of the peace treaty with the Ottoman Empire, which was negotiated at Sèvres in France, until August 10, 1920. The treaty confirmed French and British possession of Syria, Lebanon, Palestine, Jordan and Iraq, under the guise of a League of Nations mandate.

The Sharif Hussein ibn Ali was rewarded for his leadership of the Arab Revolt with international recognition of the Hejaz province as an independent kingdom. The treaty effectively gave the Greeks possession of eastern Thrace and 'Ionia' (western Anatolia); the Italians got the Dodecanese Islands and a 'zone of influence' in south-western Anatolia.

To the east, the Armenians were given an independent state in eastern Anatolia, while the Kurds were granted an ill-defined autonomous region and promised a referendum on independence. The Ottoman state's army was limited to 50,000 men and its navy to a dozen coastal patrol boats; it could have no air force at all.



Figure 1. Gallipoli (Gelibolu) location.

GALLIPOLI DARDANELLES CAMPAIGN

The Gallipoli Dardanelles campaign began as a move by the British and their Allies to capture Istanbul or Constantinople, repeating the history and the follies of the medieval crusades. The justification advanced by the Allies was to open a supply route to Russia. After the failed naval attempt, ground troops landed to take on the Ottoman forces. The invasion that began in April 1915 lasted for 8 months and turned into an unmitigated disaster. Both sides lost 130,000 casualties as the Allies unsuccessfully battled the Ottoman army for control of the Dardanelles Strait.

After the defeat of the naval attack, the Allies forces tried to capture Constantinople via the Gallipoli peninsula by a land assault. The amphibious assault started at dawn on April 25, 1915. British, French and their dominions' troops, including soldiers from Australia, New Zealand, India

and Newfoundland, Canada, were used. They faced months of shelling, sniper fire and sickness, before abandoning the campaign. About 45,000 Allied troops died for no material gain, and 86,000 Turkish troops died. Commander Mustafa Kemal Atatürk survived and went on to found modern Turkey.

The most disastrous battle of World War I is the British Gallipoli campaign in Turkey in 1915. It was devastating, leaving more than 50,000 British soldiers wounded and almost 100,000 dead. Winston Churchill, then First Lord of the Admiralty, was one of the main architects of the campaign. In the wake of the outcome, he was forced to resign his post and became a soldier in the war.

THE DARDANELLES AND THE STRAIT OF BOSPHORUS TREATY

There is a Treaty specifically covering the use of the Dardanelles and the Strait of Bosphorus waterways by nations of the world. That Treaty is the “Montreux Convention Regarding the Regime of the Straits.”

It is a 1936 agreement that gives Turkey control over the Bosphorus Straits and the Dardanelles and regulates the transit of naval warships. The Convention gives Turkey full control over the Straits and guarantees the free passage of civilian vessels in peacetime. It restricts the passage of naval ships not belonging to the Black Sea states. The terms of the convention have been the source of controversy over the years, most notably concerning the Soviet Union's in the past, and presently Russia's military access to the “White Waters” of the Mediterranean Sea.

Signed on July 20, 1936 at the Montreux Palace in Switzerland, it permitted Turkey to remilitarize the Straits. It went into effect on November 9, 1936 and was registered in the League of Nations Treaty Series on December 11, 1936. It is still in force today, with a few amendments.

The Convention consists of 29 Articles, four annexes and one protocol. Articles 2–7 consider the passage of merchant ships. Articles 8–22 consider the passage of war vessels. The key principle of freedom of passage and navigation is stated in articles 1 and 2. Article 1 provides that: "The High Contracting Parties recognize and affirm the principle of freedom of passage and navigation by sea in the Straits". Article 2 states that "In time of peace, merchant vessels shall enjoy complete freedom of passage and navigation in the Straits, by day and by night, under any flag with any kind of cargo."

The International Straits Commission was abolished, authorizing the full resumption of Turkish military control over the Straits and the refortification of the Dardanelles. Turkey was authorized to close the Straits to all foreign warships in wartime or when it was threatened by aggression; additionally, it was authorized to refuse transit from merchant ships belonging to countries at war with Turkey.

NAVAL AND LAND ATTACKS

The British decided to mount a naval expedition to bombard and take the Gallipoli Peninsula in Turkey; the aim was to capture Istanbul or Constantinople and knock Turkey out of the war. The Naval attack began on February 19, 1915, but the attack was abandoned after three battleships, among them the Goliath, had been sunk and three others damaged. The troops began to land on April 25, 1915 but by this time the Turks had time to prepare, and the defending armies grew to six times larger than when the campaign began. Against determined Turkish opposition, Australian and New Zealand troops won a bridgehead at "Anzac Cove" but stalemate prevailed for

the rest of the year. The operation was abandoned in January 1916. The Allies lost around 214,000 men, including more than 8,000 Australians and more than 2,700 New Zealanders [6].

The landing ground forces were pinned down by determined Ottoman snipers occupying the high ground. Corpses lingered everywhere: in the trenches, dug into parapets and decomposing in the hot sun. “Bloated cadavers bred millions of flies, dysentery and paratyphoid fever, and an inescapable, nauseating stench. On the beaches, crabs feasted on the dead; touching a stray boot would cause its contents to come scuttling out. The men of the French Foreign Legion made the best of a bad situation by harvesting the crustaceans to make a tasty bouillabaisse” [5].

The initial landings ended with so much blood in the sea that it could be seen from airplanes flying overhead. Troops, short on fresh water, were reluctant to drink desalted sea water produced by improvised boilers containing the blood of their fallen companions. Desperate attacks in the early summer and a battle of attrition followed. It was a tragic folly destined to fail from the start. In the end, the Allies were forced to evacuate their surviving troops.



Figure 2. Cannakale or Dardanelles Straits fleets.



Figure 3. The Allies' landing at Gallipuli was supposed to be covered by the sunk HMS Goliath and other naval ships by bombarding the Ottoman shore positions.



Figure 4. HMS Goliath (Golly), an older Royal Navy vessel, was brought out of retirement and was equipped with 12-inch guns. In foggy conditions and under cover of darkness on the night of May 12-13 1915, the Turkish torpedo boat Muavenet-i Milliye sailed through the narrows and hit HMS Goliath with three torpedoes, sinking it within three and a half minutes with 570 members of its crew [6].



Figure 5. The HMS Goliath sinking spot marked by a buoy. Source: Imperial War Museum.

CANNAKALE STRAITS BATTLE, MARCH 18, 1915

On March 18, 1915, the Ottoman forces repelled an attempt by the British and the French to invade Istanbul via the Canakkale or Dardanelles Straits. The Dardanelles, formerly known as the Hellespont, is a narrow strait in northwestern Turkey connecting the Aegean Sea to the Sea of

Marmara. Northwestern Turkey is divided by a complex waterway that connects the Black Sea to the Sea of Marmara and the Aegean Sea. The channel passing between the Black Sea and the Sea of Marmara is named the Istanbul Boghazi, more commonly called the Bosphorus. Istanbul is positioned at the south end of the Bosphorus. The Sea of Marmara is connected to the Aegean Sea by a channel called the Canakkale Boghazi, named after the city of Cannacale, also known as the Dardanelles Strait. The word Dardanelles is based on a mythical survivor of Troy, Dardanos. Canakkale's other historic name is the Hellespont, coming from the mythology of the Golden Fleece, used in ancient time in describing the region.

Although the Ottomans had previously been allies of the French and the British against the Russians, a series of events leading up to World War I forced a shift in the existing alliances. The Ottomans were already under siege from the east by the advancing Russians throughout much of the 19th century. At the same time, Russian-sponsored independence campaigns were squeezing the Turks out of the Balkans. These wars severely exhausted the Ottoman budget and left them unable to repay loans borrowed from the British and the French.

The Greeks were also marching towards Thrace, capturing the strategic city of Selanik or Thessaloniki from the Ottomans on their way in 1913. This defeat of the Ottomans confirmed their status as the "Sick Man of Europe," with the British and the French losing hope in their long-time Ottoman allies. The British and the French formed an alliance with the Greeks to protect their interests in the Aegean Straits against Russian ally Bulgaria as well as an increasingly threatening Germany in central Europe.

This newly established alliance, at the expense of the Ottomans, placed the Ottomans in a precarious position. Whereas earlier they faced threats on the fronts in the Caucasus and Balkans, the Ottomans suddenly found themselves surrounded by hostile forces, as southern neighbors Cyprus and Egypt were already under British military colonial occupation.

British operations in the Middle-East placed the Ottoman interests in the Arabian region in danger. This left the Ottomans with no other choice but to join World War I on the side of Germany, prompting the British and French Allies to launch a campaign to occupy Istanbul, the Ottoman capital.

From April 25, 1915, to January 9, 1916, a joint British and French operation was mounted to capture the Ottoman capital of Istanbul and secure a sea route to Russia. British commander Admiral Sackville Carden developed a three-stage plan to pass from the Canakkale Straits. The plan involved the neutralization of the Turkish forts guarding the entrance, then clearing of the Turkish naval minefield, and finally a drive into the Sea of Marmara.

The Allied forces naval attack began on February 19, 1915. Until March 13, 1915 they continuously bombarded the Ottoman forts and opened a way for the minesweepers. But they were met with stiff resistance. The Allies' minesweepers could only clean the first five miles of the straits.

By March 18, 1915 the Allied forces had destroyed the Seddulbahir and Ertugrul forts located on the European shore and Kumkale, as well as the Orhaniye forts located on the Asian shore. The Allied Fleet appeared in the entrance of the channel on the morning of March 18, 1915. Britain's HMS Queen Elizabeth ship led the first wave up the channel. HMS Queen Elizabeth's target was the Mecidiye fort while the other vessel HMS Lord Nelson would bomb the Namazgah fort. The HMS Inflexible's aim was to destroy the Hamidiye fort.

As the French ships joined the attack, the Bouvet hit a mine and within two minutes started sinking, with the loss of almost all her crew. The British ships HMS Irresistible and HMS Ocean also hit mines and their steam boilers and ammunition exploded hours later.

Later, in foggy conditions and under cover of darkness on the night of May 12-13 1915, the Turkish torpedo boat Muavenet-i Milliye sailed through the narrows and hit HMS Goliath with three torpedoes, sinking it within three and a half minutes with 570 of its crew [6].

The allies withdrew the remaining ships, marking one of the most critical victories for the destiny of the Ottomans. Both the March 18th Naval Victory and the Galipoli or Gelibolu land victories restored the Ottoman Army's prestige in the world and constituted a milestone in the Turkish nation's struggle for independence. According to Turkish sources, the Allies' total casualties were 187,000 soldiers while the Turkish casualties reached 211,000 soldiers. The victory gave the Turkish nation, which had been stagnating since the 18th century, a sudden and significant morale boost that carried through into the following land operation, where the allies were met by an uncompromising Turkish defense.

THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE INVOLVEMENT IN WORLD WAR I

Earlier, on October 29, 1914, at the Black Sea off the Russian coast, with preemptive naval attacks against Odessa, Sebastopol, Yalta and other Russian cities, the Ottoman Empire spanning from the south eastern edge of Europe to the Arabian Desert, Turkey and the Caucasus mountains, plunges into the First World War that was raging in Europe as an European affair claiming the lives of thousands of people in the trenches and on the battlefields of France.

Under the leadership of three leaders: Enver Pasha, the minister of war and architect of the Ottoman and German alliance, Talaat Pasha, minister of the interior, and Kemal Pasha, minister of the navy, the Ottoman Empire joined the war on the side of Germany and the Austro-Hungarian Empire against Britain, France and Russia who threatened it and to assure itself with a supply of weapons and ammunition after depleting its supplies in the Balkan war. The Ottoman Empire comprised over 20 million people; half of them Turks, and the rest were Arabs, Armenians, Kurds, Greeks and other minorities. The German Emperor, Wilhelm II, had sent a military mission to Istanbul, led by General Lehman von Sanders to entice the Ottomans to join the German side.

On the Caucasus front in the East, the Russian army advanced into the fringes of Eastern Anatolia, the heart of the Ottoman Empire. To gain control of the oil fields in Persia, now the Islamic Republic of Iran, English and Indian troops landed at Basra, in the region of Mesopotamia, today's Iraq. At the Dardanelles, the British warships were bombarding the coastal defenses. The Ottoman Empire found itself under attack on three wide fronts.

German General von Sanders was assigned the defense of the Dardanelles strait and Istanbul. Enver Pasha led the Ottoman third army against Russia, only to fall victim to the Russian winter much like French Napoleon Bonaparte before him and German Adolf Hitler afterwards. His army was unprepared and lacked winter gear, heavy clothing, tents, food and ammunition and was weakened by the previous Balkan Wars of 1912-1913 and had lost its equipment and a quarter million men. The soldiers taken prisoner would succumb to the cold and fall to their death frozen down.

LANDING AT THE GALIPOLI PENINSULA

Trench warfare was bogged down in France and prevailed in 1915 during World War I in Europe and the fighting armies reached a stalemate. To placate public opinion and avoid popular unrest, the British leadership embraced a political rather than a military relevant idea advanced by Winston Churchill, First Lord of the Admiralty and an avid crusading warmonger of a joint naval

and land offensive against the Dardanelles strait to sail into the Bosphorus and dominate Istanbul; the old Eastern Christian Empire capital of Constantinople, to force the Ottoman Empire into surrender.

Lord Horatio Kitchener, Secretary of war for Britain initially strongly opposed the idea that would drain troops and equipment away from the European front. Winston Churchill repackaged the idea into a purely naval attack. Lord Kitchener eventually accepted the flawed naval attack idea.

The Royal Navy in February and March of 1915, using 16 old naval vessels that could not stand up to the German Navy, met stiff resistance from the Ottoman forces, had many of its vessels sunk by coastal defenses, mines, torpedo boats, submarines, and was unable to fight its way through the Dardanelles to place the Ottoman capital Istanbul under its naval guns' threat.

On March 18, 1915, the British and French allies began their attack to invade Istanbul with a naval vessels bombardment of the Turkish artillery positions along the coast of the Dardanelles strait losing three large battleships in the process: The Irresistible, Ocean and Bouvel, and other vessels were crippled. Six warships were sunk by undetected mines.

After the defeat of the naval attack, it was decided that ground forces were necessary to face the Turkish mobile artillery. To save face, the British military in its traditional notorious use of other national citizens under British officers' command in its wars, hastily assembled an expeditionary force primarily formed of Australian, New Zealand, French, Senegal and Indian troops to land on the beaches and take up the hills of the Gallipoli peninsula.

According to the Commonwealth War Graves Commission, about 1.1 million soldiers from undivided India at the time, which includes today's India, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Burma, were sent to fight in World War I between 1914 and 1918 in France, Belgium, Egypt and the Middle East. Indian soldiers earned more than 9,200 gallantry awards for their bravery, and about 60,000 Indian soldiers were killed in the war. In addition, during the four years of war, India sent abroad around 172,815 animals, including horses, mules and ponies, camels, bullocks (castrated bulls; steers) and dairy cattle. These included 8,970 ponies and mules, sometimes obtained from abroad but trained in India before being shipped to the war zones.

The result was another disaster: at the V beach, the Australian soldiers emerging one by one from the sally ports of the collier River Clyde were callously thrown in harm's way and mowed out by machine-gun fire from the Seddülbahir fort. Out of the first 200 soldiers to disembark, only 21 men made it to the beach.

STIFF RESISTANCE

The British leadership expected a swift and decisive victory based on an intercepted German message to the effect that the Ottoman shore batteries were running low on ammunition, and not the savage fighting that ensued from determined defenders fighting in defense of their homeland and their faith. Disease spread among the troops as dysentery, cholera and typhus. The British-led force suffered losses in fighting and disease of 205,000 soldiers, and 47,000 French soldiers; and eventually had to withdraw.

It was a decisive victory for the Ottoman forces under the leadership of Mustafa Kemal Ataturk, who organized a counter offensive by the Ottoman Fifth Army against the landing troops without receiving orders to do so.

Yet, despite winning the battle, Turkey eventually lost the war, and surrendered Istanbul to the British forces at the end of the war.

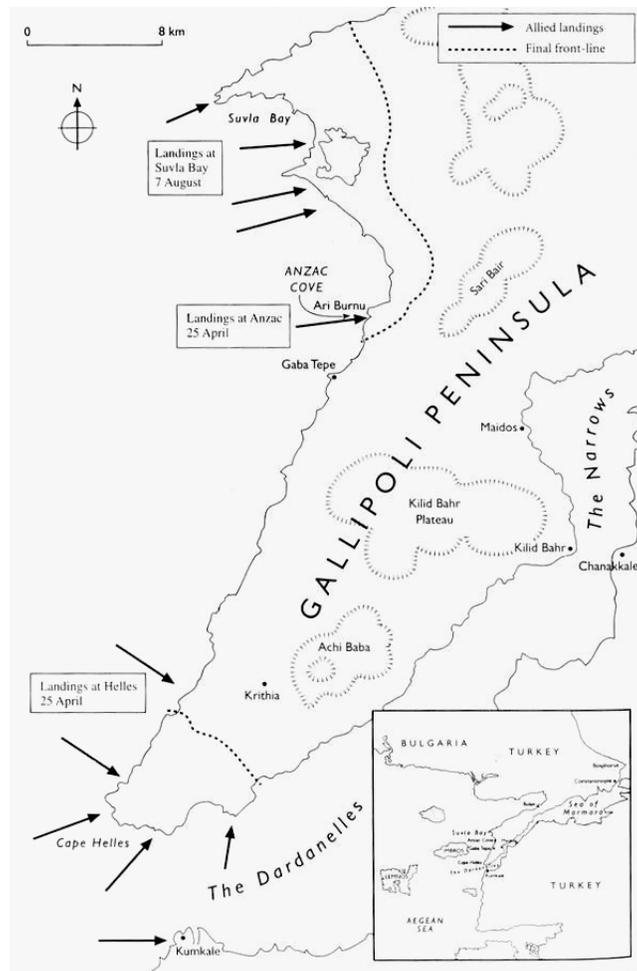


Figure 6. Map of the Gallipoli Peninsula and the Dardanelles Straits.



Figure 7. Mustafa Kemal Atatürk.



Figure 8. Turkish artillery unit holding the high ground at Gallipoli.



Figure 9. The Australians and New Zealanders stranded at the Anzac (Australian and New Zealand Army Corps) cove landing site at Gallipoli.



Figure 10. Gallipoli disease and fighting casualties.



Figure 11. British barges loaded with Gallipoli victims.

Table 1. Victims of the Gallipoli campaign, 1915-1916.

Nationality	Involved Troops	Number of casualties	Casualties in involved troops [percent]
Turkey	400,000	86,000	21.5
UK	350,000	25,000	7.1
France	79,000	25,000	31.6
Australia and New Zealand Army Corps (ANZAC)	74,000	10,000	13.5
Total	903,000	146,000	16.2



Figure 12. Australia New Zealand Army Corps (ANZAC) graves at Gallipoli.



Figure 13. Shrapnel valley cemetery at Gallipoli.

LANDING AT ANZAC, APRIL 25, 1915, AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND INVOLVEMENT

Each year on Anzac Day, New Zealanders and Australians mark the anniversary of the Gallipoli landings of April 25, 1915. On that day, thousands of young men, far from their homes, stormed the beaches on the Gallipoli Peninsula in what is now Turkey.



Figure 14. Landing at Anzac, (Australian and New Zealand Army Corps), cove.

Key dates were:

April 25, 1915: Gallipoli landings,

May 8, 1915: New Zealand troops take part in Second Battle of Krithia,

August 8, 1915: New Zealand troops capture Chunuk Bair,

December 15-20, 1915: Troops evacuated from Anzac area.

New Zealand's path to Gallipoli began with the outbreak of war between the UK and Germany in August 1914. Prime Minister William Massey pledged New Zealand's support as part of the British Empire and set about raising a military force for service overseas. The 8,454-strong New Zealand Expeditionary Force (NZEF) left Wellington in October 1914, and after linking up with the Australian Imperial Force (AIF) steamed in convoy across the Indian Ocean, expecting to join British forces fighting on the Western Front in Europe.

In early November 1914, the Ottoman Empire entered the war on the side of the Central Powers (Germany, Austria-Hungary and Bulgaria). This changed the strategic situation, especially in the Middle East, where Ottoman forces now posed a direct threat to the Suez Canal in Egypt as an important British shipping lane between Europe and Asia. The British authorities decided to offload the Australian and New Zealand expeditionary forces in Egypt to complete their training and bolster the British forces guarding the Suez Canal. In February 1915, elements of the NZEF helped fight off an Ottoman raid on the Suez Canal.

The NZEF's wait in Egypt ended in early April 1915, when it was transported to the Greek island of Lemnos to prepare for the invasion of the Gallipoli Peninsula. The peninsula was

considered important because it guarded the entrance to the Dardanelles Strait; a strategic waterway leading to the Sea of Marmara and, via the Bosphorus Straits, to the Black Sea. The Allied plan was to break through the straits, capture the Ottoman capital Istanbul, and knock the Ottoman Empire out of the war. Access to the straits and the Sea of Marmara would also provide the Allies with a supply line to Russia, and open up new areas in which to attack the Central Powers.

Following the failure of British and French warships to 'force' the straits, the Allies dispatched the Mediterranean Expeditionary Force (MEF) to capture the Gallipoli Peninsula. New Zealanders and Australians made up nearly half of the MEF's 75,000 troops; the rest were from Britain and Ireland, France, India and Newfoundland.

Led by Lieutenant-General Sir Ian Hamilton, the MEF launched its invasion of the Dardanelles on April 25, 1915. While British, and later French troops made the main landing at Cape Helles on the southern tip of the peninsula, Lieutenant-General Sir William Birdwood's Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (ANZAC), soon to become known as Anzacs, made a diversionary attack 20 kilometers to the north at Gaba Tepe (Kabatepe). Because of navigational errors the Anzacs landed about two kilometers north of the intended site. Instead of a flat stretch of coastline, they came ashore at Anzac Cove, a narrow beach overlooked by steep hills and ridgelines. The New Zealanders, who were part of the New Zealand and Australian Division, followed the Australians in and took up positions in the northern part of the Anzac sector.

The landings never came close to achieving their goals. Although the Allies managed to secure footholds on the peninsula, the fighting quickly degenerated into trench warfare, with the Anzacs holding a tenuous perimeter against strong Ottoman attacks. The troops endured heat, flies, the stench of unburied bodies, insufficient fresh water, and disease.

Early in May 1915, the New Zealand Infantry Brigade was ferried south to Helles, where it took part in an assault on the village of Krithia (now Alchiteppe) on May 8, 1915. The attack was a complete disaster; the New Zealanders suffered more than 800 casualties but achieved no advance.

In August 1915, the Allies launched a major offensive in an attempt to break the deadlock. The plan was to capture the high ground overlooking the Anzac sector, the Sari Bair Range, while a British force landed further north at Suvla Bay. Major-General Sir Alexander Godley's New Zealand and Australian Division played a prominent part in this offensive, with New Zealand troops capturing one of the hills, Chunuk Bair. This was the limit of the Allied advance; an Ottoman counter-attack forced the troops who had relieved the New Zealanders off Chunuk Bair, while the British failed to make any progress inland from Suvla.

In the aftermath of the Sari Bair offensive, the Allies tried to break through the Ottoman line north of Anzac, which was now linked up with the beachhead at Suvla. New Zealanders were also involved in this fighting, participating in costly attacks at Hill 60 in late August. Hill 60 turned out to be the last major Allied attack at Gallipoli. The failure of the August battles meant a return to stalemate. In mid-September 1915, the exhausted New Zealand infantry and mounted rifles were briefly withdrawn to Lemnos to rest and receive reinforcements from Egypt.

By the time the New Zealanders returned to Anzac in November 1915, the future of the campaign had been determined. Following the failure of the August 1915 offensive, the British government began questioning the value of persisting at Gallipoli, especially given the need for troops on the Western Front and at Salonika in northern Greece, where Allied forces were supporting Serbia against the Central Powers. In October 1915, the British replaced Hamilton as

commander-in-chief of the MEF. His successor, Lieutenant-General Sir Charles C. Monro, quickly proposed evacuation.

On November 22, 1915, the British decided to cut their losses and evacuate Suvla and Anzac. In contrast to earlier operations, planning moved quickly and efficiently. The evacuation of Anzac began on December 15, 1915 with 36,000 troops withdrawn over the following five nights. The last party left in the early hours of December 20, 1915, the night of the last evacuation from Suvla. British and French forces remained at Helles until January 8-9, 1916.

Gallipoli was a costly failure for the Allies: 44,000 Allied soldiers died, including more than 8,700 Australians. Among the dead were 2,779 New Zealanders – about a sixth of those who fought on the peninsula. Victory came at a high price for the Ottoman Empire, which lost 87,000 men during the campaign.

Shortly after the October 1918 Armistice with the Ottoman Empire, British and Dominion Graves Registration units landed on Gallipoli and began building permanent cemeteries for the dead of 1915-1916. During the 1920s, the Imperial War Graves Commission (the Commonwealth War Graves Commission) completed a network of Anzac and British cemeteries and memorials to the missing that still exist on the peninsula today. In 1925, the New Zealand government unveiled a New Zealand battlefield memorial on the summit of Chunuk Bair. The battlefields are now part of the 33,000 hectares Gallipoli Peninsula Historical National Park, or Peace Park.

The Gallipoli campaign was a relatively minor aspect of the First World War. The number of dead, although horrific, pales in comparison with the casualties on the Western Front in France and Belgium. Nevertheless, for New Zealand, along with Australia and Turkey, it has great significance.

In Turkey, the campaign marked the beginning of a national revival. The Ottoman hero of Gallipoli, Mustafa Kemal, would eventually become known as Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, the founding President of the Turkish Republic.

In New Zealand and Australia, Gallipoli helped foster a developing sense of national identity. Those at home were proud of how their men had performed on the world stage, establishing a reputation for fighting hard under difficult conditions.

DEFEAT OF ANGLO INDIAN CRUSADE AT KUT EL AMARA, IRAQ, 1916

Near the end of the Gallipoli battle an Anglo-Indian force was cut off and surrounded at Kut El Amara, a town about 100 miles south of Baghdad. A defensive position at Basra politically evolved into an advance up the Tigris River toward Baghdad. The Anglo-Indian force failed in its attempt, was defeated and surrendered at Kut El Amara in April 1916.

The Anglo-Indian advance was predicated on the Indian government being concerned that a holy war might be ignited in Islamic Persia and Afghanistan, thus threatening India. Flies and mosquitoes spread disease as cholera, dysentery and malaria among the troops in the southern marshes of the Tigris River. Soldiers froze during the winter nights, and were overcome by heat during the summer. Dust turned into mud when the banks of the Tigris River flooded during the rainy season.

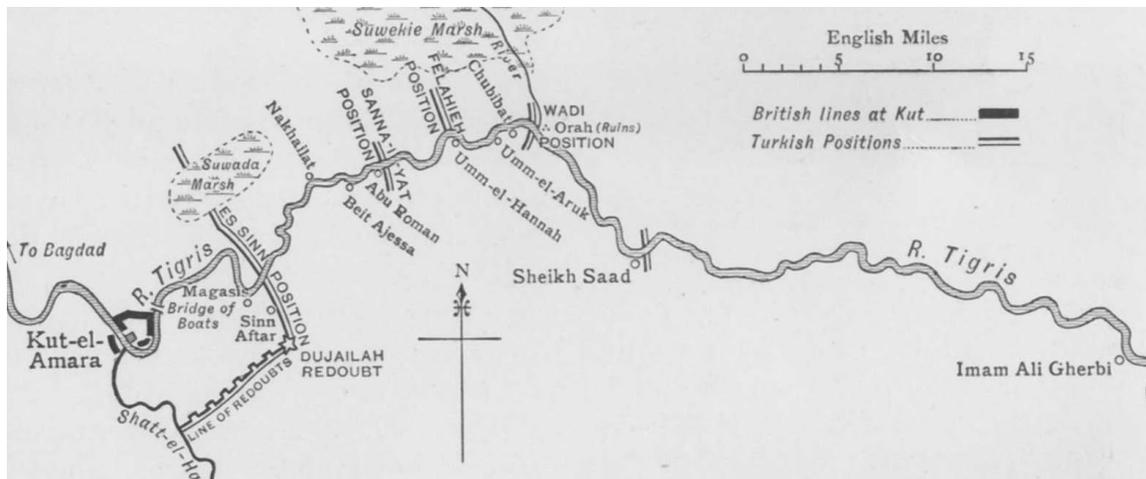


Figure 15. Kut El Amara site, Iraq.

REACTION TO THE DEFEATS

The defeats at Gallipoli and at Kut El Amara redoubled Britain efforts against the Central Powers in the Middle East. With support from the USA, and as a wealthy industrial power, Britain had the resources that the Ottoman Empire even with German assistance could not match.

In Mesopotamia, General Sir Stanley Frederick Maude assembled a large force of some 150,000 men, equipped with modern weapons of war. Basra was transformed into a deep port to receive supplies, a railway and metal road was constructed, and river transportation on the Tigris River was dramatically expanded.

British forces in Egypt were assigned General Sir Archibald Murray and additional resources. By stages, the mission of the Egyptian Expeditionary Force, EEF, evolved from the defense of Egypt at the Suez Canal into an invasion of Palestine and Syria.

SYKES-PICOT SECRET AGREEMENT, 1916

In November 1917 the war in the Middle East was overshadowed by the disclosure of the Sykes-Picot Agreement by the new Russian Bolshevik regime. In this secret 1916 deal, Britain and France had agreed to divide the Ottoman Empire's Middle Eastern territories into their own colonial zones of influence after the war.

This apparent Allied betrayal caused widespread discontent throughout the ranks of the Arab Revolt. Although the Ottoman government tried to exploit the controversy, Arab leaders gambled that the reality on the ground at the end of the war would trump any paper agreement. For Prince Faisal, Lawrence of Arabia and the Arab Northern Army, the priority was now to reach Damascus before the British did.

GENERAL ALLENBY CRUSADE INTO PALESTINE AND JERUSALEM

To cross the Sinai Desert, with its sand-storms and searing temperatures, tens of thousands of camels and drivers were required to supply the thirsty soldiers, while a water pipeline and a railway were extended to the borders of Palestine.

On March 11, 1917, General Maude's forces captured Baghdad. Two weeks later, General Murray's advance force, having cleared the Ottoman forces out of the Sinai, launched a strike with infantry and cavalry against Gaza, the gateway to Palestine, which was also occupied by the Ottoman Empire. The attempt to take Gaza failed, when Murray's commanders broke off battle and were defeated. Encouraged by a misleading report by General Murray's about the Gaza battle, London ordered another assault. This second Battle of Gaza on April 17-19, 1917, was a frontal assault with inadequate artillery support against strong defenses. It ended again in defeat and was a disaster for the British forces.

The war took a turn for the worse because of a downturn in the Allied fortunes in Europe and because of General Murray's failure to capture Gaza. Germany resumed unrestricted submarine attacks which took a large toll on Allied shipping across the Atlantic Ocean, and this threatened Britain's ability to supply and maintain the so called "side shows" taking place outside Europe.

The March 1917 Revolution led to a paralysis of the Russian military effort against both Germany and Turkey. On the Western Front, the failure of a Spring French offensive prompted a mutiny of the French Army. Britain faced the frightening prospect of being the mainstay of the war against the Central Powers, both in Europe and in the Middle East.

General Murray's failure to capture Gaza led to his replacement by General Edmund Allenby, who hoped to achieve some form of victory to boost morale at home. He was given the flexibility to repeat the feat of the medieval crusades and advance toward Jerusalem.

In October 1917, with favorable weather, General Allenby used infantry and a large mounted force including many troopers from Australia and New Zealand, to break through the Gaza to the Beer Sheba front. After a difficult advance across the Judean hills, he walked through the Jaffa Gate on December 11, 1917 as the 34th conqueror of Jerusalem, the first Christian conqueror since the crusades.

General Allenby's soldiers were conscious that they were fighting on sacred soil, and viewed themselves as modern day crusaders. General Allenby was aware that many of his soldiers and troop support workers were poor Islamic recruits from Egypt, enticed by a generous pay, and he vigorously played down any notion of a crusade.

Convinced that neither side had the means to achieve victory in France in 1918, British Prime Minister David Lloyd George made General Allenby's theatre the focus of his country's military effort. Germany's massive offensives during the first half of 1918 forced the British government to recall most of General Allenby's British soldiers to France. General Allenby retained his cavalry and received replacements for his infantry in Egypt from India, Burma and the West Indies.

General Allenby went on the offensive at the Battle of Megiddo, on September 19, 1918. Assisted by the Arab Legion troops on his right flank who were intentionally supplied only with just small arms and strictly not artillery or mobile units. They took the port of Aqaba on the Red Sea and advanced ahead of him and took Damascus. With an advantage in a large supply of gold British coins to buy the loyalty of tribal leaders, manpower, mercenaries, artillery, air power and morale, General Allenby quickly destroyed the Ottoman armies facing him. The USA Navy still packs the emergency kits of its pilots with the same one hundred-year old quarter ounce of gold British Sovereigns that is still recognized and used as women gold jewelry in bracelets and pendants throughout the region.

Once the Ottoman front was broken, the British cavalry dominated the campaign. Damascus fell on to the Arab Legion forces on October 1, 1918. Aleppo, was the last city to fall on October 26, 1918. Five days later an armistice with the Ottoman Empire came into effect.

Since September 19, 1918, General Allenby's forces had advanced hundreds of miles and netted over 75,000 prisoners.

LAWRENCE OF ARABIA AND ALLENBY'S TREACHERY

The war ended with the British occupying the territory that was to be divided among the victorious allies according to the Sykes-Picot agreement as Iraq, Palestine, Trans Jordan, Syria and Lebanon. With the Ottoman Empire destroyed and divided among the victors, Russia paralyzed by foreign intervention and civil war, and French influence limited somewhat by their minor military role in the Middle East, Britain's military success made her the dominant power in the region. The resulting settlement, which fostered an instability that continues to be a source of ethnic, tribal and sectarian conflict today, generated much controversy at the time and has continued to do so ever since.

Employing bags of gold coins, the diplomacy of Lawrence of Arabia, and unkempt promises of Arab independence, the British had encouraged an Arab uprising in 1916 against the Ottoman Empire. Although the Hashemite Dynasty Arabs were rewarded with considerable territory, they and other Arab nationalists believed that they had been "robbed" when the British did not fully deliver on their pledges of independence. They were neither allowed entrance nor participation to the Versailles Peace Conference after World War I. They believed that the western powers, especially the British, had acted with arrogance, drawing borders and creating nations with little or no regard for the wishes of the local inhabitants.

The fate of Palestine, occupied by the British, especially provoked Arab frustration and anger. In 1917 the British Foreign Secretary, Arthur Balfour, had supported the establishment of a Jewish homeland in Palestine. Iraq and Trans Jordan resulted as a compromise to satisfy the ambitions of two Hashemite allied Arab factions with a king for each division. The region was destined to suffer instability and conflict in the years since, to our day.

DISCUSSION

The Gallipoli event forced the arrogant then young Winston Churchill from office, established Turkey's iconic founder Mustafa Kemal Ataturk, and marked Australia's emergence as a nation in its own right. The British invasion was doomed to failure and disaster from the start. The blame was placed on General Sir Ian Hamilton, whose misplaced optimism, over-complicated plans, and unwillingness to recognize the gravity of the situation essentially turned likely failure into a complete disaster [5].

The Gallipoli campaign was characterized by bravery and ferocious fighting that was interspersed with chivalry demonstrated by individuals on both sides amid merciless wholesale slaughter. Like the medieval crusades, that it tried to imitate, the futility of the cause had young ordinary men fighting and dying with extraordinary courage and endurance for the futile glory and prestige of their military and political leaders.

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APPENDIX

THE DÖNMEH: THE MIDDLE EAST'S MOST WHISPERED SECRET

Wayne Madsen, Strategic Culture Foundation, Online Journal, **WORLD / Middle East**, May 10, 2011.

There is a historical "eight hundred pound gorilla" lurking in the background of almost every serious military and diplomatic incident involving Israel, Turkey, Iran, Saudi Arabia, Iraq, Greece, Armenia, the Kurds, the Assyrians, and some other players in the Middle East and southeastern Europe. It is a factor that is generally only whispered about at diplomatic receptions, news conferences, and think tank sessions due to the explosiveness and controversial nature of the subject. And it is the secretiveness attached to the subject that has been the reason for so much misunderstanding about the current breakdown in relations between Israel and Turkey, a growing warming of relations between Israel and Saudi Arabia, and increasing enmity between Saudi Arabia and Iran.

Although known to historians and religious experts, the centuries-old political and economic influence of a group known in Turkish as the "Dönme" is only beginning to cross the lips of Turks, Arabs, and Israelis who have been reluctant to discuss the presence in Turkey and elsewhere of a sect of Turks descended from a group of Sephardic Jews who were expelled from Spain during the Spanish Inquisition in the 16th and 17th centuries. These Jewish refugees from Spain were welcomed to settle in the Ottoman Empire and over the years they converted to a mystical sect of Islam that eventually mixed Jewish Kabbala and Islamic Sufi semi-mystical beliefs into a sect that eventually championed secularism in post-Ottoman Turkey. It is interesting that "Dönme" not only refers to the Jewish "untrustworthy converts" to Islam in Turkey but it is also a derogatory Turkish word for a transvestite, or someone who is claiming to be someone they are not.

The Dönme sect of Judaism was founded in the 17th century by Rabbi Sabbatai Zevi, a Kabbalist who believed he was the Messiah but was forced to convert to Islam by Sultan Mehmet IV, the Ottoman ruler. Many of the rabbi's followers, known as Sabbateans, but also "crypto-Jews," publicly proclaimed their Islamic faith but secretly practiced their hybrid form of Judaism, which was unrecognized by mainstream Jewish rabbinical authorities. Because it was against their beliefs to marry outside their sect, the Dönme created a rather secretive sub-societal clan.

The Dönme rise to power in Turkey

Many Dönme, along with traditional Jews, became powerful political and business leaders in Salonica. It was this core group of Dönme, which organized the secret Young Turks, also known as the Committee of Union and Progress, the secularists who deposed Ottoman Sultan

Abdulhamid II in the 1908 revolution, proclaimed the post-Ottoman Republic of Turkey after World War I, and who instituted a campaign that stripped Turkey of much of its Islamic identity after the fall of the Ottomans. Abdulhamid II was vilified by the Young Turks as a tyrant, but his only real crime appears to have been to refuse to meet Zionist leader Theodore Herzl during a visit to Constantinople in 1901 and reject Zionist and Dönme offers of money in return for the Zionists to be granted control of Jerusalem.

Like other leaders who have crossed the Zionists, Sultan Abdulhamid II appears to have sealed his fate with the Dönme with this statement to his Ottoman court: “Advise Dr. Herzl not to take any further steps in his project. I cannot give away even a handful of the soil of this land for it is not my own, it belongs to the entire Islamic nation. The Islamic nation fought jihad for the sake of this land and had watered it with their blood. The Jews may keep their money and millions. If the Islamic Khalifate state is one day destroyed then they will be able to take Palestine without a price! But while I am alive, I would rather push a sword into my body than see the land of Palestine cut and given away from the Islamic state.” After his ouster by Ataturk’s Young Turk Dönme in 1908, Abdulhamid II was jailed in the Dönme citadel of Salonica. He died in Constantinople in 1918, three years after Ibn Saud agreed to a Jewish homeland in Palestine and one year after Lord Balfour deeded Palestine away to the Zionists in his letter to Baron Rothschild.

One of the Young Turk leaders in Salonica was Mustafa Kemal Ataturk, the founder of the Republic of Turkey. When Greece achieved sovereignty over Salonica in 1913, many Dönme, unsuccessful at being re-classified Jewish, moved to Constantinople, later re-named Istanbul. Others moved to Izmir, Bursa, and Ataturk’s newly-proclaimed capital and future seat of Ergenekon power, Ankara.

Some texts suggest that the Dönme numbered no more than 150,000 and were mainly found in the army, government, and business. However, other experts suggest that the Dönme may have represented 1.5 million Turks and were even more powerful than believed by many and extended to every facet of Turkish life. One influential Dönme, Tevfik Rustu Arak, was a close friend and adviser to Ataturk and served as Turkey’s Foreign Minister from 1925 to 1938.

Ataturk, who was reportedly himself a Dönme, ordered that Turks abandon their own Muslim-Arabic names. The name of the first Christian emperor of Rome, Constantine, was erased from the largest Turkish city, Constantinople. The city became Istanbul, after the Ataturk government in 1923 objected to the traditional name. There have been many questions about Ataturk’s own name, since “Mustapha Kemal Ataturk” was a pseudonym. Some historians have suggested that Ataturk adopted his name because he was a descendant of none other than Rabbi Zevi, the self-proclaimed Messiah of the Dönme! Ataturk also abolished Turkey’s use of the Arabic script and forced the country to adopt the western alphabet.

Modern Turkey: a secret Zionist state controlled by the Dönme

Ataturk’s suspected strong Jewish roots, information about which was suppressed for decades by a Turkish government that forbade anything critical of the founder of modern Turkey, began bubbling to the surface, first, mostly outside of Turkey and in publications written by Jewish authors. The 1973 book, *The Secret Jews*, by Rabbi Joachim Prinz, maintains that Ataturk and his finance minister, Djavid Bey, were both committed Dönme and that they were in good company because “too many of the Young Turks in the newly formed revolutionary Cabinet prayed to Allah, but had their real prophet [Sabbatai Zevi, the Messiah of Smyrna].” In *The Forward* of January 28, 1994, Hillel Halkin wrote in *The New York Sun* that Ataturk recited the Jewish Shema Yisrael

(“Hear O Israel”), saying that it was “my prayer too.” The information is recounted from an autobiography by journalist Itamar Ben-Avi, who claims Ataturk, then a young Turkish army captain, revealed he was Jewish in a Jerusalem hotel bar one rainy night during the winter of 1911. In addition, Ataturk attended the Semsi Effendi grade school in Salonica, run by a Dönmeh named Simon Zevi. Halkin wrote in the New York Sun article about an email he received from a Turkish colleague: “I now know – know (and I haven’t a shred of doubt) – that Ataturk’s father’s family was indeed of Jewish stock.”

It was Ataturk’s and the Young Turks’ support for Zionism, the creation of a Jewish homeland in Palestine, after World War I and during Nazi rule in Europe that endeared Turkey to Israel and vice versa. An article in *The Forward* of May 8, 2007, revealed that Dönmeh dominated Turkish leadership “from the president down, as well as key diplomats . . . and a great part of Turkey’s military, cultural, academic, economic, and professional elites” kept Turkey out of a World War II alliance with Germany, and deprived Hitler of a Turkish route to the Baku oil fields.” In his book, *The Donme: Jewish Converts, Muslim Revolutionaries and Secular Turks*, Professor Marc David Baer wrote that many advanced to exalted positions in the Sufi religious orders.

Israel has always been reluctant to describe the Turkish massacre of the Armenians by the Turks in 1915 as “genocide.” It has always been believed that the reason for Israel’s reticence was not to upset Israel’s close military and diplomatic ties with Turkey. However, more evidence is being uncovered that the Armenian genocide was largely the work of the Dönmeh leadership of the Young Turks. Historians like Ahmed Refik, who served as an intelligence officer in the Ottoman army, averred that it was the aim of the Young Turks to destroy the Armenians, who were mostly Christian. The Young Turks, under Ataturk’s direction, also expelled Greek Christians from Turkish cities and attempted to commit a smaller-scale genocide of the Assyrians, who were also mainly Christian.

One Young Turk from Salonica, Mehmet Talat, was the official who carried out the genocide of the Armenians and Assyrians. A Venezuelan mercenary who served in the Ottoman army, Rafael de Nogales Mendez, noted in his annals of the Armenian genocide that Talat was known as the “renegade Hebrew of Salonica.” Talat was assassinated in Germany in 1921 by an Armenian whose entire family was lost in the genocide ordered by the “renegade Hebrew.” It is believed by some historians of the Armenian genocide that the Armenians, known as good businessmen, were targeted by the business-savvy Dönmeh because they were considered to be commercial competitors.

It is not, therefore, the desire to protect the Israeli-Turkish alliance that has caused Israel to eschew any interest in pursuing the reasons behind the Armenian genocide, but Israel’s and the Dönmeh’s knowledge that it was the Dönmeh leadership of the Young Turks that not only murdered hundreds of thousands of Armenians and Assyrians but who also stamped out Turkey’s traditional Muslim customs and ways. Knowledge that it was Dönmeh, in a natural alliance with the Zionists of Europe, who were responsible for the deaths of Armenian and Assyrian Christians, expulsion from Turkey of Greek Orthodox Christians, and the cultural and religious eradication of Turkish Islamic traditions, would issue forth in the region a new reality. Rather than Greek and Turkish Cypriots living on a divided island, Armenians holding a vendetta against the Turks, and Greeks and Turks feuding over territory, all the peoples attacked by the Dönmeh would realize that they had a common foe that was their actual persecutor.

Challenging Dönmeh rule: Turkey’s battle against the Ergenekon

It is the purging of the Kemalist adherents of Ataturk and his secular Dönme regime that is behind the investigation of the Ergenekon conspiracy in Turkey. Ergenekon's description matches up completely with the Dönme presence in Turkey's diplomatic, military, judicial, religious, political, academic, business, and journalist hierarchy. Ergenekon attempted to stop the reforms instituted by successive non-Dönme Turkish leaders, including the re-introduction of traditional Turkish Islamic customs and rituals, by planning a series of coups, some successful like that which deposed Prime Minister Necmettin Erbakan's Refah (Welfare) Islamist government in 1996 and some unsuccessful, like Operation Sledgehammer, which was aimed at deposing Prime Minister Recep Tayyip Erdogan in 2003. Some Islamist-leaning reformists, including Turkish President Turgut Ozal and Prime Minister Bulent Ecevit, died under suspicious circumstances. Deposed democratically-elected Prime Minister Adnan Menderes was hanged in 1961, following a military coup.

American politicians and journalists, whose knowledge of the history of countries like Turkey and the preceding Ottoman Empire, is often severely lacking, have painted the friction between Israel's government and the Turkish government of Prime Minister Erdogan as based on Turkey's drift to Islamism and the Arab world. Far from it, Erdogan and his Justice and Development Party (AKP) seem to have finally seen a way to break free from the domination and cruelty of the Dönme, whether in the form of Kemalist followers of Ataturk or nationalist schemers and plotters in Ergenekon. But with Turkey's "Independence Day" has come vitriol from the Dönme and their natural allies in Israel and the Israel Lobby in the United States and Europe. Turkey as a member of the European Union was fine for Europe as long as the Dönme remained in charge and permitted Turkey's wealth to be looted by central bankers like has occurred in Greece.

When Israel launched its bloody attack on the Turkish Gaza aid vessel, the Mavi Marmara, on May 31, 2010, the reason was not so much the ship's running of the Israeli blockade of Gaza. The brutality of the Israelis in shooting unarmed Turks and one Turkish-American, some at point blank range, according to a UN report, indicated that Israel was motivated by something else: vengeance and retaliation for the Turkish government's crackdown on Ergenekon, the purging of the Turkish military and intelligence senior ranks of Dönme, and reversing the anti-Muslim religious and cultural policies set down by the Dönme's favorite son, Ataturk, some ninety years before. In effect, the Israeli attack on the Mavi Marmara was in retaliation for Turkey's jailing of several top Turkish military officers, journalists, and academics, all accused of being part of the Ergenekon plot to overthrow the AKP government in 2003. Hidden in the Ergenekon coup plot is that the Dönme and Ergenekon are connected through their history of being Kemalists, ardent secularists, pro-Israeli, and pro-Zionist.

With tempers now flaring between Iran on one side and Israel, Saudi Arabia, and the United States on the other, as the result of a dubious claim by U.S. law enforcement that Iran was planning to carry out the assassination of the Saudi ambassador to the United States on American soil, the long-standing close, but secretive relationship between Israel and Saudi Arabia is coming to the forefront. The Israeli-Saudi connection had flourished during Operation Desert Storm, when both countries were on the receiving end of Saddam Hussein's Scud missiles.

What will surprise those who may already be surprised about the Dönme connection to Turkey, is the Dönme connection to the House of Saud in Saudi Arabia.

An Iraqi Mukhabarat (General Military Intelligence Directorate) Top Secret report, "The Emergence of Wahhabism and its Historical Roots," dated September 2002 and released on March 13, 2008, by the U.S. Defense Intelligence Agency in translated English form, points to the

Dönme roots of the founder of the Saudi Wahhabi sect of Islam, Muhammad ibn Abdul Wahhab. Much of the information is gleaned from the memoirs of a “Mr. Humfer,” (as spelled in the DIA report, “Mr. Hempher” as spelled the historical record) a British spy who used the name “Mohammad,” claimed to be an Azeri who spoke Turkish, Persian, and Arabic and who made contact with Wahhab in the mid-18th century with a view of creating a sect of Islam that would eventually bring about an Arab revolt against the Ottomans and pave the way for the introduction of a Jewish state in Palestine. Humfer’s memoirs are recounted by the Ottoman writer and admiral Ayyub Sabri Pasha in his 1888 work, “The Beginning and Spreading of Wahhabism.”

In his book, *The Dönme Jews*, D. Mustafa Turan writes that Wahhab’s grandfather, Tjen Sulayman, was actually Tjen Shulman, a member of the Jewish community of Basra, Iraq. The Iraqi intelligence report also states that in his book, *The Dönme Jews and the Origin of the Saudi Wahhabis*, Rifat Salim Kabar reveals that Shulman eventually settled in the Hejaz, in the village of al-Ayniyah in what is now Saudi Arabia, where his grandson founded the Wahhabi sect of Islam. The Iraqi intelligence report states that Shulman had been banished from Damascus, Cairo, and Mecca for his “quackery.” In the village, Shulman sired Abdul Wahhab. Abdel Wahhab’s son, Muhammad, founded modern Wahhabism.

The Iraqi report also makes some astounding claims about the Saud family. It cites Abdul Wahhab Ibrahim al-Shammari’s book, *The Wahhabi Movement: The Truth and Roots*, which states that King Abdul Aziz Ibn Saud, the first Kingdom of Saudi Arabia monarch, was descended from Mordechai bin Ibrahim bin Moishhe, a Jewish merchant also from Basra. In Nejd, Moishhe joined the Aniza tribe and changed his name to Markhan bin Ibrahim bin Musa. Eventually, Mordechai married off his son, Jack Dan, who became Al-Qarn, to a woman from the Anzah tribe of the Nejd. From this union, the future Saud family was born.

The Iraqi intelligence document reveals that the researcher Mohammad Sakher was the subject of a Saudi contract murder hit for his examination into the Sauds’ Jewish roots. In Said Nasir’s book, *The History of the Saud Family*, it is maintained that in 1943, the Saudi ambassador to Egypt, Abdullah bin Ibrahim al Muffadal, paid Muhammad al Tamami to forge a family tree showing that the Sauds and Wahhabs were one family that descended directly from the Prophet Mohammed.

At the outset of World War I, a Jewish British officer from India, David Shakespeare, met with Ibn Saud in Riyadh and later led a Saudi army that defeated a tribe opposed to Ibn Saud. In 1915, Ibn Saud met with the British envoy to the Gulf region, Bracey Cocas. Cocas made the following offer to Ibn Saud: “I think this is a guarantee for your endurance as it is in the interest of Britain that the Jews have a homeland and existence, and Britain’s interests are, by all means, in your interest.” Ibn Saud, the descendant of Dönme from Basra, responded: “Yes, if my acknowledgement means so much to you, I acknowledge thousand times granting a homeland to the Jews in Palestine or other than Palestine.” Two years later, British Foreign Secretary Lord Balfour, in a letter to Baron Walter Rothschild, a leader of the British Zionists, stated: “His Majesty’s government view with favor the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people . . .” The deal had the tacit backing of two of the major players in the region, both descendant from Dönme Jews who supported the Zionist cause, Kemal Ataturk and Ibn Saud. The present situation in the Middle East should be seen in this light but the history of the region has been purged by certain religious and political interests for obvious reasons.

After World War I, the British facilitated the coming to power of the Saud regime in the former Hejaz and Nejd provinces of the Ottoman Empire. The Sauds established Wahhabism as the state religion of the new Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and, like the Kemalist Dönme in Turkey,

began to move against other Islamic beliefs and sects, including the Sunnis and Shi'as. The Wahhabi Saudis accomplished what the Kemalist Dönme were able to achieve in Turkey: a fractured Middle East that was ripe for Western imperialistic designs and laid the groundwork for the creation of the Zionist state of Israel.

Deep states and Dönme

During two visits to Turkey in 2010, I had the opportunity of discussing the Ergenekon “deep state” with leading Turkish officials. It was more than evident that discussions about the Ergenekon network and its “foreign” connections are a highly-sensitive subject. However, it was also whispered by one high-ranking Turkish foreign policy official that there were other “deep states” in surrounding nations and Egypt, Saudi Arabia, Jordan, and Syria were mentioned by name. Considering the links between Ergenekon and the Dönme in Turkey and the close intelligence and military links between the Dönme-descendent Saudis and Wahhabis in Arabia, the reports of close links between ousted Egyptian President Hosni Mubarak and his intelligence chief Omar Suleiman and the Binyamin Netanyahu government in Israel may be seen in an entirely new light... And it would explain Erdogan’s support for Egypt’s revolution: in Turkey, it was a democratic revolution that curbed the influence of the Dönme. The influence of Wahhabi Salafists in Libya’s new government also explains why Erdogan was keen on establishing relations with the Benghazi-based rebels to help supplant the influence of the Wahhabis, the natural allies of his enemies, the Dönme (Ergenekon) of Turkey.

Erdogan’s desire to set the historical record straight by restoring history purged by the Kemalists and Dönme has earned him vitriolic statements from Israel’s government that he is a neo-Ottomanist who is intent on forming an alliance with the Muslim Brotherhood in the Arab countries. Clearly, the Dönme and their Zionist brethren in Israel and elsewhere are worried about Dönme and Zionist historical revisionism, including their role in the Armenian and Assyrian genocide, and their genocide denial being exposed.

In Egypt, which was once an Ottoman realm, it was a popular revolution that tossed out what may have amounted to the Dönme with regard to the Mubarak regime. The Egyptian “Arab Spring” also explains why the Israelis were quick to kill six Egyptian border police so soon after nine Turkish passengers were killed aboard the Mavi Marmara, some in execution style, by Israeli troops. Dönme doctrine is rife with references to the Old Testament Amalekites, a nomadic tribe ordered attacked by the Hebrews from Egypt by the Jewish God to make room for Moses’s followers in the southern region of Palestine. In the Book of Judges, God unsuccessfully commands Saul: “Now go and strike Amalek and devote to destruction all that they have. Do not spare them, but kill both man and woman, and infant, ox, and sheep, camel and donkey.” The Dönme, whose doctrine is also present in Hasidic and other orthodox sects of Judaism, appear to have no problem substituting the Armenians, Assyrians, Turks, Kurds, Egyptians, Iraqis, Lebanese, Iranians, and Palestinians for the Amalekites in carrying out their military assaults and pogroms.

With reformist governments in Turkey and Egypt much more willing to look into the background of those who have split the Islamic world, Ataturk in Turkey and Mubarak in Egypt, the Saudis are likely very much aware that it is only a matter of time before their links, both modern and historical, to Israel will be fully exposed. It makes sense that the Saudis have been successful in engineering a dubious plot involving Iranian government agents trying to assassinate the Saudi ambassador to Washington in an unnamed Washington, DC restaurant. The Iraqi intelligence

report could have been referring to the Zionists and Dönmeh when it stated, “it strives to . . . [the] killing of Muslims, destructing, and promoting the turmoil.” In fact, the Iraqi intelligence report was referring to the Wahhabis.

With new freedom in Turkey and Egypt to examine their pasts, there is more reason for Israel and its supporters, as well as the Saudis, to suppress the true histories of the Ottoman Empire, secular Turkey, the origins of Israel, and the House of Saud. With various players now angling for war with Iran, the true history of the Dönmeh and their influence on past and current events in the Middle East becomes more important.