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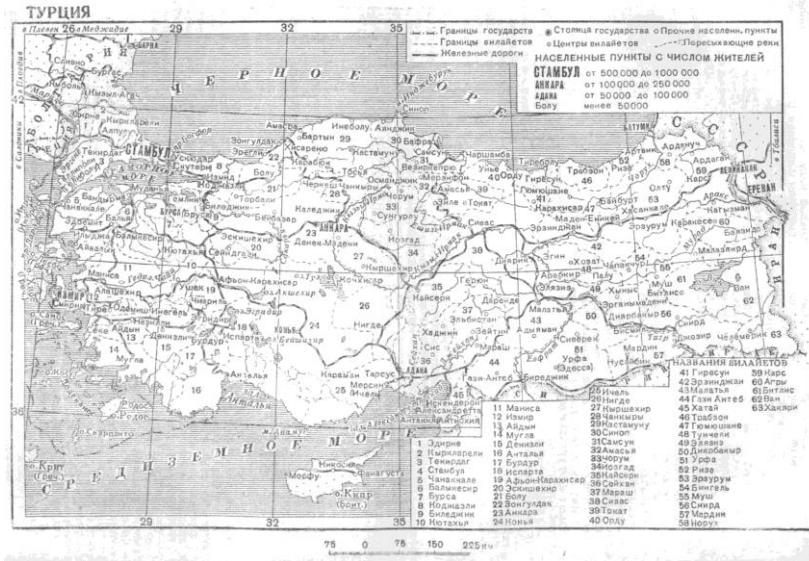
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Turkey is a state located at the junction of the southeast. Europe and Western Asia between $35^{\circ}45'$ and $42^{\circ}10'$ s. sh. and between $26^{\circ}3'$ and $44^{\circ}48'$ E. The main core of Turkey is Asia Minor, or Anatolia, the most western peninsula Asia. The European part of Turkey is located in the southeast, corner of the Balkan Peninsula and is known as Eastern Thrace. Total area of Turkey—768 thousand km² (but counting 9.6 thousand km² of lakes and swamps), of which 24 thousand km² will fall on the European possessions, or 3.1% of the entire territory. In Europe, Turkey borders Bulgaria and Greece, in Asia 10 percent with Syria and Iraq, in the east with Iran, and in the north-east with the USSR. In the north, Turkey is washed by the Black Sea, from the South to the Mediterranean, and from the 3 to the Aegean. Asian and European Turkey are separated from each other by the Marble Sea and narrow straits—the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles. Population—17.811 thousand people. (1940). The capital is Ankara (157.4 thousand inhabitants). Other major cities: Istanbul (793.9 thousand inhabitants), Izmir (Smyrna) (183.8 thousand inhabitants), Adana (88.1 thousand inhabitants), Bursa (Brusa) (77.6 thousand inhabitants).

I. Physico-Geographical Sketch.

Coastline. The Anatolian shores of the Black Sea are elevated, straightforward, devoid of bays deeply protruding into the land for most of their length, are unfavourable and further dangerous for navigation, especially at 3., where they fall vertically into sea. Most of the bays open only small valleys, in connection with which access inland from the sea is difficult— Marmara Sea forms on the Anatolian coast the Izmit and Gemlik bays deeply protruding into the land. In this sea lies a group of small Princes' Islands and the Island of Marmara. (Alexandretta)

Turkey



Contacts. Black Sea, the Bosphorus Strait (see) and with the Aegean—the Dardanelles Strait (see).—The Anatolian coast of the Aegean Sea has an extremely winding coastline. Of The largest bays: Edremit, Chandarli, Izmir, in the depths of which lies the city of Izmir (Smyrna), Kuşadası and others. South of Izmir the coastline has extremely complex, bizarre outlines with a number of bays and peninsulas protruding into the sea.

In the Aegean Sea, along the west coast of Anatolia, there are numerous islands [Turkish name for the Aegean Sea.—“Adalardenizi” (Sea of Islands)]: Imros, Tenedos, Lesvos, Chios, Samos, Nicaria, etc., of which only the first two belong to Turkey—South Mediterranean, coast Anatolia has a coarsely dissected coastal line. In the spare part it is extensive, but shallow the Gulf of Antalya (Adalia), in the east—the bay at Iskenderun (Alexandrettsky).



Рис. 1. Общий вид Босфора.

Figure: 1. Common read of the Bosphorus.

Geology. According to the latest tectonic, according to the views, Anatolia is a combination of three Herznian cores: the massif of the middle Kyzyl-Irmak (after the name of the river in Turkey), the massif of Lycaonia (after the province of the same name with the main city of Spear) and the massif of Sivrihisar (after the name of the settlement), type (Galatian). The final basics of folding took place in the Sun of the Oligocene. Since that time, the Anatoliyzhio blocks have been soldered. Neogene lake limestone rocks covering the Hercynian and Alshi structures were exposed only to the impact of arched movements and faults, erosion surfaces of the plains of Tuz-Gel, Konya and others). Vulkaism played an important role in the formation of the relief of Asia Minor; powerful manifestations of go occurred in the Neogene and in the Quaternary period.

Relief. Turkey is basically an erratic country. The central part of Anatolia is a high-rise plateau, east of the high, extremely rugged Romanian, or Armenian-Kurdish highlands. The plateau is encompassed by a system of mountain ranges—Pontic from the north, Taurus and Antitavra from the south, the Pontic Mountains are located along coast of the Black Sea; their slopes covered forest, descend steeply to the coast, or leaving a narrow low-lying strip, or plummeting into the sea. Mountains (average height 1,800 ft.) rise towards the east. Between the ridges there are longitudinal depressions, sometimes more than 200 km long. Narrow and deep in the east, they expand into either into small plains (“ova”) or into mountain plateaus. The rivers, fed by abundant rainfall, cut the mountain ranges with gorges, sometimes

penetrating their peaks to the interior of Anatolia. In the east, mountain streams cut parts of the coast high mountain ranges into many isolated areas, separated by sharp ridges. Here the country has a very rugged character, difficult to pass due to height mountains (more than 2,000-3,000 m, Kachkar Mountain—3.700 m) and due to the steepness and forest cover mountain slopes. Towards the mountain places become less crowded and decrease (to 1,500-1,600 m), longitudinal depressions widen. Mountains dismembered by erosion into separate arrays. Within the vilayets of Sinop, Kastamonu, Cankiri and others (ancient province of Paphlagonia) Pontic the mountains represent a maze of wooded slopes, deep hollows, narrow and winding gorges. Just west of Eregli (port on Black Sea), the structure of the Pontic Mountains is simplified; the mountain passes, however, remain difficult to pass.

Continuous line of mountains, stretching from the lake Van on the 3rd to the Makri Bay (in the southwest of Asia Minor) for 900 km, limits the plateau of inner Anatolia in the south. This is the zone of the Taurus arc (uniting the system of the Taurus and Antitavra mountains by a common name); it is connected by 3—with arcs of a different direction—the Lycian chains. The difference between these southern marginal mountains from the Pontic Mountains is that the southern mountain zone is narrower, the southern marginal mountains are on average higher than the Pontic mountains (Bulgar-dag—3.500 m, Allah-Tepe—3.543 m), finally, the southern marginal chains are more curved, than chains of owls. Anatolia; two arcs convex to Yu, form as if advanced bastions surrounded on three sides by the sea. River sediments have created coastal plains here. This is also one of the essential differences

from sowing. outskirts of Anatolia, where the coastal plains are confined to only two relatively small deltas.

Between the Taurus and Nontic mountain systems lies the Central Anatolian plateau. Its extreme west section will be added to three large physical and geographical regions. The northern region is an elevated country with forms of a mid-mountainous relief, soft, wavy contours, an area of development of extensive flattening surfaces. Mountain ranges raised by recent vertical movements rise in different parts of the country: to the north, the Ulu-dag (Keshishch-dag) massif with the Mizi Olympus peak (2,493 m). Among the mountains a number of plains, the Central region Western Anatolia is an area of vast sinking plains separated by walls of steep and wild mountain ranges. Tectonics in the southern part of the West. Anatolia is more complex: the forms formed by plicative dislocations are mixed with the forms that have arisen as a result of subsidence of areas of the earth's crust, with strict, rectilinear outlines.

Central Anatolia is a plateau, crossed by mountain ridges (the Erdngin-dag massif, 3,830 m—the highest point of the Asia Minor peninsula) and volcanic peaks (especially well expressed in the south of the Central Plateau). Among the plateaus there is also a series of closed bowl-shaped basins occupied by lakes with salt or fresh water. The plateau in the Ankara region is located at absolute altitude 1,100-1,200 m.; in the east (in the basin of the middle Kyzyl-Irmak), it gradually passes into the plateau of Cappadocia (1,200-1,300 m high). Near mountain heights (Tavra, Sultan-dag) heights up to 1,500 m and more, but the character of the plateaus is not disturbed.

In the extreme east, the plateau transforms into a

highly rugged mountainous country: the Armenian, or Armenian-Kurdish, highlands. Here you can distinguish up to 5 mountain ranges, going in a latitudinal direction. These (starting from the north) are the Pontine Mountains, the Northern, Central and Southern Armenian Taurus and the Main Taurus. The latter rises up to 4.000 m and is crystalline rocks—shale, marble, quartzite, crumpled into folds, probably in the Caledonian time. Surface crystalline Taurus block is characterised by rather soft forms, ridges located at the same height, i.e., features inherent in the ancient alignment surfaces. Except the ridges latitudinal direction, stand out sharply mountain rises in the meridian direction. The western uplift goes east of the Erzurum depression, the middle one goes north of the Alashkort valley and the eastern one goes along mountains bordering with Iran and along massifs one Ararat and Alagez (within the USSR). Highly elevated plains are located between the mountain ranges: Mushskaya, Kharputska (about 1.000 m high), Alashkertskaya, Bayazedskaya, Erzinjanskan, Erzorum, Bayburtskaya (height 1.500-2.000 m). These plains are mainly the centres resettlement of the population. Among the mountains, a number of volcanoes (Nemrud-dag near Lake Van with a crater up to 8 km wide). Tectonically, the territory of the East Anatolia is composed of several elements, differing from each other in their origin and morphology and development. In extreme C is crystalline Pontic massif, on the south-east—crystalline Tavrsky massif. Between crystalline there is a system of tertiary folds that emerged at the site of the ancient geosynclinal. This system of folds was fragmented by faults; separate land plots the crust has dropped. Along the fault lines, long rows of

volcanoes. Areas of crust, descending along fault lines, were buried with iodine lavas.

The climate of Turkey is not the same in certain parts of the country. Basically, the climate is moderately warm with an average annual temperature of 15-20°, somewhat colder in mountainous regions, where the temperature decreases with height. Central Anatolia, due to the location of the ridges (Pontic and Taurus) along the conquered seas, is isolated from the influence of the latter. Western winds blowing from the sea give precipitation to the slopes of the mountains and do not reach the interior regions, and therefore the Central Plateau is the most arid region of Turkey. The climate of Central Anatolia is sharply continental with cold winters and hot but dry summers. Fluctuations in temperature reach 50° (in Kayseri in summer 29.9°, in winter -18°). Annual precipitation is subject to conventional fluctuations. On average, 236 mm falls per year in Ankara and 256 mm in Ksnje. The greatest amount of precipitation falls in spring. Winters are cold (annual lows from -12° to -20°). Early spring with cold returns. Summers are hot with high daytime temperatures and strong nighttime cooling. Autumn is long and soft.

East Anatolia is characterised by a severe, snowy winter, lasting 7-8 months. Summer is warm. Precipitation is 350-800 mm per year. Maximum in spring. July and August are rainless.

East the coast of the Black Sea belongs to the Colchis, or Pontic, climatic provinces, zap. coast of the Black Sea, European TUIPIA, Western Anatolia and the Mediterranean coastline to the Mediterranean province.

The climate is most eastern, part of the Che [Pomor coastline is similar to the climate of Colchis. The peculiarity of this climate is abundant rainfall (in Rize—over 2000 mm per year), which falls evenly throughout the year. Further, by 3rd, the amount of precipitation decreases and their distribution becomes g zonal (Trabzon—875 mm. Samsun—727 mm). Winters get colder, summers drier. The East, separated by high Pontic mountains from the flat, harsh climates; Central Anatolia and protected by the Caucasian ridge from the north, has a mild winter in region of Rize, the average annual rate is 14.9° , the average of the warmest month (August) is 22.8° , the coldest (February) is 6.6° .

Annual Indicators

Observation points	Geography coordinates			Average temperatures				
	C. III.	I. d	Height above sea level—m. (In m)	the warmest month (July)	the coldest month on (January)	sodomy	Annual number of O.- adpop (in .im)	
Istanbul	41° 2'	28° 28'		23, 6	5,2	143	733	
Trabzon (Traiezund)	41° 1'	39° 45'	2	23, 3	(January— February)	14,8	675	
Izmir (Smrrna)	38° 25'	27° 0'	38	10		17,0	653	
Adana	36° 46'	34° 50'		26, 8	6,3	19,9	610	
Merzifon	40° 51'	35° 30'	30	28, 8		10,6	440	
Diyarbakir (Diarbekr)	37° 54'	40° 26'	750	20, 4	7,6	16,0	490	
			590	30,8	10,0			
					-1,4			
					-0,6			

The Mediterranean climate has the peculiarity that precipitation is less abundant and falls in the cold season. Summer is usually dry. The Mediterranean coast of Turkey and the slopes of the Tavga mountains facing the sea are influenced by the typical Mediterranean climate. It receives 550-750 mm of precipitation (half of which falls in winter). Precipitation is extremely uneven, more often in the form of violent downpours. Winters are mild, summers are unbearable with

temperatures reaching 50°.

Hydrography. Numerous rivers of Turkey are both internal and external closed basins. External basins are the basins of the Chyonogo, Marmara, Aegean, and Mediterranean Seas and the basin of the Gulf. The internal basins are the Caspian Sea, lying outside Turkey lakes: Van, Akgöl and others. A number of rivers, starting in rojah, are gradually lost among the plains. The feeding of the rivers is of a commercial snow, rain and key character. The regime of the first varies greatly throughout the year depending on the melting of snow and milk eaters, for example: have a seasonal character. Most rivers in the upper reaches have a strong drop, upon entering the plains, their flow rate changes dramatically. The largest river in Turkey, the Kizil-Irmak (in ancient times, Galis), originates from the Kizil-Dag mountains at an altitude of 2 thousand m, in the form of an arc cuts east, part of Asia Minor and flows into Chenoe; not navigable due to the rapids. Main tributaries: Delige-Irmak and Gökirmak. The following rivers also belong to the Black Sea basin rivers also belong: Sakarya, which due to its abundant water value for agriculture, flowing in the Black Sea already within the USSR, and Yesilirmak, Geku (Kalikadnos), Ceyhan (Pyramus) and Seyhan, or Zeikhui, used by for irrigation. The small river Chakyt pierces the Cilician Taurus with deep gorges (1.000-1.400 depth), which in their own way greatness reminiscent of Colorado's Grand Canvas in North America (in the USA). To the Aegean the sea flows into the rivers Big Menderes (ancient Meander), Small Menderes and Gedizçay. West coast rivers flowing from Centre). Anatolian flat, in the upper reaches have

the character of steppe rivers, and in the coastal strip they are actor mountain streams flowing in deep gorges. The upper reaches of the Tigris and Euphrates—the largest rivers of Western Asia flowing into the Persian Gulf (outside Turkey). Euphrates at originates in the Armenian Highlands of eastern Turkey, and two sources: Karasu, or Western Euphrates Murat Su, or Eastern Euphrates. After their confluence, the Euphrates passes through the Taurus rora in a deep gorge and leaves Syria. The Tigris begins with the Armenian Taurus. On the Armenian highlands at an altitude of 2.300 m, the Apax River, bordering the USSR, a tributary of the Kyra, into which it flows within the USSR (in the Georgian SSR). The central part of Asia Minor is a drainless region. In European Turkey, the largest river—Maritsa, flowing along the border with Greece. It originates in the Bulgaria on the slopes of the Musalla massif, flows into the Aegean sea. Within Turkey, only the lower current of the Maritsa and its left tributary Ergene, walk within Turkey.

There are many lakes in Turkey, mostly saline. The largest lake Van (3.400 km^2) lies on the Armenian Highlands in the volcanic area, near the volcanoes Supkhan and Nemrud-dag, at the height 1.700 m above sea level m 06 j It was formed as a result of damming the upper reaches of the river. Karasu volcanic products. eruptions. Salty water, salinity $19.6^\circ/00$. The lake takes several rivers, but the flow itself does not have. Fishing and salt production are well developed. East. the city of Van is located on the coast. Second to the size of a salty, self-deposited lake Tuz [Tuz-Gel (Salt Lake), 2.500 km^2] is located in the Centre.

Anatolia at the height. 940 m above ur. m. Depth not more than 1 m in summer.

During this period the lake dries up a lot, and a layer of salt of 0.4-0.8 remains on the surface thickness. Significantly smaller than Lake Beysehir (600 km²), Akshehir, or Kirli-Gel, located to 3. from Lake Tuz for a fairly close distance from each other. More to the west of them is a large freshwater lake Egridir (or Eiridir), lying in the southwest. Central Anatolian plateau on an altitude of 870 m—On the banks of the Marmara m. lie at lakes: Iznik, Apollont, Manyas, etc.

The largest rivers.

Name of the rivers	Where falling in	Length (In km)	P horse of the basin (In km)
Kızıl-Irmak	In Black Sea	950-1,400	150,000
Sakarya	" " "	500-585	—
Yeşil-Irmak	" " "	400	—
Çoruh (Büyük)	" " "	345-363	22,200
Menderes (Büyük)	To The Aegean sea	380	—
Gediz Çay	" " "	270-300	—
Seyhan	In the middle of second sea	250-480	—
Heksu	" " "	300-350	—
Tarsus	In Persian wallow	200	—
Fırat	" " "	100	—
Tigris	In the river Fırat	2,700 (-500)	—
Kara Dere	In the Lourou river	1,950 (-380)	—
Apakc (Apac) ¹	to the Aegean Sea	500	—
Meriç	in the Maritsa River	915 (-400)	—
Ergene		490	5,390
		230	—

¹ Lower reaches - within the USSR

Turkey's soils are diverse. In the inner drainless depressions there are sandy and gravel, poor in humus

and highly saline. Gray soils appear on the mountains. In better irrigated regions, red soils are developed (especially in the eastern coastal region of the Cherny m.), Suitable for agricultural production. The soil cover from the treeless mountains is carried away by water flows into the valleys, where it forms a fertile alluvial layer. **S. Matveev, S. Popova.**

Vegetation. The vegetation cover changes depending on the differences in climatic conditions and topography. Forests cover the entire sowing. part of the peninsula of Asia Minor, the western and southern parts of the Mediterranean, as well as the inner regions of Antitaurus and the Main Taurus. The rest of Turkey—the Central and Eastern Plateau—is a vast, treeless expanse of steppe and semi-desert vegetation.

In the territory of Turkey, there are mainly three large vegetation regions: 1) Mediterranean, 2) Pontic, and 3) Central-Eastern. Vegetation of the Mediterranean type is presented in the West. parts of Asia Minor approximately to the meridian of Istanbul and along the mountains facing the Mediterranean Sea. The main vegetation formation here is the so-called maquis—thickets of evergreen, more or less xerophytic (i.e. dry-loving) shrubs. The maquis covers hills and mountain slopes 400-600 m high. The maquis include: bush oak (*Quercus coccifera*), about 1 m high, with dense branches and leathery thorny leaves; stone oak (*Quercus ilex*) is mixed with it. In addition to oak trees, there are: myrtle, laurel, milkweed, strawberry tree (*Arbutus*), pistachio, wild olive (*Olea oleaster*); the cultivated olive is also bred in this area. On dry valleys and riverbeds, thickets of oleander and *Vitex agnus*

castus—shrubs, branches of which are used for weaving baskets. In addition to evergreen forms, there are, especially in the lower strip of the mountains, shrubs with falling leaves, such as a derish-tree (*Paliurus aculeatus*), a frame (*Celtis australis*), etc.

On the driest slopes, on barren soils, in place of the destroyed maquis, formations of lower shrubs, semi-shrubs, and perennial grasses with partially lignified stems, which have negligible foliage and are covered thorns and thorns, ie. n. freegan. Here the most common are the thorny blackhead (*Poterium spinosum*), the spearweed (*Hedysarum spinosissimum*), etc. there are many labiates here, containing a large amount of essential oils such as *Thymus*, sage, lavender, etc.

Forests in the Mediterranean region of Turkey nowhere form continuous massifs and are most powerfully developed at altitude. 400-600 m, reaching 1.200 and dazke up to 2.000 m. They are presented Ch. sample: 1) in the north-western part—by powerful, dense forests with a predominance of deciduous species, with shrubs under their canopy; 2) to the center, part of Zap. Turkey—park-like, sparse-stemmed forests, predominantly deciduous, with insignificant conifers; 3) in the Cilician Taurus—mostly coniferous forests. In deciduous forests, walnut, beech, hornbeam, artisanal oak, chestnut, maples prevail. Shrubs—barberry, dogwood, euonymus, honeysuckle. Coniferous forests—from black pine (*Pinus nigra*), eastern spruce. In the valleys, entering the maquis area, there is cypress (*Cupressus sempervirens*). Lebanese cedar (*Cedrus Libani*) forests are found in the Cilician Taurus. Of the deciduous species in the coniferous forest, the carob tree (*Ceratonia siliqua*) is widespread, going down to the sea, where it becomes a cultivated tree. Here,

there are individual specimens of the styrax tree, or liquidambar, from the bark of which aromatic is extracted. balm styrax, which has long been used in perfumery and medicine. It is believed that forests in former times were much more widespread and, under the influence of man, were replaced by maquis, the wide development of which, i.e., is secondary.

The Pontic region occupies the north of the Asia Minor Peninsula along the Black Sea. These are huge forest areas, which are a continuation of the Colchian vegetation. Alder (*Alnus barbata*) and hornbeam predominate in the lower forest area (400-600 liters). In the form of an admixture to them - beech, maple, figs, persimmon (*Diospyrus lotus*), milkweed, lavovishnya. Lots of wild cherries (*Prunus avium*), antipka cherries (*Cerasus Mahaleb*), wild pears and apple trees. There are large numbers of lianas—wild grapes, clematis, sassaparilla (*Smilax*), ovoinik (*Periploca*), ivy, hops.— Above the deciduous forest (1.200 m), mixed spruce-deciduous forests are widespread. The spruce grows up to 1.900-2000 m. Above the hay, the subalpine and alpine zones are spread.

In the central-eastern region, the valleys, where the weathering material is blown off, are occupied by the steppe. The steppes are quite diverse in this vast area. Of these, the most widespread are: astragalus steppes with the development of the so-called tragacanth astragalus (over 10 species), from the incisions in the bark and stems of which gum flows, which is of great economic importance; sandy and clayey steppes with camel thorn, thyme, ephedra; stony steppes, occupied by hemispherical shrubs, almost leafless, covered with dense tomentose pubescence; feathergrass / steppe, for I to-ryh it is characteristic several types of feather

grass, wheatgrass, sage etc. In the spring, they develop abundantly spring ephemera (tulips, crocuses, etc.). Shrubs in this area are found only along the banks of the rock and in the damp hollows. Forests found only in the area of internal Antitavra and presented by ch. arr. Cilician inkhta and black pine. At the bottom their zone is oak forests. The inner part of the Main Taurus is occupied mainly by deciduous forests.

Turkey and Head-Tavrom—continuous treeless expanses of steppes and semi-deserts. L. Kudryashev.

Animal world. We find the comparatively rich animal world in M. Asia. Ungulate mammals are found here: the red deer, which is quite different in size, then another representative of the deer family, the fallow deer, found mainly in the Taurus region, and the roe deer. The most interesting representatives of another family of hoofed mammals—the bovids—in the local fauna are: the bezoar goat, a mountain louse with well-developed (especially in males) sickle-shaped horns; it keeps preferably in desert rocky mountains, along cliffs and cliffs, on which they live in herds; in Asia Minor, it is especially numerous in the Taurus mountains; this animal received its name from the so-called. bezoar stones, which are lumps of indigestible substances; The bezoar goat is possibly one of the ancestors of the domestic goat. Another noteworthy member of this family is the mouflon, the likely ancestor of the domestic sheep. In the parts of Asia Minor adjacent to Syria, there is an antelope-gazelle, which is more characteristic, however, for the animal world of North Africa. Wild boar is quite common for the local fauna, and in the east parts there is also a wild donkey—

onager. Of the predatory mammals in Asia Minor, the following are found: panther (leopard), living in thickets near the water, reed from (marsh lynx), caracal (steppe lynx), heat, wolves, foxes, brown and Syrian gedvedi, striped hyena, ichneumon, or Earaon's mouse (more characteristic for me) of the auna Sev. Africa, in particular Egypt), badgers and ferrets. Other mammals include the common Christmas tree, hedgehogs and ground squirrels. Local birds are generally similar to European birds. forms. There is a bearded bird of prey or yagpyatik, as well as eagles, vultures, buzzards, falcons, eagles, and a lot of hawks. Owls are not uncommon. Other birds are quite versatile: woodpeckers, cuckoos, larks, gray-crowned birds, tits, nightingales, blackbirds, vara-upkp, swallows, etc. There are also many birds tied in their way of life with water: apln, cranes, coots, storks , geese, ducks, etc. The fauna of insects is especially rich in butterflies and beetles. The listed representatives of the animal population of Asia Minor are generally characteristic for the east. parts etc. Mediterranean zoogeography, a subregion that embraces all the countries of southwestern Asia (with the exception of South Arabia). I. Khibarin.

Physical and geographical areas. The natural conditions of Anatolia are extremely varied. The contrast between the inner part of the country and its periphery. The Pernferich zone of Anatolia covers, in turn, very different physical and geographical regions: the outlying mountain systems of the North and on the one hand, Zap. Anatoly, on the other.

The Pontine Mountains are very rugged and difficult

to pass due to the steepness of the slopes and strong forest cover. Availability of precipitation, high air humidity, protection from cold winds (in the east) favour the development of vegetation. East part of the Black Sea coast and the slopes of the mountains—a vast forest area. In (the lower zone up to 400-600 m) there are broad-leaved forests of alder and hornbeam with an admixture of beech, maple, oak, persimmon, walnut, juniper; higher, mixed spruce-leaved forests, which are replaced even higher by mountain spruce forests. Mountain meadows begin at an altitude of 2.000 m. At 3. due to a decrease in the amount of precipitation, the Colchis forest is preserved only in the mountainous belt; large areas are covered with shrub formations, the so-called maquis.

Warm, Mediterranean-type climate and the plains of the Mediterranean Sea coast and the southern slopes of the Taurus Mountains favour the development of subtropical vegetation. Date palm grows in the bays of Lycia and Cilicia. The coastal hills are covered with myrtle and laurel maquis, the slopes of the mountains are covered with forests (the rarest Lebanese cedar forests are preserved in the Lycian mountains).

Western Anatolia has the character of a highly indented mountainous country with numerous mountain ranges of various directions, heights, shapes and lengths, interrupted by deep river valleys and subsidence plains. The climate is Mediterranean. The landscapes are extremely varied. The plains are characterized by a special form of maquis made from dwarf oak, laurel, strawberry tree, pistachio. In the higher parts, the maquis passes into a different formation, which is composed of leaves dropping leaves, i.e. frangan. In the mountains, wide areas are covered

with pine forests. In the river valleys, thickets of oleander.

Central Anatolia is a high plateau, crossed by mountain rises or peaks of volcanic. origin. The climate is sharply continental and dry. The dominant plant formation is wormwood steppes and semi-deserts.

East Anatolia is an extremely rugged mountainous country. Numerous powerful mountain rises, usually parallel, but also transverse, give way to vast, highly elevated cauldrons. The climate is moderately cold with long, severe and snowy winters and short summers. East Anatolia is a region of upland steppes. In the Taurus Mountains there are oak forests.

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II. Population.

According to 1935 data, in Turkey there were 16,157 thousand inhabitants, of which in the Asian parts—14,890 thousand (92.2%) and in European—1.267 thousand (7.8%)—Natural annual population growth—2% (according to the 1935 census). Between the first and second world wars population growth in Turkey was also due to the resettlement of the Turks from the Balkan countries as a result of the exchange population. Mandatory population exchange first started after Turkish-Greek the wars of 1921-22 on the basis of the Lausanne Convention between Turkey and Greece of 1/30/1923. In total, from 1923 to 1940 moved from Greece, Bulgaria, Yugoslavia and Rumania 839.5 thousand Turks. The population is located on the territory of Turkey very uneven. Most densely populated Anatolia (in particular coastal regions) and the Black Sea coastline. With an average population density in Turkey over 23 people per 1 km², in some western coastal regions it reaches 48 people, per 1 km² (Izmir district). The least populated east areas in which the population density often falls—about 4 people per 1 km² (Van governorate).

Modern Turkey is characterised by great homogeneity of the national composition of the population. According to the 1935 census, the Turks were approx. 86% of the total population of Turkey (13,899 thousand people). Among the national minorities stand out Kurds—(1,480 thousand people, over 9% of the population), mainly in the eastern provinces, the Arabs (over 150 thousand), mainly in the southeastern regions, bordering with Iraq, Greeks (over

100 thousand), Circassians, Lazes, Armenians.

According to 1935 data, 12.6% of the independent population was employed in industry, trade and transport, and 82% in the rural economy. The rural population is 76.5% (1940), the urban population is 23.5%.

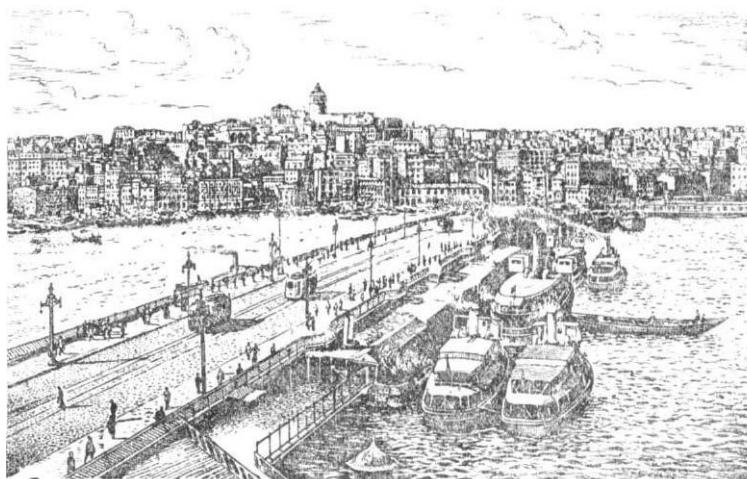


Рис. 2. Стамбул.

Fig. 2. Istanbul.

III. An Economic Outline.

General characteristics of the economy. In Turkey, agriculture predominates over industry, which began to develop more rapidly only in recent decades. Turkey's economic backwardness is the legacy of its difficult history. of the past. Both domestic and foreign policy. conditions for the development of Turkey in the 18th and 19th centuries were extremely unfavourable for the growth of its productive forces. Internal political. the sultanate's regime did not create the conditions necessary for the development of capitalist. farms. The most important feature of the development of Turkey in the 19th century was an ever-growing economic. its dependence on foreign capital and its semi-colonial position. Forced to resort to foreign loans for the first time during the Russo-Turkish War of 1853-56, Turkey soon fell into heavy financial dependence on large capitalist capitalists. powers. Along with the rest of debt on foreign loans, foreign capital invaded its trade and industry. Foreign capitalists relying on a capitulation regime (see Historical sketch), were in advantage over with Turkish entrepreneurs. As a result, all branches of the economy of Turkey—railways, port facilities, mines, utilities in large cities were in the hands of foreigners.

The predominant role of foreign capital and the great importance of foreign trade in the economy of Turkey led to an increase port cities—Istanbul, Izmir, etc.—at the expense of old shopping centres in Asia Minor, which have decayed.

A specific feature of economic policy of the Kemalist

government is the direct participation of the state in the economy (so-called statism). Many industrial enterprises were built with state funds. A positive role in the economy of Turkey played by its economic relations with the USSR, first of all, the technical and financial assistance from the Soviet Union to the young Turkish industry.

However, despite the significant growth in industry, the country has largely retained its agrarian appearance. At the same time, the rural economy to a large extent retained its backwardness, inherited from the Sultan's Turkey. Semi-feudal tendencies in the Turkish village and other general conditions for the development of agriculture as well as development of the industry.

Since 1934, the economy has sharply increased, expansion of fascist Germany in Turkey. During the several years preceding the Second World War, the Germans seized about half of Turkey's foreign trade. German firms entered into a number of supply agreements in Turkey's enterprises. Economical the ties between Turkey and Germany led to the subordination of the Turkish economy to the needs of the Germans, the economy were beneficial only to the latter and caused enormous damage to the Turkish people. German fascism openly sought to transform the rural economy, in the appendage of German industry. In 1936, economic relations between Turkey and England began to expand. In 1936, the latter granted a loan to Turkey for construction of the Karabük metalwork plant, and in 1938 and 1939—new credits for the procurement of industrial and transport equipment and for weapons purposes.

During the Second World War, Turkey was forced to

first reduce the volume of its foreign trade and change its direction. While formally taking the position of “neutrality”, Turkey at the same time ceased to be military in all branches of its industry.

Despite the declared neutrality of Turkey, it continued to provide Germany with substantial economic aid. A significant part of Turkey's export products was sent to Germany. Turkey was one of the countries that supplied Germany with food, and partly with strategic raw materials. Of particular importance for the metallurgy industry in Germany was Turkish chromium ore, in which Germany was in dire need.

This one-sided focus on Germany has led to the most dire consequences for the Turkish economy. This Turkish provo in every possible way encouraged, to the detriment of the Turkish economy, the production of those crops that Germany needed. There were also imports of goods from Germany and the countries it occupied. But since during the war Germany's export opportunities became smaller and smaller, Turkey began to experience an acute need for goods, which it usually imports—in metal products, textiles, etc. The lack of mineral fuel led to deterioration of transport. The position of the broad working masses has deteriorated sharply. The amount of paper money in circulation increased rapidly, the cost of living increased several times, the population experienced an acute shortage of consumer goods.

Agriculture. Agrarian relations. Despite the presence of vast expanses of undeveloped land suitable for agriculture, Turkey is a country of pronounced landlessness and land scarcity. Most of the

best lands are concentrated in the hands of large landowners. The development of less suitable lands in the conditions of Turkey is associated with the need for large investments capital (for irrigation, building roads, etc.), powerful for the overwhelming mass of small peasants of the economy. In connection with this, in rural Turkey, land leases are very widespread—state-owned and privately-owned; and pre-capitalist land leases have been preserved to a greater extent, forms of natural leasehold and use. Many tenants use agricultural land and working cattle, which increases their dependence on it.

In the east, large semi-feudal land tenure is widespread in the vilayets and in Kurdistan. Large landowners' economies, organized on capitalist principles with the use of hired labour, machine technology (tractors, etc.), are available in Western Anatolia and in the south, in the Adana-Mersin region. In the central and sowing small and medium landownership prevails in the Turkish countryside.

Repeatedly declaring the intention to alleviate the plight of the peasantry, the Turkish bourgeoisie, which during the national liberation struggle prevented implementation of agrarian revolution, was limited to only in the introduction of certain reforms that greatly contributed to the strengthening of the wealthy part of the Turkish peasantry. The Turkish peasant did not receive land, and the landowner's land ownership was not affected. During the period from 1937 to 1945, special commissions examined approx. 43% of the territory of Turkey. It turned out that 5.5% of peasant families do not have land at all, 48.3% have up to 30 denum (3-10 ha), 31.8%—from 0 to 100 denums (3-10 ha), 14.4%—more than 100 denum (10 ha). 63% of

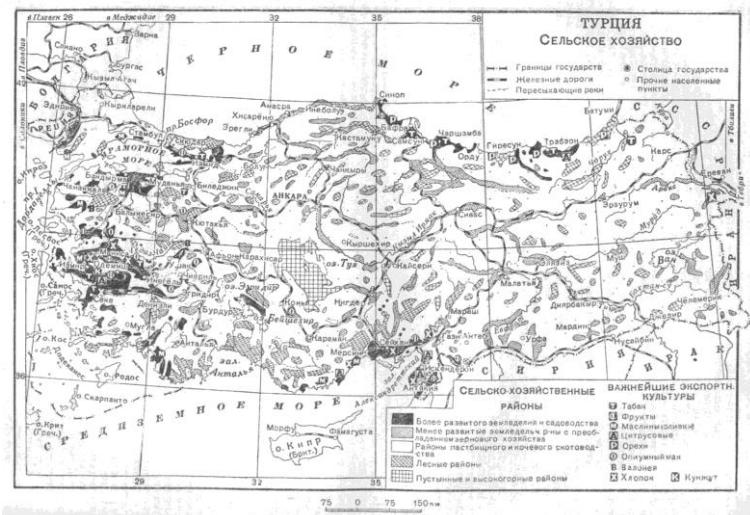
peasant families have less than 50 denums, that is, in conditions, less than the starvation rate for a family of 5 people. According to some Turkish data, 33 thousand landowners and kulaks own 8 million hectares; according to other sources £0% of farmers are workers and servants of about 6 thousand large land owners.

The Second World War caused an severe crisis in the rural economy of Turkey and an even greater impoverishment of the bulk of the peasant population. In addition, the collapse of the fascist Germany and agrarian reforms in neighboring countries of Turkey in the southeast. The experience forced the ruling elite of the country to take steps that demonstrate its "democratic" tendencies and to force to appease the peasantry. All this caused the government to submit to the Grand National Assembly a bill on agrarian reform, which was approved on 11/VI/1945. According to this law, for distribution among persons in need of land, all waqf lands, i.e. controlled by the main directorate of waqfs (that is, actually state. lands); land owned by municipalities and not used for public purposes, and private estates of St. 500 hectares (5 thousand denums). Only in some of the poorest districts were holdings ranging from 200 to 500 hectares alienated. In general, a very significant part of the land, according to one or another provision of the law, was not subject to alienation. On the other hand, the persons who received the land were obliged to pay its cost within 20 years. Thus, imposing a heavy burden of payments on the peasants, the law, instead, retained a significant part of the land fund in the hands of the large landowners and did not liquidate the feudal serf. remnants in the Turkish sack. It should also be noted that no timeframe has been set for the implementation of the law; the

procedure for its implementation envisaged by the law was such that it left doubts about the extreme slowness of the implementation of this scanty “agrarian reform”, which was not able to satisfy the urgent need of the peasantry for land and alleviate its situation.

Structure of rural agriculture. One of the signs of the weak development of the country's productive forces is the low coefficient of agricultural use of the territory. According to the 1934 census, arable land made up 13.8% of the territory of Turkey of the village; orchards, vineyards and olive groves—1.6%; meadows and pastures—58.1%; forests—12%; inconvenient land—14.6%. The cultivated area is 45-48% of all land suitable for cultivation. A feature of Turkey is that the area does not occupy a continuous territory, but represents small scattered areas interspersed into the surrounding desert and semi-desert spaces, rugged mountainous regions, and forests. The largest areas of cultivated land are located in the valleys of the West Anatolia. In areas adjacent to the coast of the Black Sea, as well as in the south in areas adjacent to the coast of the Mediterranean Sea, there are also quite large areas of cultivated land, although smaller than in the west. To the Centre in Anatolia, agricultural plots are much smaller. Finally, it should be noted the low technology of agriculture, inherited from the Sultan's Turkey. Still at the present time the ancient primitive Turkish plough “karasaban” is the dominant tillage tool. Until recently, the use of mineral fertilizers was unknown to the broad mass of the Turkish peasantry. Tractors and other complex agricultural machines are used to an extremely limited extent and, moreover,

only in large enterprises. One of the indicators of low technical level of agriculture is the very limited size of artificial irrigation, despite the acute need for moisture in a number of regions of Turkey, due to the lack of precipitation. The ancient irrigation structures that existed in Turkey have long been destroyed. In the few areas where artificial irrigation is used, it is primitive in nature.



TURKEY AGRICULTURE

The Turkish Government began to carry out some measures to improve the agricultural machinery. It founded a number of higher agricultural groups, educational institutions and research institutes; began to encourage the introduction of modern agricultural inventory, etc. Such and irrigation works were undertaken in the areas of Konya, Eskisehir, on the

Porsuk, Ankara, Tosya, Kastamonu rivers, and others, as well as drainage works in the areas of Aksaray, Chankryra, Black Sea (Eregli, etc.). However, despite some successes in improving the technology of the rural economy of Turkey, its general technical level remains low so far. As a result of the low technology of agriculture in Turkey, in terms of yield is far behind the advanced countries. Crop failures due to natural disasters are a frequent occurrence. Agriculture in Turkey suffers greatly from pests, among which locusts, which usually emerge from Iraq, bring special harm.

Crop growing is the most important branch of agriculture in Turkey. Grain crops predominate in it, with the significant role of Mediterranean fruit growing and a number of technical cultures. Fruit and technical crops, occupying a relatively modest place in the cultivated area, nevertheless acquired special importance in the economy of Turkey due to their high profitability and significantly higher marketability in comparison with grain crops, as well as their great export value. It is these crops that largely determine the overall high marketability of agricultural farming in Turkey and constitute the main contingent of goods with which it acts on the foreign market.

Grain crops occupy approx. 88% of all crops and up to 77% of the total cultivated area (including orchards and vineyards). In the past, Turkey imported grain. In the beginning Second World War, she herself satisfied her needs for bread and even exported a certain amount of bread abroad. Among cereals, predominantly wheat, which constitutes 52% grain wedge. The most saturated with wheat is Central Anatolia, especially its southern regions, where wheat occupies about 4/5 of all grain crops. The share of wheat is also high in the

southern regions of Eastern Anatolia, but strongly inferior to the regions of Central Anatolia in the absolute size of wheat crops.

The second most important cereal crop of Turkey—barley occupies about 27% of the grain wedge. Barley is sown everywhere in Turkey, its share is highest in Eastern, then in Central Anatolia. Barley has long been an important export item, especially from Western Anatolia. Much more modest role of rye and corn, each occupying approx. 6% of grain crops. Oats and rice are sown in small sizes; legumes are also common in Turkey.

Tab. 1. — Area and collection of the most important agricultural crops.

Culture name	Sown area (thousand ha)		Collection (thousand m)	
	1938	1941	1938	1943
Wheat	3,843	4,407	4,248	4,000
Barley	1,963	2,039	2,408	2,500
Rye	457	508	449	500
Corn	474	501	603	650
Oats	241	362	258	300
Rice	23	44	63	55 ³
Tobacco	84	74	53	64
Cotton	275	327	66	64 ³
Sesame	58	66	26	34 ³
Sugar beet	21	43	95 ¹	96 ¹
Potatoes	56	73	169	251 ³
Grapes	350	415	960	868 ³
Olives	700	—	34 ²	—

1. Sugar production, 2. Production of olive oil in 1938/39, 3. in 1941.

Among the technical crops, tobacco is of paramount importance, accounting for Turkish exports (in value). Tobacco has been cultivated in Turkey since the beginning of the 17th century, and are renowned for

their high quality. The main regions of tobacco growing are Samsun, which produces the highest varieties, Izmir, which is also distinguished by high quality tobacco, Trabzon (Trebizond) and Marmara (in the north-west of Anatolia), with lower varieties of tobacco. Cotton occupies the largest area among technical cultures. The government in every possible way stimulates the development of cotton growing, seeking to expand the raw material base of the developing textile industry. Cotton is also exported. The main areas of cotton growing are the Adana lowland in the north-east, coal off the Mediterranean coast, then Izmir district in the West. Anatolia. Turkey occupies a prominent place in the world opium poppy production high medical grades. The largest crops of poppy are concentrated in the Afyon-Karahisar and Kutahi vilayets in the western part of Central Anatolia. The most young is the industrial crop in Turkey is sugar beet, the cultivation began in connection with the emergence, beginning in 1925, of the sugar industry. The main areas of sugar beet—Usha k in Zap. Anatolia (in the area tending to Izmir), Eskisehir and Turhal and the European part of Turkey—Thrace.

Fruit crops take second place in agricultural exports because the most important among them are grapes and special Mediterranean crops—the olive tree, carob, figs, citrus crops, and others. Viticulture was most developed in the Western Anatolia, where the Gediz-Chaya valley is especially prominent, then the areas adjacent to the Marmara Sea. In terms of olive plantation, Turkey takes the third place in the world (after Spain and Italy). In Turkey, there are up to 75 million olive trees, of which approx. 60 million wild. The main area of olive trees is the sea coast, as well as wide valleys open to the sea, through which the soft sea climate penetrates far into

the interior of the country. The most important olive regions are located on the shores of the Aegean and then the Marmara seas. Areas of citrus crops—oranges, located in the north-east. the coast of the Mediterranean Sea, where the Dorytol district stands out in the depths of the Iskenderun (Alexandretta) Bay, in the West. Anatolia, finally, in the Southern Anatolia—in the coastal zone of the Rize vilayet—the second place after the subtropical culture is occupied in fruit growing Turkey walnut crops—the walnut (hazel and walnut), almonds, pistachios and chestnuts. All of these crops are of export value.

In Western Anatolia, in the vilayet of Bursa, sericulture is developed; in 1937 the production of raw silk was 180 m—less than 5% of the production of Europe.

Animal husbandry occupies a prominent place in the rural economy of Turkey. In Central and especially in Eastern Anatolia, abounding in pastures in the form of upland steppes and having relatively small areas of land suitable for agriculture, animal husbandry is the predominant branch of agriculture. In Central Anatolia, small livestock (sheep and goats) predominate, while in Eastern Anatolia, large horned livestock. In coastal areas, livestock raising is of secondary importance compared to agriculture.

On the whole, the breeding of small livestock, sheep and goats, prevails in Turkey. Sheep are almost exclusively fat-tailed. The breed of Angora goats has become widely known, giving long, semi-coarse, silky, pure white wool, which is used for the manufacture of high-grade fabrics, shawls, etc. Angora goats are bred globally in Central Anatolian plateau. Sheep and goat wool is exported from Turkey. In 1939, wool production

totaled 41 thousand tons, including 7.4 thousand m of tiftik (wool of angora goats).

Table 2. – Livestock population (in thousands).

Livestock species	1937	1943	Livestock species	1937	1943
Horses	723	716	Buigol	651	650
Donkeys	1,234	1,218	Pigs	16,449	16,039
Mules	61	70	Goats	8,796	8,495
Camels	106	90	including Angora	3,669	3,321
Large horned Cattle	6,551	7,171			

Forestry. The forest area of T. is St. 9 million hectares (1939). The forests of Turkey. are heavily destroyed. They are focused Central in coastal areas where the slopes are often covered with dense forest. The most developed forestry in the Northern Anatolia. In Western Anatolia, acorns from the valonia oak, a valuable raw material for tanning, are collected for export.

Industry. Sultan's Turkey was characterised by an extremely low level of industrial development. With the exception of a small number of state enterprises of the military industry, partly arose during the First World War 1914-18, Turkish assistance mainly consisted of technically backward, small, in the overwhelming majority of handicraft and small-scale enterprises. A few large enterprises, global enterprises for the extraction of mineral raw materials. Were owned mostly by foreigners. The relatively more rapid development of Turkey refers only to modern times. In

order to protect the local industry from foreign competition, the Turkish government has established strict control over the import of goods and greatly increased the customs tariff on the import of goods produced domestically. A special bank was created in 1933 to finance the patronage. In 1933, a "five-year industrial construction plan" was adopted, which provided for the construction of enterprises in the textile industry and other branches of the light industry. On the basis of the fulfillment of this plan in 1939, the second plan was approved, designed for 4 years. Promoting the industrial development of Turkey, the government sought, on the one hand, to free the country from significant imports and huge foreign exchange costs, on the other, to expand the domestic market for the sale of Turkish agricultural products.

Until recently, only data were published on the products of enterprises enjoying benefits under the Law on Coverage the State of Industry, and other more large enterprises. In 1939, there were 1,144 such enterprises with a motor capacity of 353.3 thousand litres. The products of enterprises enjoying privileges under the law on blood consumption amounted to in 1938—277 million lira, in 1939—331 million, in 1940—460 million (at higher prices).

The mining industry. Although the subsoil of Turkey has not yet been sufficiently studied, there is still no reason to assume that it contains significant mineral resources. In the mining industry, the extraction of coal, which is carried out in the west parts of the Black Sea coast—in the Eregli-Zonguldak-Amasra region. Geological reserves here are estimated

at 1.5-2 billion tons. There are also coal deposits in other regions of the country (in the provinces of Erzurum, San, Konya, etc.), but they are not being developed. If earlier a significant part of coal was exported abroad (chap. About]), to Romania and Greece), then in recent years, due to the growth of the industry of Turkey, the export of coal systematically has been decreasing. In October 1940 a decree was issued on the transfer of coal mines to the state organizations. The main areas of brown coal mining are near Bursa and Izmir. But the mining of chrome ore in Turkey is, along with Southern Rhodesia, first in the world; in 1938 she gave the world production of chromium. Developed deposits of chrome ore are located in Western Anatolia, the main regions of Kutahya and Mugla, then in the region of Eskisehir, as well as in the east—in the region Erganimadeni and others. The richest zalen (and copper are located in Vost. Anatolia, Chapter 6). in the Erganimadeni area, then in the Artvin area, etc. In 1938, a copper smelting plant in Erganimadeni was launched, in connection with which the extraction copper ore began to rise. In 1940, the production of blister copper was 8,551 tons. Zholochnaya ore is mined in the Divrik area and is intended for construction and partially already active metallurgic plant in Karabük. Lead and zinc are mined in the Balikosnra area, boracite in the Bandirma area (Panderma, why is boracite called pandermit), emery in the Aydin region (all in Western Anatolia). A significant part of the finishing industry enterprises (coal mines, fashionable mines) were bought by the government from foreign concessionaires. Turkey's mineral resource base is still far from being used sufficiently. Most of the minerals mined in the country exported abroad either in

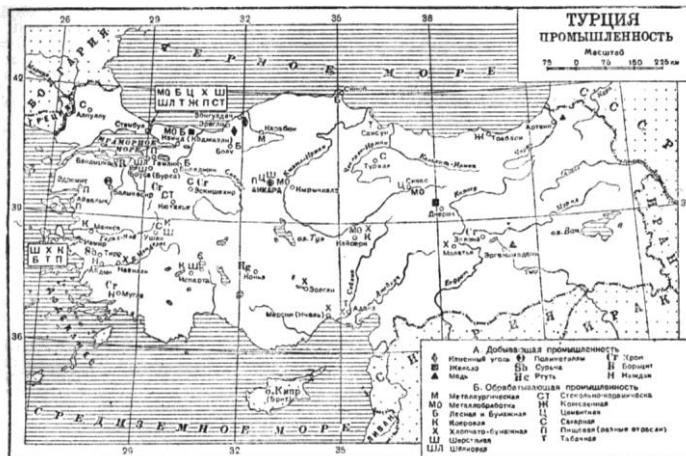
the form of raw materials (all zinc and lead, and until recently almost all chrome ore), or in the form of a semi-finished product (copper ingots).

Processing industry. The main branches of the manufacturing industry of Turkey are the food-flavouring industry and the textile industry, that is, the branches processing agricultural products. raw materials of the country. Among the food industries, the sugar industry, which was re-established in Turkey, stands out: a torn factory in Uşak was launched in 1926. At present, there are 4 sugar factories in Turkey—in Alpulu (Thrace), Uşak and Eskisehir (on the border of Western and Central Anatolia), as well as in Turhal (Sivas vilayet on the border of Central and Eastern Anatolia). The production of the Turkish sugar industry was calculated in 1940 at 887 thousand m of sugar, in 1941 at 86 thousand tons, in 1943 at 96 thousand tons. In Western Anatolia, a global region that gravitates towards Izmir, there is a developed oil mill, which produces vegetable oil from olives, cottonseeds and sesame seeds. There is a large flour mill in Istanbul, Izmir, Ankara, Eskisehir, Konya and other regions. Canning factories (mainly in Istanbul) produce canned vegetables and fruit. The largest tobacco industry enterprises are located in Istanbul, Samsun and Izmir. Tobacco factories process approx. 1/4 leaf tobacco. The rest of the tobacco is exported abroad.

The textile industry ranks second after the food industry; in 1935 it provided over 16% of the total output of the manufacturing products industry of Turkey. The most important in it is cotton industry (more than 200 thousand spindle). The largest cotton

factories built by the organisations of the USSR at the expense of loans provided by the Soviet government are located in Kayseri (33 thousand spindles and 1,000 looms) and Nazilli (29.5 thousand spindles and 768 weaving machines); cotton factories have also been built in Ereğli and Malatya. An old textile mill in Istanbul was reconstructed. There are also cotton factories in Izmir, Tarsus, Isparta. The main centre of the wool industry is Istanbul. In 1938 a large factory was built in Bursa (Brusa). Enterprises of the wool industry in Turkey are in Izmir, Uşak, Ankara, Kayseri, Balikesir, Isparta, etc. In Turkey, the silk industry is also developed in Brusa, then to Istanbul. In addition to a number of mechanised enterprises, there are a large number of handicraft workshops. An artificial silk factory was built in Gemlik.

Turkey—Industry



Tab. 3. — Extraction of useful minerals.

Fossil reeds	Clinic of intention	1929	1939	1910	1943
Stone corner	thousand m	1,421	2,696	3,019	3,168
Brown coal	»	91	160	225	420
Iron ore	»	—	155	85	60
Chromium (according to the content of Cr ₂ O ₃ Cr ₃ O ₈ ore) ³	»	8	96	91	50
Zinc (according to the metal content in the ore!)	»	4.7	7.5
Swipep (by metal content in ore)	»	5.1	6.4
Copper (by metal content in ore)	»	—	6.7	8.7	9.7
Antimony (by metal content in ore)	m	4	660	377	...
Mercury	m	8	15	17	...
Boracite	thousand m	4.6 ¹	14.7
Emery	»	12.1 ²	9.5
1. 1930.	2. 1937.	3. Export.			

A prominent place is occupied by the production of carpets in Turkey, which is mainly concentrated in the Izmir region, and also in some vilayets of the central part of Anatolia and in the south. Most of the enterprises are small handicraft workshops; there are several industrial enterprises, like Most of the carpet

production is exported. Among other branches of the light industry, it should be noted the paper industry, newly created in Izmit (Kadisayat), and glass-porcelain (a new glass factory in Istanbul, a factory in Kutahya), a match (new factory in Büyükdere), etc.

The first heavy industry enterprise in Turkey is a metallurgical plant in Karabük (in the west of North Anatolia, not far from Ereğli-Zonguldak coal district), the construction of which was started by the English firm at the beginning of 1937. The factory will have 2 blast furnaces and 4 open-hearth furnaces and is designed to produce 180 thousand m of metal (beams, rails and sheet metal) and 20 thousand m of pipes. The first stage of the plant has already been launched. A car repair plant in Sivas, aircraft assembly plants in Eskişehir and Kayseri and others have also been built. There are also small shipbuilding and ship repair yards in Istanbul and Izmir. Industrial and non-industrial construction stimulates the development of the construction industry, primarily cement. Cement production increased from 104 thousand m in 1930 to 284 thousand m in 1939, but fell during the war (in 1943-176 thousand m). Finally, it should be noted a number of military factories, mainly in the area of Ankara.

Transport. By the end of the First World War, the length of the railway network in Turkey was 1.085 km. By 1941, the length of the Turkish railway network increased by more than 75% and amounted to 7.4 thousand km is of great importance for Turkey. The completion of the construction of the Baghdad not section on 16/VII/1940 is of great importance for Turkey

between Mosul in Iraq and the station of Nusaybiyya (Arab Nisibin) on the Turkish-Syrian border. This railway opened the way for Turkey access to the Persian Gulf, which during the Second World War was of exceptional importance for the foreign trade of Turkey.

Maritime transport is of great importance in Turkey, serving not only external, but also internal communications of the neighboring regions. In 1939, the Turkish merchant fleet consisted of 244 ships (over 100 m each) with a total tonnage of 244 thousand per. m gross. The Turkish ships, mostly small, mainly served coastal navigation. The most important ports are Istanbul and Izmir. Among other larger ports, it should be noted: on the Black Sea—Samsun, Trabzon (Trebizond), Rize. In the west part of the Black Sea coast there is a group of ports serving the Zonguldak coal basin (Zonguldak, Ereğli and Filyos); in Marmara metro basin—Mudanya, Bandırma (Pandershcha) and Tekirdağ; in the Aegean Sea (apart from Izmir)—Çanakkale and Ayvalık. The largest port on the Mediterranean coast is Mersin, which give access to the sea one of the most important agricultural districts of Turkey.—Adana. A prominent place is occupied by the port of Iskenderun (Alexandretta), which has an ever-increasing military-strategic and economic importance, and also Antalya.

The total length of highways and dirt roads was 1937-38 thousand km. In 1938-1939 and in the subsequent years of the war, the construction of a number of new highways was completed, including Istanbul-Edirne (formerly Adrianople), Istanbul-Ankara and others. At the beginning of 1940, there were about 17 thousand cars.

Foreign trade. The favourable geographical position at the junction of the countries of Europe and Asia, that differ in the composition of their products, the convenience of sea connections, the need for agriculture and the mining industry of Turkey, in foreign markets, which continues, despite the industrial construction of the last period, dependence on the import of foreign goods from other more developed countries, and finally, the indebtedness of Turkey and the foreign currency in foreign currency—all this determined the large role of foreign trade in the economy of Turkey and the intensity of its foreign economic activity connections. The Kemalist Government is pursuing a protectionist customs policy and control over foreign trade, promoting the growth of exports and restricting imports. World War II dealt a heavy blow to Turkey's foreign trade. In 1940, imports decreased by 42% compared with 1939, and exports by 13%. The overwhelming majority of exports are agricultural products, among which are tobacco (about 30% of exports), then nuts, cotton, raisins, etc. Vanchoeyshe place in imports, is occupied by metal products and machines, then textiles.

Table 4.— Foreign trade of Turkey (In thousand lira).

Years	Import	Export	Balance
1929	256.3	155.2	-101.1
1933	74.5	96.2	+21.7
1937	114.4	138.0	+23.6
1938	149.8	144.9	-4.9
1939	118.2	127.4	+9.2
1940	6.89	111.4	+42.5
1941	74.8	123.1	+48.3
1942	147.7	165.0	+17.3
1944	164.4	232.8	+68.4

Until 1933, not a single country played a dominant role in Turkey's foreign trade. The bulk of the Turkish foreign trade turnover was distributed by four countries: Germany, Italy, England, and France. However, in subsequent years, Germany, strengthening its economics. positions in Turkey, began to push other countries out of the Turkish market by imposing in 1935 a clearing agreement. However, the growth of trade relations with Germany on the basis of clearing deprived Turkey of the opportunity to freely dispose of the proceeds from the sale of goods: Germany delayed payments for the goods purchased by her for tens of millions of lire and thus put the Turkish economy in a difficult position. The Second World War, along with a general decline in Turkey's foreign trade, made great changes in its trade relations with individual countries. On 31/VIII/1939 the Turkish-German trade agreement expired. Turkey refused to conclude a new customary agreement and only in January 1940 concluded a temporary an agreement that sharply reduced the volume of trade with Germany. Thus, in 1937, imports from Germany to Turkey amounted to 50 million Turkish lire, in 1940—only 8.1 million, exports to Germany were respectively: 53.2 million lire and 9.7 million. During the war, Germany's share of Turkish exports increased again. Germany supplied Turkey with steel and war materials in exchange for grain, cotton, olive oil, and raw materials. On 21/IV/1944 Turkey, on demand England and the USA stopped exporting chromium to Germany. Along with a sharp decrease in the volume of trade with other countries—Italy, France, etc.—trade with Britain increased. The United States occupies a prominent place in Turkey's foreign trade. Of great importance for the expansion of trade relations with the

United States during the war was the widespread by President Roosevelt on 3/XII/1941 in Turkey the action of the law on the lease or loan of military equipment and materials.

The share of the USSR in Turkish imports in 1937 was 4.8%, and in exports-6.2%. Beginning with the first five-pot value, the industrial sector acquired a prevailing importance in the USSR's imports from Turkey raw materials, and in the export to Turkey—industrial products. During the burrowing five-year plan and the first half of the second five-year plan, the USSR exported threads, fabrics, petroleum products and silicates to Turkey. In the future, the export of tools, sewing machines, etc., motor vehicles, ferrous metals, pipes, machine tools, electrical equipment etc from the USSR to Turkey increased. By importing goods of industrial importance into Turkey, the USSR supplied, in particular, with complete equipment and also provided technical assistance.

Table 5 - Specific gravity of individual country in foreign trade in Turkey (in%).

Countries	Import				Export			
	1937	1939	1940	1942	1937	1939	1940	1942
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Including:								
Germany (including Austria)	43.7	52.6	11.7	27.6	38.5	37.3	8.7	24.7
USA	15.1	9.9	10.8	4.8	13.9	14.3	14.1	17.0
England	6.2	6.3	14.0	23.4	7.1	5.7	10.4	15.3
Italy	5.3	8.5	16.3	3.0	5.3	10.0	16.1	3.0
Romania	1.4	2.0	15.7	—	0.7	1.4	10.8	—
France other countries	1.1	1.9	2.8	—	3.8	4.4	5.9	—
	27.2	28.7	28.7	41.2	30.7	26.9	34.0	40.0

Monetary system, credit, finance.

Monetary unit— lira (Turkish pound) = 100 piastres; piastre is topped up by 40 pairs. The Turkish gold lira contains 6,01518 in gold. But the akin to the 1939 Turkish paper exchange rate the lira was equal to 0.78 dollars, as of June 1941—\$0.76. On 31/V/1939, the state debt of the Republic of Turkey was 619 million, including foreign debt of 224 million lira. Turkey's debt in 1943 reached 1,392 million liras, including 362 million liras in foreign currency.

In 1940/41, the ordinary budget of Turkey was 268.5 million lira, and the extraordinary one, 109.9 million. In 1943/44, the ordinary budget was approved in the amount of 486 million lira. In the years preceding World War II, customs duties occupied a prominent place in the budget. The reduction in imports in connection with the war greatly reduced the size of customs duties, which amounted to 28.6 million lira in 1940/41 against 51.9 million in 1939/40. In this regard, the government of Turkey was forced to increase taxation, both direct and indirect. The expenditure part of the ordinary budget in 1942/43 consisted of: expenses for the Ministry of Defense and military factories—100.5 million liras, for payment of loan obligations—106.6 million liras, expenditures for public works, mainly railway construction—30.2 million liras; the cost of education, hygiene and social security—43.3 million liras. Defence expenditures are not limited to ordinary budget allocations. Instead, with additional extraordinary appropriations for defence, military expenditures in 1942/43 amounted to 261 million liras against 150 million in 1940/41 and 200 million in 1941/42.

The Central Bank, established in 1930, performs the

functions of the state bank and enjoys the right to issue. Most of the shares of the Central Bank owned by the state.

Economic regions. The main, Asian part of Turkey can be divided into the following 5 economical districts.

Western Anatolia, adjacent to the Aegean and Marmara Seas, is one of the most populated and economically important regions of Turkey. The transverse stretch of mountain ranges in relation to the sea coast and the resulting wedging of coastal valleys far into the interior of the mainland determine a wide area of influence of the Mediterranean climate. These are coastal valleys (Gediz-Chaya, the Big and Small Menderes rivers, etc.). with excellent climatic conditions and fertile soils, almost entirely cultivated. Western Anatolia is the largest region of Mediterranean fruit growing in Turkey: olives, figs, carob, and partly citrus crops; one of the largest technical areas. crops: tobacco, cotton, opium poppy, sesame; finally, a large centre of the grain industry, which gives a significant amount of export barley. Western Anatolia is the largest export region of Turkey; on the coast near the Aegean Sea there is the second most important port of Turkey—Izmir. The region is also distinguished by its industrial-production—mining of chromium, lead, boracite (near Bandırma), emery (near Aydin), textile, cotton-ginning (Izmir, Manisa, Aydin), as well as silkworm production [Bursa (Brusy) region]. The forests of the region are the main source of Valones in Turkey.

Southern Anatoli is also characterised by a Mediterranean climate, with the difference that high

mountain ranges run parallel to the coast here and come close to it, leaving a narrow flat coastal strip, expanding only in the east and forming the vast Cilician lowland. The area of influence of the Mediterranean climate here is therefore much smaller than in Western Anatolia. By population density Southern Anatolia strongly inferior to the Western. In the direction of the agricultural South of Anatolia is in many respects similar to Western, being also a large region of fruit growing and technical cultures. The most important is the fertile Cilician lowland (Adana-Mersin region), one of the main agricultural regions of Turkey. This is the main region of cotton growing, one of largest areas of the Mediterranean fruit growing, as well as grain production (wheat, rice, oats). Main centres South Anatolia—Adana and Mersin (İçel) with a cotton-ginning industry, food flavouring, etc. The Mediterranean ports (Mersin, İskenderun, and Antalya) play a prominent role in foreign trade of Turkey (export of cotton, olive oil, citrus fruits, opium, and copper, etc.).

Northern Anatolia is rich in forests covering the coastal mountain slopes, and water streams, convenient for rafting forests, which determines the significant development of forestry and logging here. There are many sawmills in the region, often very primitive. The export of moose is significant. Northern Anatolia has the largest tobacco growing regions in Turkey (Samsun, then Trabzon), corn crops and hazelnut harvesting (in the eastern part of the region), and one of the largest regions of citrus crops (Rize). Within the Northern Anatolia is also home to the largest coal mining region of Turkey (Ereğli-Zonguldak) and a metallurgical plant under construction in Karabük. The region is exporting coal, tobacco and timber. The most important ports are

Zonguldak, Samsun, Trabzon (Trebizond).

Central Anatolia occupies the huge central plateau of Asia Minor with a dry, sharply continental climate. This is an area of upland steppes, rocky and salt deserts, alternating with small plots of cultivated lands in river valleys, less often on mountain slopes with soil cover and sufficient irrigation. Cattle breeding prevails here over agriculture, especially in the eastern parts of the district. Mainly small livestock are bred—Angora goats and fat-tailed sheep wandering on rocky ridges of hills with a thin grass cover, where farming is impossible. The southern and western regions of Central Anatolia play a prominent role in the grain farming of Turkey, mainly in wheat production. There are also planting of industrial crops, in particular the opium poppy (in the region of Kütahya, Afyon-Karahisar). The central part of the region is cut by the largest river in Turkey, the Kızıl-Irmak, whose waters are used for irrigation of wheat fields and vineyards. The use of a number of other rivers and streams for irrigation is also widespread here. The Konya irrigated area is located in the south-west of Central Anatolia with engineering irrigation facilities.

After the First World War, a large industry grew in the region—military (in the Ankara region), textile (Kayseri), food, etc. There are long-standing nests of carpet production (Isparta and others).

Eastern Anatolia and are a region of upland steppes with a severe continental climate. Pasture animal husbandry is the main branch of the economy of the region. Sheep and cattle are bred, which are exported in large numbers from the district both to the inner regions and abroad (through the port of Trabzon). The region exports wool and dairy products. Agriculture is

concentrated on large and small plains, as well as in numerous hollows, separated from one another by mountain ranges. This isolation of agricultural regions, which, moreover, lacks good communications, often limits the production of agricultural products to the limits of their own consumption. As a rule, artificial irrigation is used everywhere. Of the agricultural regions, the most important are: the Erzincan and Erzurum plains located along the upper Euphrates, the Passinler valley along the upper Araks, the area of Lake Van, which is a volcanic, a highland teeming with well-irrigated plains. Grain farming, melon growing, horticulture and horticulture are developed in agricultural regions. The importance of millet and rye is greater here than in other regions of Turkey. The southeast is distinguished by wheat crops. part of the area. East Anatolia is rich in minerals—copper (Erganimadeni), iron (Divrik). Erzurum, a large transit centre for caravan routes, stands out from the cities here.

European Turkey (East Thrace) is a mountainous region with a dry climate and sparse vegetation. The region gravitates towards Istanbul, which has a decisive influence on the entire structure of its economy. In parts of the district adjacent to Istanbul, suburban farming is strongly represented (truck farming, gardening, dairy farming). Agriculture is confined to river valleys with grain crops, tobacco plantations, orchards and vineyards. In the mountainous parts of the region there is grazing livestock.

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E. Davydov.

IV. Historical Essay.

The Ottoman Empire.

The rise and fall of Sultan's Turkey. Turkey as an independent state began to take shape in the first half of the 14th century, in Anatolia (Asia Minor). The core of this new state was the possessions of one small tribe of Oghuz Turks in the north-west Anatolia, between Bilecik and Eskisehir. According to Turkish historical legends, the founder of the state was Osman I, the son of Ertogrul, who was in vassal dependence on the Konya Seljuk sultans, and in 1299 declared himself an independent sovereign. By the name of Osman, the state began to be called Osmanli, or Ottoman empire, as well as the Turks, who became the dominant nation in the empire, received the name of the Ottoman Turks. The basis of the power of the Ottoman Turks was the military-feudal organisation inherited from the Seljuks. The conquered lands were handed out to the military fiefdoms, the Sipahis, who were obliged to come to war with a certain number of armed horsemen, in proportion to the income received from the population of their lands. Having subjugated certain neighboring Turkish appanage principalities, formed on the ruins of the Seljuk monarchy, the Ottoman Turks directed their expansion to mainly against Byzantine Empire. In 1326, Brusa (Bursa) was conquered, which in 1329 became the first capital of the Ottoman state. In 1358, during the reign of Orhan, son and successor of Osman, the Turks crossed the Dardanelles and invaded Europe possessions of Byzantium. Orhan's son and successor Murad I (1359-89) conquered Adrianople (Edirne in Turkish) and moved

the capital there (1365). Under Murad I, who assumed the title of Sultan, a formidable military force was created—the army of the Janissaries. The Janissaries (in Turkish “Yeniçeri”, that is, the new militia) were the regular infantry; it was the first professional, standing army in Europe. Together with the feudal cavalry (Sipahi), the janissaries ensured the rapid success of the Turkish weapons on the Balkan Peninsula. In 1389, the battle on the Kosovo field decided the fate of Serbia, which became a tributary of the Turks. During the reign of Sultan Bayzid (Bayazet) Lightning (1389-1402), the Turks conquered Bulgaria, Macedonia, Thessaly and came close to Constantinople. In 1396 at Nicopolis, they defeated the crusader militia of Sigismund of Hungary. The final fall of Byzantium was delayed by half a century by the invasion of Timur (Tamerlane) to Anatolia. In the battle of Angora (Ankara) in 1402, Timur defeated the Ottomans and captured Sultan Bayazid. The external defeat was followed by an internecine struggle between the sons of Bayezid, and a great peasant war broke out in Anatolia and Thrace, the largest phenomenon being the Bedreddiya Simavi uprising. It was a swarm of Bedreddia Simavi's uprising. Since the 1440s, after the departure of Timur's troops.

Since the 1440s, after the withdrawal of Timur's troops from Asia Minor and the suppression of the peasant movement by large feudal lords, the Ottomans resumed their conquests. In 1444, at Varna, the Turks defeated another crusader militia of the Hungarians and Poles under the leadership of Vladislav III. 29/V/1453 Sultan Mehmed II the Conqueror (1451-81) took Constantinople. The Byzantine Empire ceased to exist. Constantinople (in Turkish—Istanbul, or, as it is

customary to write, Istanbul) became the Turkish capital. Then Mehmed II finally eliminated the independence of Serbia, conquered Bosnia, Herzegovina, Albania, Morea and the rest of Greece, established his sovereignty over Moldova, Wallachia, the Crimean Khanate (1478), completed the unification of almost all of Anatolia.

The Ottoman feudal empire reached its peak in the 16th century. Under Selim I the Terrible (1512-20), the Turks conquered Mosul, Syria and Palestine in 1516, and Egypt in 1517 (with the conquest of Egypt, Turkish tradition subsequently linked the transfer of the dignity of the Caliph to the Turkish sultans), in 1519—Algeria. Turkey achieved even greater power under the Sultan Suleiman the Legislator, or, as the Europeans called him, Suleiman the Magnificent (1520-66). In Europe, Suleiman fought for hegemony with the Holy Roman Empire of Charles V. In 1526, the victory at Mogach transferred all of southern Hungary into the hands of the Turks, and later, in the 1540s, the Turks established their rule in the Centre Hungary. In 1529 the first siege of Vienna by the Turks took place, which was lifted with the onset of winter. In subsequent years, Suleiman again sent military expeditions to Central Europe, as well as to Poland and Ukraine. The Turkish fleet dominated not only in the Black Sea, but also in the Mediterranean Sea. Under the sovereignty of the Turks crossed the island of Rhodes (1521) and other islands of the Aegean and Ionian seas. In 1534 the Turks captured Baghdad. In Africa, Tunisia (1525) and Tripoli (1553) came under Turkish rule.

Many European states were looking for an alliance with the powerful Turkish sultan. In 1535 Suleiman the Magnificent and the French King Francis I concluded an

allied treaty, as well as a trade convention, which provided the French merchants special privileges in the Middle East: fixed amount of duties, exemption from taxes, non-jurisdiction of the Turkish court. Soon, the same benefits were provided to some other European states. Documents containing a list of privileges that the Sultan gave to foreign merchants, were called capitulations (chapters, articles). They proceeded from the sovereign will of the Sultan (who was the patron of trade and crafts and, in this regard, sought to develop economic relations with Europe) and could be taken back by him at any time; only later did they turn into a painful and humiliating capitulation regime for Turkey.

In the internal life of Turkey, the reign of Suleiman the Magnificent was marked by a number of legislative acts that encouraged crafts, art, science, and literature. Trade has been greatly developed. Along with the enrichment of the conquerors through the direct enslavement of the conquered peoples—the tribute imposed on them and the seizure of lands—the state income in the form of farms and duties, which were levied on internal and transit trade greatly increased.

However, already in the heyday, the contradictions that were laid down in the military-feudal organisation of the Ottomans also developed. At first, the sultans, the military vassal (Sipahi) and janissaries were exclusively engaged in military affairs. They were not engaged in any economy, or trade, or crafts. The Sipahi derived income from the flax they received only by collecting taxes. Janissaries lived on a salary. But successful wars, contributing to the accumulation of wealth in the hands of feudal lords, increased the profitability of land ownership and its attractive power.

Feudal lords began to acquire an interest not only in the fiscal, but also in the economic exploitation of the land. Large feudal landownership was established. The court favourites, pashas, beys, and usurers, profited and gained more and more importance. Along with the secular feudal lords, the Muslim clergy grew rich, concentrating at their disposal in the form of waqfs (immovable property of mosques and other Muslim spiritual institutions of all cultivated lands. The lands that belonged to the Turkish feudal lords and the Muslim clergy were cultivated by peasants who were in the position of tenants and serfs and who in their overwhelming majority belonged to non-Turkish nationalities. The exploitation of the peasantry increased sharply, and this, in turn, led to the decline of the rural economy. Often the peasants abandoned the land, fled to the cities, but they did not always find work there. At the same time, great geographers' discoveries diverted from Turkey, a significant share of trade and transit. The economy of Turkey became stagnant, and it was backward economically and culturally. Military affairs also fell into decay: the landlords bought off military service, the feudal cavalry decreased in number and lost its fighting qualities. Along with peasant uprisings, feudal troubles arose more and more often. The sultans tried to use the janissaries against the disgruntled fliers, but at the same time they themselves became increasingly dependent on the janissaries. The latter staged palace coups, removed unwanted viziers and sultans, and became instruments of internal and sometimes foreign intrigues.

The first clear sign of the beginning decline of the Ottoman Empire was the defeat of the Turkish fleet in

the battle with the Spaniards and Italians at Lepanto in 1571. However, for a whole century the Turks retained the territories they had conquered, and in some places even expanded their borders. The weakening of Turkey began only in the second half of the 17th century. True, this weakening was not so much absolute as relative, due to the growth of the military power of the Western powers with the introduction of permanent mercenary armies on the basis of a much faster development of the monetary economy than in Turkey than in the past. In 1683 the Turks were severely defeated at Vienna. This marked the end of Turkish expansion in Europe. The reverse process began—the retreat of the Turks and the subsequent fall of the territories they had conquered. According to the Peace of Narlovitz in 1699, Turkey ceded to Austria Transylvania, according to the Peace of Pozharovatsky in 1718—Small Wallachia, Banat, and for a while also Belgrade; the southern part of the Right-Bank Ukraine went to Poland, Venice received Morea and some fortresses in Dalmatia. Russia acquired Azov, taken by the Russian troops of Peter I in 1696.

In the wars of the 18th century with Russia and Austria, Turkey suffered major territorial losses. From 1735 to 1739, Turkey waged a war against Russia and Austria. This war (after the major victory of the Russian troops at Stavuchany and the capture of Khotin in 1739) ended with the Belgrade Peace, along which the Austro-Turkish border was pushed back to the Danube and Sava, and Russia again received Azov (ceded to Turkey in 1711, after the Prut campaign of Peter I). Under Catherine II, Russia fought two wars with Turkey. The first Russo-Turkish War (1768-1774) was marked by a number of brilliant victories of the Russian troops under the command of Rumyantsev and Suvorov; in 1770 the

Russian fleet, passing from the Baltic Sea to the Mediterranean, defeated the Turkish naval forces in the Chesme Bay, in the Aegean Sea. According to Kucuk-Kaynarci Peace Treaty of 1774, the Crimean Khanate was declared independent of Turkey; Bug became the Russian-Turkish border in the southwest; Russian merchant ships were allowed to navigate the Black Sea and through the Straits. In 1783 Crimea was annexed to Russia. The second Russo-Turkish war (1787-91) ended with the defeat of Turkey thanks to the victories of Suvorov (Focsani, Rimpik, Ishmmael). According to the Yassi Peace Treaty of 1792, Russia received the land between the Bug and Dniester; Turkey recognised the annexation of Crimea to Russia. At the same time, the Ottoman Empire was increasingly falling under the political and economic influence of major European powers. In 1740, Turkey secured for France capitalist privileges forever. In 1774, Russia included the terms of the capitulation regime in the Küçük-Kaynarci Treaty (see Küçük-Kaynarci peace). So did the other Powers afterwards. Thus, the benefits to foreigners became a contractual obligation. Bound by the capitulation regime, Turkey had no right to raise duties or tax foreigners. trade taxes, attract foreigners to the Turkish court, that is, it lost the ability to protect its weak economy from the onslaught of European trade and industrial capital.

Europe. The great Powers put the so-called Eastern question on the agenda of their policy, which was mainly reduced to the problem of division of Turkey and, first of all, its European possessions.

Attempts at reform. French bourgeois revolution of the late 18th century and the Napoleonic Wars greatly exacerbated the Eastern question. Turkey's war against Russia in 1800-12 ended with the transfer of Bessarabia to Russia. The national liberation movement of the Balkan Christian peoples arose. Separatist tendencies intensified in various parts of the empire. At the beginning of the 19th century, the Serbs revolted. The Greeks rose up behind them in 1821, seeking complete independence. Egypt actually broke away from Turkey, Moldavia and Wallachia, Montenegro, Albania, Epirus and a number of other regions only nominally remained under the sovereignty of the Sultan.

The threat of complete disintegration and destruction of the multinational feudal state gave rise in the Turkish ruling circles to the desire to carry out reforms aimed at reviving the military power of the empire and overcoming feudal fragmentation. The first attempts at such reforms were undertaken by Sultan Selim III (1789-1807). The set of activities of Selim, as well as the new regular army created by him, which was to replace the Janissaries), were called "nizam-i-dzikedid" ("new system"). But the reforms of Selim III caused a series of uprisings of the janissaries and cost both Selim himself and the borrower of his business, Grand Vizier Mustafa Bayraktar) (both of them were killed by reactionaries). Only in 1826 did Sultan Mahmud II (1808-39) liquidate the Janissary corps, subjecting them to almost universal extermination. Mahmud II fiercely, although not always successfully, fought against the separatism of the feudal lords. Under him, the war system was virtually destroyed, although some of its juridiches, the norms still formally continued to

exist, but in practice the land entered into private circulation. The policy of Mahmud II, despite its half-heartedness, paved the way for progressive reforms in Turkey, known as tanzimat (transformations, reforms).

The need for reforms was caused not only by the difficult internal position of Turkey, but also by its exceptional foreign policy, weakening, continuously increasing economic lagging behind Europe, state-in and a drop in defence capability. Having brought in Egyptian troops and a navy to suppress the Greek national revolution, Turkey rejected the demand of Russia, England and France to grant the Greeks broad autonomy. Then the united fleet of these three powers inflicted a decisive defeat on the Turkish-Egyptian fleet in the Navarino Bay in 1827. Then followed the Russian-Turkish War of 1828-29, which ended in the Peace of Adrianople. As a result of the defeat inflicted on the Turks by Russian troops, Greece from 1830 became completely independent, and Serbia received autonomy. In 1831-1833 hostilities took place between the troops of the Turkish Sultan and his vassal, the Egyptian Pasha Mehmod (Muhammad) Ali, who demanded recognition of his independence. Vseisk Muhammad Ali, inflicting on the Turks a number of anti-terrorist forces, occupied Syria and a significant part of Anatolia and directly threatened the Turkish capital. Then Sultan Mahmud II agreed to put Tsar Nicholas I. by such strengthening of Russia in Turkey, achieved the conclusion of an agreement between the Sultan and Muhammad Ali, after which they insisted on the withdrawal of Russian troops from Turkey. But before withdrawing its troops from Turkish territory, Russia on 8/VII/1833 concluded a treaty with Turkey, Unkar-Iskelesi. by virtue of which Turkey actually poured

under the patronage of Russia. Therefore, under the treaty Turkey pledged to close the Dardanelles to warships hostile to Russia. In the second clash with the warriors of Muhammad Ali in 1839, the Turkish army was completely defeated, and the Turkish fleet went over to the Egyptians. However, England, having secured the protection of the Russian Federation for Turkey general European reasons: by an agreement (London Convention 1840), directed against Muhammad Ali, forced the latter to submit to the decision of the daring. At the same time, trying to use Turkey against Russia, England began to support the policy of tanzimat.

Tanzimatu was initiated by Sultan Abdul-Medzkid's (1839-61) Sultan Abdul-Majid, published in 1839, Khatt-i-Sherif (Rescript). The inspiration and author of this document was the Minister of Foreign Affairs, later the Grand Vizier, Reshid Pasha, an enlightened and progressive figure for his time. The rescript promised to provide all subjects of the Empire, regardless of their religion, with the inviolability of life, honour and property, introduce regular collection and correct distribution of taxes and abolish the ransom system, establish a correct conscription for military service and limit it to a certain period. The rescript of 1839 was followed by certain laws concerning the army, government apparatus and finance. But almost all of these laws remained on paper. The reactionary forces—the feudal lords, the higher clergy, the bureaucracy, the Sultan's court—stubbornly resisted the reforms. Also against Tanimura made in Europe, great powers, some of them openly, others covertly hindered the renewal of Turkish absolutism, so that, taking advantage of the weakness of Turkey, finally subordinate it to their influence and domination. The ransom system was never

abolished. The legal inequality of non-Muslims has been preserved. Pasha's arbitrariness was not limited by anything.

The Crimean War of 1853-56, it would seem, brought Turkey victory. The Turks fought in an alliance with England and France against Russia, and the Paris Peace, which contained a number of unfavourable conditions for Russia, confirmed the "independence and integrity of the Ottoman Empire", included Turkey in the "concert" of European powers, it is the southern part of Bessarabia. But in reality, this treatise was a step towards the transformation of Turkey into a dependent country. Not long before the signing of the Paris Treaty, the Western powers forced the Sultan to give a new rescript on the reforms ("khatt-i humayun" 1856), and then took away the mention of this rescript in the treatise. Thus, the domestic policy of Turkey was subordinated to the control of Europe. powers. At the same time, the financial enslavement of Turkey Western Europe began capital. In 1854, the Turkish government received the first external loan from its allies, followed by a number of others. The loans were concluded on conditions that were difficult for Turkey and, at the same time, strengthened the political control of England and France.

The transformation of Turkey into a semi-colony. In the early 1870s, Turkey entered a period of acute political and economic crisis. Sultan Abdul-Aziz (1861-76) replaced the tanzimat policy with a violent reaction. The autocratic power of the Sultan was supported by oppressing the Turkish and foreign masses. Peasant uprisings broke out with renewed vigor in

various regions of the empire. The uprising of the Christian population in the Balkans in 1875, which, since the landlords were Muslims, assumed a general anti-Muslim and anti-Turkish coloration, provoked a new intervention of the powers in Turkish affairs. Turkey's external debt reached 5.3 billion francs by 1875. (Of these, the Turks actually received only about 3 billion). The treasury was empty. Agriculture—the only source of tax revenue—was in a pitiful state. The Sultan's court aggravated the country's difficult financial situation with unheard of waste. In October 1875, Turkey was forced to officially declare its financial bankruptcy.

The nascent national bourgeoisie sought salvation in the creation of a constitutional order. Its ideologists were the intelligentsia-bureaucratic circles, who organised the party of "new Ottomans". A prominent politician became its leader, activist Midhat Pasha. In May 1876, the "new Ottomans" staged a palace coup. After overthrowing Sultan Abdul Aziz and elevating the weak-willed Murad V to the throne, they prepared to turn Turkey into a constitutional bourgeois state on request by Western Europe. But their forces were still insufficient to cope with the Sultan's autocracy. In the fall of 1876, the mental illness of Murad V led to a new change of the Sultan. The young Abdul-Hamid II came to the throne. He agreed to introduce the constitution developed by Midhat, but viewed it only as a diplomat, maneuver, had to strengthen the position of Turkey in front of European powers.

The proclamation of the constitution was preceded by the rise of the national-liberation struggle of the Balkan Slavs against Turkish rule: in 1875 the population of Bosnia and Herzegovina came out, and in July 1876 Serbia and Montenegro began a war with Turkey, as a

result of which Turkey concluded a truce with the Serbs. To prevent the strengthening of Russia in the Balkans, the European powers (at the initiative of England) convened a conference in Constantinople (Istanbul). This made the government of Abdul-Hamid to hurry up with the proclamation of the constitution. The Constitution was promulgated in December 1876, and already at the beginning of 1877, immediately after the end of the Constantinople Conference, which did not lead to positive results, Abdul-Hamid dismissed and exiled Midhat Pasha (later Midhat was killed by the assassins sent by the Sultan). The outbreak of war with Russia in 1877-78 further weakened the position of the advocates of reforms. At the beginning of 1878, taking advantage of the state of emergency created in connection with the offensive of Russian troops on Istanbul, Abdul-Hamid dispersed the parliament convened on the basis of the constitution and introduced a regime of brutal terror and violence, called "zulum" (oppression, tyranny).

Abdul-Hamid II, with his reactionary policy, contributed to the further aggravation of the crisis of the Turkish state, the establishment of new forms of foreign control over Turkey was to recognise the full independence of Serbia, Montenegro and Romania, as well as the autonomy of Bulgaria and East Rumelia (in 1885 Eastern Rumelia united with Bulgaria), ceded to Russia the districts of Batumi, Kars and Ardahan and return Bessarabia to it. Heavy indemnity was imposed on Turkey. Moreover, Austria-Hungary occupied Bosnia and Herzegovina under the pretext of pacifying these areas, and England occupied Cyprus for her help to Turkey. In 1881 France occupied Tunisia, and in 1882 England— Egypt.

After the Berlin Congress, Turkey's dependence on the great powers increased significantly. The Berlin treatise determined the control of the powers over the reforms in Turkey. In 1881, the Sultan published the so-called. "Muharrem decree" (Muharrem is the month of the Muslim calendar), according to which the Office of the Ottoman state was organised by foreign creditors of Turkey debt. The most substantial incomes of the empire and control over its finances were transferred to the management. Even before that, the Anglo-French capital was created by the Ottoman Bank with the right to issue. Such important branches of the Turkish national economy, as a tobacco monopoly, railway construction, port facilities, utilities enterprises, etc., wholly or in large part passed into the hands of foreign concessionaires, Turkey turned into an imperialist semi-colonial power.

At the end of the 19th century, German imperialism began to be very active in Turkey. Beginning in 1888 the German capitalists received a number of concessions for the construction of railways. In 1903, the Germans received a concession for the construction of the Baghdad railway, tec. Edges should have served as one of the most important ways for the deep penetration of German imperialism into the Middle East.

In foreign policy, Turkey lost all independence. The powers were preparing a complete section of the "Ottoman inheritance" and only rivalry and contradictions between them delayed the final death of Turkey.

The position of the popular masses of Turkey deteriorated even more. Abdul-Hamid II, a despot and a maniac, stifled the slightest manifestation of free thought in the country. Kindling up the national strife,

he provoked brutal pogroms of Armenians in 1894-96, which earned him the nickname “bloody sultan”.

The Young Turks Revolution. At the end of the 19th century, in Turkey, a stormy revolutionary movement arose, called the Young Turks. The Young Turks set themselves the goal of restoring the “Midhat constitution”. The main politician, the organisation of the Young Turks was the secret committee “Unity and Progress”. The Young Turk movement entered a period of growth after 1905, when “the awakening to the political life of the Asian peoples received a special impetus from the Russian-Japanese war and from the Russian revolution” (Lenin, Soch., Vol. XII, p. 357). In 1906, the “Unity and Progress” committee moved its seat from abroad to Thessaloniki, established contacts with wide circles of the Turkish intelligentsia; especially military, as well as with non-Turkish bourgeois progressive organisations and began to prepare an armed uprising. At the end of June 1908, active members of the committee, officers of the Turkish army in Macedonia Niyazi and Enver, at the head of small detachments, went into the mountains and raised an uprising. In a short time, the entire Macedonian army and numerous “Chetniks” (partisans) joined the rebels. 23/VII/1908 Sultan Abdul-Hamid I, under the threat of a march of the revolutionary army against Istanbul, announced the restoration of the constitution of 1876. This is how the “bloodless” Young Turk revolution took place.

In the first months after the revolution, the Young Turks enjoyed the support of wide sections of the population, both Muslims and Christians. Before the

revolution, the Young Turks secured this support for themselves with a promise to resolve the agrarian and national issues in Turkey. i.e., they promised to endow the Macedonian and Armenian peasants with land, giving them part of the land of the feudal lords, and the state and church lands; in addition, they promised to abolish the feudal tithe (ashar) and the rejected system. Non-Turkish nationalities in Turkey (and above all Arabs and Armenians), supporting the Young Turkish movement, hoped after the revolution to get a wide national and cultural autonomy. But the Young Turks were afraid of the movement of the broad masses of the people. The Committee "Unity and Progress" in every possible way prevented the development of the young-tough bourgeois revolution into a bourgeois-democratic one. The Young Turks did not satisfy a single century of peasant demands (to endow the Macedonian peasants with land, to replace the Ashar with a monetary tax), and did not resolve the national question. The non-Turkish nationalities expected a new autonomy, while the Young Turks came out for a unitary centralised state. Moreover, the Young Turks began to stifle the sprouts of the labour movement that were breaking through. Therefore, they soon alienated the Turkish people from themselves, as well as the oppressed nationalities of the empire (Macedonians, Greeks, Armenians, Arabs, etc.). In the country, the nation began to manifest itself with renewed vigour and discord. It was taken advantage of by the Turkish reactionaries who opposed the "Unity and Progress" committee. The weakness of the Young Turk revolution was also exploited by European powers that feared that the political and national revival of Turkey would weaken their economic and political influence. The Young

Turks' revolution came under attack from both internal reaction and the imperialist powers.

In October 1908, Austria-Hungary annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina. Bulgaria used the provision to proclaim complete independence from Turkey. Along with these foreign policies internal upheavals occurred as complications. In April 1909, Abdul-Hamid II tried to restore the autocratic regime. Relying on the garrison of the capital, which rebelled against the Young Turks, and on the reactionary party "Ahrar" (liberals), he removed the government and dispersed the parliament. However, the troops that came out of Macedonia, led by the Young Turks commanders, suppressed the rebellion. The parliament, which resumed its work, deposed Abdul-Hamid II. Mehmed V (1909-18) became the sultan—a colorless and weak-willed figure. Having regained their power, the Young Turks put forward the reactionary slogan of pan-Ottomanism—the transformation of all the nationalities of the empire into a kind of single "Ottoman" nation; in fact, this led to the violent extermination of minorities. The Young Turks also practiced such methods of fighting the national movement, like inciting one nationality against another. In foreign policy, the Young Turks did not strive for a complete liberation of Turkey from foreign control, but only for the choice of the most powerful power, in their opinion, under the protection of which they would like to place their country. The German imperialists attracted influential figures of the Young Turkish Party (including Enver) to their side, and Turkey was steadily drawn into the orbit of the German politics.

In the meantime, external and internal complications intensified more and more. In 1911, Italy

attacked Tripolitania, and the Italian-Turkish (Tripolitan) War of 1911-12 began. The small Turkish troops in Tripolitania were defeated, but the local Arab population put up stubborn resistance to the Italians, and the struggle dragged on. In the summer of 1912, political opponents of the Young Turks, the rock liberals, who formed the Freedom and Harmony Party, overthrew the Young Turks and seized power into their own hands. In October 1912, Turkey threatened wars with the Balkan states, signed peace treaty with Italy in Lausanne-Ouchy, according to which she abandoned her African possessions. In the same month began 1st Balkan War (1912-13). Vs Turkey. spoke Bulgaria, Serbia, Montenegro and Greece. The Turkish army was fast. This time, the Young Turks took advantage of the Liberal failures. In January 1913 Enver made a coup d'etat, party "Freedom and Consent" resigned, and the Young Turks came to power again. But they failed to improve martial law. According to the London Peace (30/V/1913) Turkey lost all of its European territory, with the exception of the Istanbul zone and straits with a small strip to the west of it. Only in the Second Balkan War (summer 1913), which broke out between the former Balkan allies, did Turkey regain Thrace with Adrianople (Edirne).

Turkey actually began to govern the triumvirate—Enver, Talaat, Dyasemal—torn away, but only from the people, but even from the national bourgeoisie. After the Balkan War, the slogan of pan-ottomanism lost its meaning. To replace him, the Young Turks put forward even more reactionary slogans of pan-Turkism (the subordination of all the Turks who live outside Turkey to the Turkish sultan) and pan-Islamism (the subordination of Muslims of the whole world to the Turkish sultan as

caliph). The oppression of non-Turkish nationalities has reached an even greater force than under Abdul Hamid. Turkey's dependence on foreign capital also increased.

Collapse of the Ottoman Empire. At the end 1913 German military arrived in Istanbul mission led by General Lyman von Sanders. The initiator of the invitation was Enver Pasha. The mission actually took control of the entire the leadership of the Turkish army. At the very beginning of the First World War, there was a secret German-Turkish alliance was concluded on 2/VIII/1914, which provided for the annexation of Germany in its war against Russia. Hiding in the straits of the Germans, the warships "Goeben" and "Kreslau" joined the Turkish fleet, headed by a German admiral. On 29/X/1914 "Goeben" and "Breslau" bombarded the Russian coast and attacked Russian ships. Turkey entered the war as a weapon of the German imperialists. Poorly prepared for war and had a weak railway network, Turkey was supposed to conduct military operations at once on 4 fronts. Successful offensive operations of the Russian troops on the Caucasian Front led to the loss of Erzurum and Trebizond by the Turks in 1916 and to the exit of the Russians on the Sivas and Mosul directions. Two attempts by German-Turkish forces to cross the Suez Canal and invade Egypt ended in failure. Anglo-Indian troops in November 1914 landed in southern Iraq, occupied Basra, and although in 1916 the Turks defeated the English, an expeditionary army (the remnants of the cut, besieged in Kut-el-Amar, surrendered)–in 1917 the position of the Turks on the Mesopotamian front deteriorated again; and in March

1917 the British took Baghdad. The actions of Anglo-French landing on the Gallipoli Peninsula (April 1915-January 1916) were not crowned with success.

Participation in the First World War finally destroyed the Ottoman Empire. There was no money in the treasury. The army, worn out by previous wars, was extremely weak. There was a shortage of weapons, shells, cartridges, clothing, shoes. Already in the second year of the war, food difficulties began in Turkey, and then famine. A brutal terror reigned in the country. Young Turks authorities encouraged by its command, carried out inhuman pogroms and executions of Armenians, Arabs and other peoples of the empire. In 1916, an Arab uprising took place in the Hejaz under the leadership of the Meccan Sheriff Hussein. Food riots broke out in various cities of Turkey, including in Istanbul itself. The army was decaying; the number of deserters began to exceed the number of soldiers at the front. Even in the Young Turks elite, confusion and fear began to be observed. There were several attempts to eliminate Enver Pasha and to come to terms with the Entente, but Enver, relying on German bayonets, mercilessly suppressed all opposition.

The Great October Socialist Revolution in Russia created a new environment for Turkey. The Decree on Peace, adopted by the 2nd All-Russian Congress of Soviets on 8/XI(26/X)/1917, declared all the secret treaties of the tsarist and Provisional governments "unconditionally and immediately" cancelled. The appeal of the Council of People's Commissars of the RSFSR "To all working Muslims of Russia and the East" dated 3/12(20/XI)/1917, signed by Lenin and Stalin, said that "the secret treaties of the deposed tsar on the capture of Constantinople, confirmed by the

overthrown Kerensky, are now torn and destroyed."... The possibility of an honorable and profitable peace opened before Turkey. However, the German imperialists held Turkey firmly in their hands. During the war, Germany "turned Turkey into its financial and military vassal!" (Lenin, Soch., Vol. XIX, p. 367). The Young Turks continued the war. They took part in the Austro-German intervention in Soviet Russia. In September 1918 Turkish troops entered Baku, defeated it and staged a massacre. These were the last convulsions of the Sultan-Mongolian-Turkish militarism on 20/IX/1918, the Soviet Union annulled the Brest Treaty in the part concerning Soviet-Turkish relations. A few days earlier, the Turkish armies had suffered a complete defeat on the Macedonian front and in Palestine.

Sultan Mehmed VI (who came to the throne in July 1918 after the death of Mehmed V), fearing a revolution, began feverishly to seek an armistice. In order to facilitate negotiations with the Entente, the government was reorganised. Enver, Talaat and some other Young Turks who were closest to the Germans left their posts. Ahmed Izzet Pasha, a non-partisan but closely associated with the Young Turks, became the Grand Vizier. 30/X/1918 in Mudros (on Lempos Island, in the Aegean Sea), on board the English cruiser, the terms of the armistice were signed. The straits were opened for the military fleets of the Entente, Turkey pledged to surrender its warships, demobilise the army, withdraw troops from all Arab countries, and transfer railways, telegraphs, and radio under the control of the Entente. The Entente states reserved the right to occupy the forts of the straits, the Armenian vilayets (area) "in the event of disorder in one of them", as well as any

strategic clause “if circumstances would become threatening to the safety of the allies.” The Ottoman Empire virtually ceased to exist.

The National-Liberation Movement in Turkey.

The occupation and an attempt to partition Turkey. After the military defeat of Turkey, the Young Turks ended their political existence. Their most prominent leaders—Enver, Talaat, Dzhemal, and others—fled abroad. The party “Unity and Progress” self-liquidated. At the beginning of 1919, the party “Freedom and Consent” came to power, which held an English orientation. The Sultan’s son-in-law Ferid Pasha was appointed to the post of Grand Vizier. Parliament was dissolved “before the conclusion of peace”.

The Entente navy entered the straits. The British occupied the areas of Mosul and Alexandretta (subsequently, the occupation of Alexandretta, Cilicia and a wide strip north of Syria began to be carried out by the French). A little later, the Italians occupied the Antalya (Adalia) region and neighboring districts up to Konya. In the east of Anatolia, it was planned to create an “independent” Kurdistan. Broad plans were also made for Armenia. From the regions of Samsun and Trebizond, it was planned to form the Greek “Pontic state”. Finally, 15/V/1919 Greek troops, with the permission of the Entente powers, occupied Izmir (Smyrna). There was a threat of complete elimination of the Turkish state.

Anatolian movement and organisation of national authorities in Anatolia. The Turkish people resolutely rebelled against the imperialist powers' attempt to do away with its state existence. Immediately after the Mudross armistice, peasant partisan detachments began to spontaneously form in many points of Turkey and engage in the struggle against foreign invaders. At the same time, bourgeois-national patriotic "societies for the protection of rights" arose, demanding the independence of Turkey. The occupation of various regions of Turkey (especially Izmir) provoked a national movement in defence of the country's independence. The Anatolian Turkish bourgeoisie joined this movement and led it. The Turkish proletariat was too weak and small in number to become the hegemon of the national revolution.

The conductor of the ideas of the Turkish national the bourgeoisie was the intelligentsia, mainly the military-intelligentsia strata. The leader of the national liberation struggle Mustafa Kemal also emerged from their midst (see). Under the chairmanship in 1919 in Erzurum and in Sivas, congresses of "societies for the protection of rights" were held. The resolutions adopted by these congresses stated that the Turkish people would not allow the dismemberment and enslavement of the Turkish people. The Representative Committee elected at the Sivas Congress, headed by Kemal, was the first temporary government of the new Republic of Turkey.

Under pressure from the Anatolian movement, the sultan fired Ferid Pasha and agreed to convene parliament. The parliamentary elections gave an overwhelming majority to the nationalists. Kemal was

also elected. But he refused to go to Istanbul and at the end of 1919 transferred the seat of the Representative Committee from Sivas to Ankara, which became the center of the new government.

In early 1920, a parliament opened in Istanbul. On 28/1/1920 he adopted the so-called the “national vow”, which demanded the integrity of the territories inhabited by the Turks, the abolition of foreign political and financial control, the abolition of the capitulation privileges of foreigners, etc. The “national vow” was the official declaration of independence of Turkey.

Concerned by this act of parliament, the Entente powers (and above all England, which then had a predominant influence in the Middle East) decided to resort to repression. With the consent of the Sultan on 16/III/1920, the English landed in Istanbul, and the city was officially declared occupied. The parliament was dispersed, the majority of the deputies were arrested and exiled to the island of Malta. Martial law was declared in Istanbul. All Turkish authorities, including the police, came under the subordination of the High Commissioners of the Entente powers. The Sultan and his government have now openly opposed the Anatolian movement. Sheikh-ul-Islam (the head of the Muslim clergy of Turkey) declared the Anatolian movement a rebellion, and Mustafa Kemal a criminal. At some point, a military court in Istanbul sentenced Kemal to death in absentia. Anatolia after the occupation of Istanbul finally ceased to recognise the Sultan’s production. On 23/IV/1920, a new parliament convened in Ankara, which called itself the Great National Assembly of Turkey. It included the deputies of the dispersed parliament, who had managed to leave Istanbul, and new deputies who were additionally elected in Anatolia

from candidates nominated by the “rights protection societies” entered it. Mustafa Kemal was elected chairman of the meeting. The Grand National Assembly proclaimed itself the only legal authority in Turkey. All orders of the Sultan and his government issued since the occupation of Istanbul were declared unbearable. The first is foreign policy. an act of the new government was an appeal to Soviet Russia. On 26/IV/1920 Mustafa Kemal sent a letter to V. I. Lenin in Moscow, in which he proposed to establish diplomatic relations and asked to help Turkey in her struggle for independence. Soon a delegation from the Ankara have left for Moscow.

War of independence and liquidation of the Sultanate. Trying to suppress the national liberation movement, the Sultan sent to Anatolia a “caliphate army” formed from all kinds of rabble. The Sultan’s agents provoked several reactionary uprisings against the Grand National Assembly in various parts of Anatolia. However, the “caliphate army” quickly disintegrated under the blows of the Anatolian partisans. The uprisings were suppressed by the Ankara Government. Then the Entente powers, hoping to liquidate the new government in Turkey, which threatened their imperialist interests, decided to use the Greek for the struggle against the Kemalist government army. Greece was promised major territorial acquisitions. In June 1920, the Greek army set out from Izmir. Having broken the resistance of the Turkish partisans, in July it occupied Balikesir, Bursa and a number of other cities and began to advance deep into Anatolia. In the same month, another Greek army entered Thrace and occupied Edirne.

On 10/VIII/1920 in Sevres, a peace treaty was signed between the powers that won the First World War and the Sultan's Government. The Sevres world was part of the so-called Versailles system. Under the terms of this agreement, Western Thrace with Edirne, as well as Izmir, were to go to Greece, Mosul to England, Alexandretta, Cilicia and a wide strip along the Syrian border to France. The strait zone was allocated as a special area under international control. Istanbul remained with Turkey, conditionally, under the obligation of "loyal" performance of the contract. In the east of Anatolia, it was envisaged to create "independent" states—Armenia and Kurdistan, in reality outposts of British imperialism. This means that part of the rest of Anatolia was divided into "spheres of influence" of the Entente powers. In fact, the Treaty of Sevres retained for the Turks a small section between Ankara and the Black Sea, deprived of convenient communication routes and economic opportunities. development. The regime of capitulations was confirmed. Full financial control of the Entente powers was introduced. Turkey was subject to disarmament.

The signing of the Treaty of Sevres sparked a powerful protest movement in Turkey. The Grand National Assembly has declared that it will never agree to recognise this treaty. The struggle of the Turkish people for independence attracted the sympathy of other peoples of the East. Donations from various Muslim countries poured into Anatolia. The controversy in the camp of the victorious powers was also a favourable factor for Turkey. France and Italy (in view of the disagreements with England on Western European and Middle Eastern issues), soon after the conclusion of the Treaty of Sevres, began to speak out for its revision.

At that time, the struggle of the Kemalist Turkey for the national independence aroused sympathy among the peoples of the Soviet country, especially since the Sevres Treaty, concluded without the participation and against the interests of Soviet Russia, reflected the intentions of the imperialist circles of the Entente to create in the straits and on the approaches to Transcaucasia a bridgehead for the continuation of the armed struggle against the Soviet country. The active assistance and support rendered by the Soviet government to the Turkish people was one of the most important factors contributing to the successful outcome of the Turkish struggle for independence.

On 10/1/1921 in a battle near the villages, Inonu, a small, newly created Turkish army, for the first time held back the Greek advance. The Turkish army was commanded by Colonel Ismet Bey (later Ismet Pasha). This success strengthened the position of the Ankara Government and served as an impetus for the convening of an international conference on the Turkish question. The conference took place in London in February—March 1921. The Entente Powers invited on it the representatives of both Turkish Sultan and Kemalist. The conference ended in vain, because England still hoped to get from Turkey recognition of at least the main provisions of the Treaty, and France and Italy tried to receive from the Kemalists, in compensation for their support, confirmation of the surrender regime and new concessions. The Kemalists, first of all, demanded cleansing Anatolia of foreign troops. Nevertheless, the London Conference had a positive meaning for the Kemalists, since the Ankara government was de facto recognised by the Entente.

The relations of the new Turkey with Soviet Russia

continued to strengthen. On this path, there were many difficulties were encountered, stemming from the presence of chauvinistic and aggressive tendencies among the Kemalists towards the Armenian and Georgian peoples. In the fall of 1920, Turkish troops commanded by Kazim Karabekir defeated the Dashnaks, who, at the instigation of the British, provoked a war between Turkey and Armenia. But Kazim Karabekir Pasha was not satisfied with the elimination of the threat from the Dashnaks, but tried to seize the opportunity to finally destroy the Armenian state. The so-called the Dashnak government imposed by him. The Treaty of Alexandropol dated 2/XII/1920 limited the territory of Armenia to an insignificant size and placed this territory under a Turkish protectorate. Fortunately for the Armenian people at the end of November 1920, that is, still before the signing of the Treaty of Alexandropol, Soviet power was proclaimed in Armenia, and the government of the Great National Assembly had to negotiate peace terms not with the Dashnaks, but with the Soviet government. Nevertheless, part of the Armenian territory was by this time in the hands of the Turks. At the same time, in Georgia, Turkish troops, using the treacherous role of the Georgian Mensheviks towards their people, occupied part of the Georgian territory. This circumstance significantly complicated the negotiations, which were conducted in Moscow between the Soviet government and representatives of the Great National Assembly of Turkey on the conclusion of a peace treaty. The imperialist powers even hoped that a war would break out between Soviet Russia and Turkey. However, these calculations were not justified, and on 16/III/1921 in Moscow, the Soviet-Turkish “Treaty of Friendship and Brotherhood” was

signed. For Turkey, the Moscow Treaty was decisive a factor in strengthening its international position, recognised not only de facto, but also de jure by Soviet Russia, by the Great National Assembly of Turkey, could now more persistently seek an end to imperialist intervention.

Meanwhile, the Greeks, immediately after the end of the London Conference, undertook, relying on England, a new offensive in Anatolia. On 31/III/1921 a second battle took place near the village of Inonu. The Greeks were defeated, but in the summer of 1921 they resumed their offensive. The number of new material superiority allowed the Greek army to advance a considerable distance. In mid-August 1921, the front almost came close to Ankara, but in a 22-day battle on the Sakarya river Turks won. The Greeks were forced to retreat to the Eskisehir-Afyon line. This the victory greatly strengthened the position of Turkey.

After Sakarya, France signed (20/X/1921) a separate treaty with Turkey, according to which it recognised the government of the Great National Assembly and refused to further combat it. French troops left Cilicia and areas north of the Syrian border (with the exception of Alexandretta, the Ankara government agreed to cede France). Italy had withdrawn its troops from Anatolia even earlier. On 13/X/1921, an agreement was signed between Turkey and the Transcaucasian Soviet Republics—Georgia, Armenia and Azerbaijan. On 2/1/1922, during the stay in Ankara of the extraordinary Soviet mission headed by M. V. Frunze, an agreement was concluded between Moscow and the Ukrainian SSR.

However, the Greeks did not want to voluntarily leave Turkey and the Kemalists, in order to gather their strength, had a considerable period of time. During this

period of military respite, Mustafa Kemal had to reflect on the attacks of the reactionary elements in the Great National Assembly, including “Chalmonic front” (clergy). Opposition to Kemal also grew from the disgruntled generals and old Sultan dignitaries. This so-called the “general opposition” was strengthened when deputies of the dispersed Istanbul parliament began to return to Anatolia from the island of Malta. They reflected the interests of the Istanbul comprador bourgeoisie and stood for an agreement with the Sultan. The opposition accused Mustafa Kemal of “dictatorship”. Demands were made provocatively either for an immediate offensive or for an immediate peace. Under the conditions then existing, both would have led the national liberation movement to defeat. Kemal, realising this, stubbornly rejected both options.

In the summer of 1922, the Kemalists completed preparations for the offensive, which were carried out in secret. On 26/VIII, the attack began at dawn. The Turkish command dealt the main blow in the Afyon-Karahisar region, on 30/VIII/1922, a decisive battle took place near Dumlupinar. Turkish troops utterly defeated the enemy. The Greeks fled in disorder. The Greek general staff surrendered. In a few days, the Turkish army reached the Aegean Sea and on 9/IX entered Izmir. Scattered Greek detachments were hastily evacuated from the coastal Anatolian cities. By On 18/IX/1922 Anatolia was completely cleared of Greek army. On 11/X/1922 in the city of Mudanya, on the banks of the Marmara Sea, an armistice was signed between Turkey and representatives of the Entente powers. Istanbul and the straits zone temporarily, until the conclusion of the final peace, remained occupied by the Entente troops, but Western Thrace immediately

returned to the Turks.

Now the Kemalists needed to clarify their relationship with the Sultan. A peace conference was to be convened. The Entente powers sent an invitation to not only to Ankara, but also to Istanbul, because the sultan, stating that “unity was restored by victory,” began to strive participation in the conference. The Kemalists decided that the time has come to end the fiction of the Sultan’s power. On 1/XI/1922, the Great National Assembly adopted a law on the liquidation of the Sultanate. The pressure of the feudal-clerical circles was still so strong that the Kemalists did not dare to abolish together with the sultanate also the caliphate and proclaim Turkey a republic. Liquidation of the sultanate automatically ceased to exist in Istanbul. The last Sultan Mehmed VI fled abroad. The Grand National Assembly elected another representative Ottoman dynasty—Abdul-Modjid, as the “Caliph of all Muslims”.

Lausanne Conference. The Ankara government had to consolidate the results of its military victories in a peace treaty. On the other hand, all the Entente powers stood for the preservation in Turkey of capitulations, financial control, low customs duties, etc. The conference opened in Lausanne on 20/XI/1922. Turkey, on the one hand, and on the other, England, France, Italy, Japan, Greece, Yugoslavia, Romania. The United States sent an observer. The delegations of the Soviet republics (the RSFSR, Georgia and the Ukraine) were admitted only to discuss the question of the regime of the straits. The demand of the Soviet government for the participation of the Soviet delegation in discussing all the issues of the conference

was rejected under the pretext that Turkey and the Soviet Republics had already concluded a peace treaty among themselves. On the issue of the straits, Turkish diplomats quickly made concessions to the Entente powers, despite the fact that the project proposed by Britain (disarming the straits and complete freedom of passage for warships) violated the sovereignty of Turkey and threatened the security of the Black Sea countries. The debate over the parts of the agreement dragged on. Sharp controversy was aroused over the questions about surrender, the Ottoman debt, the exchange of populations between Turkey and Greece, Mosul, and others. At the beginning of February 1923, a break in negotiations occurred. During 2½ months the Entente powers tried to use the internal disagreements in the Kemalist camp, but these attempts were unsuccessful. At the end of April 1923, the Lausanne negotiations resumed, and the Entente was forced to meet the basic demands of the Turks.

On 24//VII/1923, the Lausanne Peace Treaty and a number of annexed conventions were signed. The question of the spill regime was resolved unfavourably for Turkey, the straits were disarmed; the Istanbul garrison was limited to 12 thousand people; warships of any powers could freely pass through the straits day and night, in peacetime and even in wartime (with the exception of ships that were the enemy of Turkey). In addition, the Lausanne Treaty contained a number of compromise points. Thus, Turkey agreed to leave open the question of the ownership of Mosul so that in the future it was transferred to the consideration of the League of Nations; this predetermined the loss of Mosul by Turkey. Turkey pledged to pay old Ottoman debt; however, since it was not determined with what

money—gold or paper—the debt had to be paid off, the Turks still had the opportunity further negotiations on this issue.

Yielding to the pressure of the powers, Turkey agreed to maintain for 5 years low customs duties on imported goods and only after this period could take measures of customs protectionism in the interests of the national industry. Despite all this, the Lausanne Treaty as a whole marked the great success of the new Turkey. Greeks from Anatolia moved to Greece in exchange for the Turks from Greece. The surrenders were cancelled. The Office of the Ottoman Debt ceased to exist. Thus, the new Turkey achieved international recognition of its independence. This unquestionable victory was achieved by it largely thanks to the support of the USSR.

The Republic of Turkey

The internal situation in the country and the formation of a people's party. With the end of the national liberation war, the common goal that stood before the entire Turkish people was achieved. However, the political situation in Turkey was tense owing to the intrigues of reaction. Kurdish sheikhs, many landowners and reactionary Muslim clergy strove to fully preserve the old medieval relations. The Istanbul comprador bourgeoisie was blocked with these reactionary elements. Her agents in Ankara were a group of Pashas who were hostile to Kemal. Turkish national bourgeoisie, closely associated with landlord landownership, feared an agrarian revolution and sought

to prevent a genuine democratisation of the country. Under pressure from the landlords and the kulak elite of the village leaders, the Kemalists delayed the resolution of the agrarian question. Even the feudal ashar (tithe) tax and the ransom system have not yet been abolished. Fearing the growth of the political activity of the working class, the Kemalists openly opposed the Communist Party (they waged a covert struggle against the Communists even during the national war). In the fall of 1922, at the end of the war, the Turkish authorities dispersed the legally convened congress of the Communist Party in Ankara. In 1925, taking advantage of the introduction of emergency courts to combat reaction, the Kemalists unleashed repressions on the communists as well, press organs that still existed in Istanbul. Since that time, the Turkish Communist Party had to finally move to an illegal position.

At the same time, in order to consolidate the independence gained, the Anatolian Turkish bourgeoisie needed to reorganise the state: it was necessary to liquidate the feudal-theocratic monarchy, create industry, build railways, establish national banks, and introduce Turkey to European culture and civilisation. The struggle against the dominance of foreign capital has deepened the economic and political contradictions between the Anatolian Turkish bourgeoisie and the Istanbul compradors. Struggle for a secular bourgeois republic strained relations with the feudal-clerical elements. In 1922, a clerical-feudal faction was formed in the Grand National Assembly, which called itself the “second group for the protection of rights”, in contrast to the Kemalist “first group”. Behind it was the “general opposition” led by the former naval Minister of

the Young Turks government Rauf and General Karabekir, who remained only formally in “First group”. In Istanbul, the “Unity and Progress Committee” resumed its activities. On the pages of the Istanbul newspapers, led by the Young Turks, an open war was waged in favour of the Caliph and for granting broad benefits to Western European capital.

In turn, the Kemalists took measures to consolidate their forces. In February 1923, during a break in the work of the Lausanne Conference, an economic congress was convened in Izmir. The Kemalists tried to attract the sympathy of the working masses—the peasantry and workers: they called on the workers to organise trade unions, and called the peasants “the masters of the country”. Kemal said in his speech: “The plough is the pen which the history of Turkey is rewritten.” The practical decisions taken in Izmir fully met the interests of the national bourgeoisie. The Congress outlined the immediate tasks in the field of the national economy: the transition from simple manufacture and small-scale production to large factories and plants; the earliest possible creation of those industries for which there are raw materials in the country, in particular, textile and food; support of the national industry in its competition with foreign capital. However, the Izmir decisions did not affect the position of the peasantry and the working class.

In the spring of 1923, the Kemalists created their own political party a party called the People’s Party. Instead of the program, Kemal published the “nine principles”. They spoke about the sovereignty of the nation, about the concentration of all power in the Great National Assembly, but also about the fact that the caliphate is the highest general Muslim institution.

The bourgeoisie was promised a law “on the encouragement of personal initiative.” As for the ashar, it was only said that the method of collecting it, “which caused complaints from the people,” would be “thoroughly improved.” The re-election of the Grand National Assembly gave the People’s Party an overwhelming majority. In August 1923, the Grand National Assembly of the second convocation of Turkey was opened. Mustafa Kemal was unanimously re-elected as its chairman.

State reconstruction and struggle against reaction. On 6/X/1923, within the time period stipulated by the Lausanne Treaty, the evacuation of British troops from the territory of Turkey was completed. The National Army entered Istanbul. The clerics and compradors began to work towards making Istanbul—the seat of the still existing Caliph—again a government centre. However, on 13/X/1923, the Great National Assembly adopted a law, according to which Ankara was declared the capital of Turkey. Following this, on October 29, 1923, the Grand National Assembly proclaimed Turkey a republic. Mustafa Kemal was elected President. The first republican cabinet was formed by Ismet Pasha.

The reactionary forces were grouped around Caliph. On 3/III/1924 the Great National Assembly decided to abolish the Caliphate and expel all members of the Osman dynasty from Turkey. But this time, too, the separation of church from state was not fully realised. The Constitution of the Republic of Turkey, adopted on 20/IV/1924, included the provision that “Islam is the State religion of Turkey.”

The reactionaries took advantage of the political weakness of the Kemalists. In 1924, a new political party was created, which included the party, which included opposition generals and dignitaries, who broke away from the People's Party, led by Karabekir and Rauf, and members of the former "second group for the defence of rights". The party demagogically called itself progressive-republican. Progressives demanded a reduction in duties on imported goods, a refusal to create a national industry, and the provision of "all necessary guarantees" to foreign capital. They insisted on moving the capital back to Istanbul, put forward the position that "the salvation of Turkey is in Islam," they declared that the participation of women in Turkey's public life was "debauchery". The main goal of the progressives was the overthrow of Kemal and the restoration of the Young Turks-Sultan regime. In November 1924, the Progressive Party secured Ismet's resignation. Ali Fethi came to the post of prime minister. He was a member of the Kemalist Party and a personal friend of Kemal. However, the "moderation" of the new prime minister's views made him quite acceptable to progressives.

Fethi effectively gave the reactionaries freedom of action. The consequences of this were not slow to affect. In February 1925, an uprising broke out in the southeastern regions. The uprising was led by the Kurdish Sheikh Said. He took advantage of the difficult material situation of the Kurdish peasantry and led the backward masses with him under the slogan of defending the Caliphate and Sharia. The uprising coincided with an exacerbated conflict between Turkey and England over Mosul. Since in Lausanne the question of the ownership of this oil-rich and important strategic

area was left open, England refused to return Mosul, pointing out that it was part of the British mandate of Iraq. The issue has passed to the consideration of the League of Nations. At this moment, the uprising of Sheikh Sayd, which was rapidly growing, created a serious threat for the Ankara Government. From Iraq, Kurdish and Aysor armed groups were sent to Turkish territory. The forces of reaction began to raise their heads in Central Anatolia as well. In the face of this danger, the Kemalists decided to carry out certain agrarian reforms. In particular, the Grand National Assembly abolished the ashar. But the monetary tax introduced in its place was also heavy.

On 3/III/1925 Ismet was recalled to the post of chairman of the council of ministers. In April 1925, the Kurdish uprising was suppressed. Sheikh Said was captured and executed. The trial exposed Sayd's connections with progressives and certain foreign circles. On this basis, the government declared the Progressive Republican Party dissolved and closed all its branches.

Turkey's internal situation improved. Thanks to the strengthening of Soviet-Turkish friendship, its international position also improved. During this difficult time for Turkey, the Soviet Union again supported the Ankara government. On 17/XII/1925 the Soviet-Turkish treaty of friendship and neutrality was signed. The significance of this treaty went beyond the framework of relations between the USSR and Turkey, since it introduced into international practice the conclusion of pacts of non-aggression and neutrality and helped to ensure peace throughout the Middle East.

However, Turkey could not achieve the return of Mosul: the League of Nations spoke in favour of England;

France did not allow the Turks to transport troops on the Syrian railroad to the Turkish-Iraqi border; Italy behaved in a threatening manner towards Turkey; the uprising of Sheikh Sayd did not pass without a trace for Turkey. On 5/VI/1926 an Anglo-Turkish treaty was signed in Ankara, according to which Mosul retreated to Iraq.

Almost simultaneously with the end of the Mosul conflict, the Turkish pro-military liquidated the last outbreak of political activity of the progressives and their secret leaders—the Young Turks. In June 1920, in Izmir, on the eve of Kemal's arrival there, a major conspiracy was uncovered. Its participants were prominent members of the former Progressive Party and the “Unity and Progress” Committee. The conspirators were determined to kill Kemal and make up the Government first from the progressives, and then from the Young Turks. As a result of two trials, the leaders of the Young Turks Javid, Kara Kemal and others were sentenced to death and hanged. Many activists of the progressive parties were exiled. Thus, the political resistance of the feudal reaction was broken. However, the reactionary feudal circles were still strong economically. Their ties with the West, their trading experience, their accumulated capital, all this took away the Anatolian bourgeoisie from getting close to their former opponents. The progressives who survived, members of the “general's opposition”, and reactionary Istanbul journalists gradually received amnesty.

Reforms in the field of culture and everyday life. The suppression of the reactionary political

opposition allowed the Kemalists to boldly implement their reform plan, although the reforms themselves were moderate in nature. Dervish orders, Muslim religious schools and religious schools of non-Muslim confessions were eliminated. In 1928, a new civil code came into effect, establishing bourgeois property norms. Polygamy was prohibited. Instead of religious marriage, civil marriage became mandatory. In 1928, the Arabic alphabet was replaced by the Latinised one. The Muslim calendar has given way to the European one. The clergy themselves became more and more Kemalist. The Koran was translated from Arabic in Turkish. In 1928, the Grand National Assembly adopted a law that excluded the phrase about Islam from the constitution. All these activities completed the separation of church from state.

In the area of everyday life, Turkey quickly changed her face. In 1925, at the initiative of Kemal, European clothing and European headdresses began to be introduced forcibly throughout Turkey. The Turkish women took off their veil. Women lawyers, doctors, judges appeared. True, there weren't many of them. The Turkish woman was still dependent on her husband; inequality in admission to positions, in the amount of wages, and so on. But compared with the old Turkey, the difference was enormous.

Economic difficulties and new opposition.

During this period, the Anatolian Bourgeoisie became more and more close to the Istanbul compradors. Under their influence, the Kemalists made substantial concessions to the Western capital. In 1928, the Turkish government signed an agreement with foreign buyers of

Ottoman debt bonds on difficult terms: the amount of the debt was set at 86 million gold liras; annual payments—2 million gold liras, with successive increments, in foreign currency. Under difficult conditions, the Turkish government resumed payments for certain other financial obligations of the Sultan's time. All this was done in the name of "restoring Europe's confidence", in the hope of obtaining new loans. But loans were offered to Turkey on terms incompatible with national independence. Meanwhile, the payments on the Ottoman debt put the Turkish currency and the state budget in an extremely difficult situation. In 1929, on the eve of the introduction of new customs duties, the Istanbul compradors caused new damage to the economic situation of the country by the speculative importation of foreign goods. The trade balance deficit reached 100 million Turkish paper liras. At the same time, the world economy crisis began to affect Turkey. The Turkish lira has fallen catastrophically, creating a real threat of a currency collapse, and with it, a new enslaving dependence on Western capital. But the government suspended payments on the Ottoman debt, prohibited the export of foreign currency, and significantly reduced the import of goods. A currency crash was averted. Then the compradors and the part of the Anatolian bargaining bourgeoisie that had approached them, not daring to oppose Kemal himself, led a campaign against the Ismet Government. In August 1930, a new opposition party was formed—the Liberal-Republican Party. It was headed by Ali Fethi. The "Liberals" were not opposed to the republic, did not object to secular reforms, did not personally oppose Kemal. However, they were reactionary. Fethi demanded the abandonment of the

construction of the railways and industrial enterprises at their own expense, etc and the termination of state interference in the country's economy. In foreign policy, he stood for greater rapprochement with the West. The new party attracted the sympathy of the entire Turkish reaction and certain circles in Western European countries. But in parliament, Ismet has won an overwhelming majority. Kemal has publicly stated that he will not support Fethi's party. In the fall of 1930, having existed for only 3 months, the Liberal Party disbanded.

Strengthening the position of the Kemalists.

After the liquidation of the liberal opposition, the Kemalist Republican People's Party (the word "republican" was added to the name of the People's Party in 1924 due to the fact that the opposition called its party "Progressive Republican" became the only legal political party in Turkey. Basically, it reflected the interests of the national commercial and industrial bourgeoisie, part of the landowners and kulaks. In 1931, the party congress adopted a detailed programme and charter. The party emblem "six arrows" summarised the main points of the program: the first arrow—"republicanism"—stated that the republic was the only form of government acceptable to Turkey; the second arrow—"nationalism"—signified the readiness to fight for independence and for the rise of the Turkish nation; the third arrow—"nationality"—declared popular sovereignty and, at the same time, denied the existence of classes and class struggle in Turkey; the fourth arrow—"statism"—symbolised the desire to create national industry with the help and control of the state;

the fifth arrow—"laicism"—marked the principle of a secular state; the sixth arrow—"revolutionary" meant loyalty to the ideas of the Kemalist revolution. The party charter secured for Kemal the functions of permanent chairman and gave him the exclusive right to nominate candidates for parliamentary elections on behalf of the party.

Statism played an especially important role in Kemalist politics. At one time both progressives and liberals fought against statism. The victory of the main core of the Kemalists over opposition groups and the inclusion of the principle of statism in the party program (subsequently, the principle of statism, along with other "arrows" was also included in the constitution of the Turkish Republic) eliminated the possibility of open opposition to this policy. But the reactionaries fought against statism in roundabout ways. Under the guise of "promoting" statism, various Turkish and foreign firms received orders and contracts for the construction of state enterprises. As a result, the cost of construction rose and the dependence of certain industries on foreign capital was created. Turkey was unable to avoid the dire consequences of the global economic crisis. The cost of the Turkish agricultural exports fell sharply. Therefore, it was necessary to reduce the import of manufactured goods from abroad in an even greater proportion, otherwise the trade deficit would lead to a currency crash. In 1931, the Turkish government limited the import of foreign goods to special lists. Imports fell from 148 million liras in 1930 to 75 million in 1933. This weakened foreign competition in the domestic market and increased the demand for Turkish food. In general, the Turkish production, thanks to statism, has achieved some

success in the economic field.

The development of the Turkish national industry was largely based on the disinterested assistance of the USSR. In 1932, the Soviet Union provided Turkey industry with a loan of \$8 million to purchase the latest types of Soviet-made equipment. At the same time, the Soviet industry provided Turkey with the projects and drawings necessary for the installation of equipment and sent a qualified engineer. In addition, training of Turkish technicians was organised in the USSR.

Statism helped to strengthen the national independence of Turkey. New, relatively large, enterprises and even new industries that did not exist before were created. By 1936, the value of the products of the eligible industry had reached 237 million liras against 105 million liras in 1931 and only 32 million liras in 1927. Turkish production began to supply the domestic market with many goods, which were previously imported from abroad: sugar, cotton boom fabrics, building materials, paper. The state funds were built new railways, linking Western Anatolia from the Eastern and Black Sea—from the Mediterranean. The government bought the old railways from foreign concessionaires. Other important concessions were also bought out—coal horses, ports, municipal enterprises. The Central Bank of the Republic and a number of other national banks. Under an agreement signed in 1933, the Turkish government achieved a very significant reduction in the Ottoman debt (from 86 million to 7 million gold liras), payments began to be made not in foreign currency, but in Turkish goods (in 1944, Turkey finally paid off the Ottoman debt).

In its foreign policy, the Turkish government during this period also followed the policy of peace and was

concerned about strengthening the Soviet-Turkish friendship. In 1932, a Turkish government delegation headed by Ismet Pasha came to the May Day celebrations and Moscow. In 1933, a Soviet delegation headed by K. E. Voroshilov visited Turkey. In 1935 the USSR and Turkey signed a protocol extending the treaty of friendship and neutrality for 10 years. Since 1932, Turkey has been a member of the League of Nations. In 1934 it became part of the Balkan Entente (Turkey, Greece, Yugoslavia, Romania).

During the same period, the process of introducing Turkey to many aspects of European culture continued. After the reform of the alphabet, Kemal proclaimed a struggle for the reorganisation of the Turkish literary language. The circulation of newspapers has doubled. Literature developed. New Turkish music began to be created. Painting and sculpture also received an opportunity for their development. In 1934, the Turkish parliament adopted a law introducing surnames into Turkey (formerly, the Turks had only first names). This law also abolished the titles and the old forms of address: pasha, bey, effendi. Kemal received the surname Ataturk ("father of the Turks") from the parliament. Ismet's surname became the name of the village where he defeated the Greeks—Ihonu. In the same year, women gained the right to vote and were elected to parliament. By this, Turkish women were formally equalised in rights with men.

However, carrying out progressive reforms in the field of culture and everyday life, the Kemalists did not go beyond the abolition of the ashar and the provision of certain benefits to the propertied elite of the village. The bulk of the peasants did not receive land. In 1929 the Kemalists announced their decision to endow all

peasants land for 8 years was distributed, moreover for a fee, a total of 128 thousand hectares, which amounted to only approx. 0.5% of the land area suitable for cultivation in Turkey. The main method of exploitation of the peasantry remained the semi-feudal sharecropping. The usurer and the aga (kulak) continued to dominate the village. Only in the Izmir zone and partly in the south were introduced capitalistic agricultural methods. In remote southeast, the Vilayets were dominated by almost completely intact feudal relationship with significant vestiges family life. The Kurdish sheikhs took advantage of this and repeatedly raised their fellow peasants to fight against Ankara government. Major reactionary uprisings of the Kurds had a bridge on the slopes of Ararat in 1931 and in the Dersim region in 1936-37. The rebels' slogan was "return to Sharia". But along with the demands of the elimination of reforms in the field of culture and life, the insurgent Kurds also put forward a demand to keep the old way of collecting taxes. This testified to the severity of the tax burden imposed on the peasantry. The Turkish government suppressed the uprising.

At the same time, the Anatolian bourgeoisie intensified its repression against workers' organisations and against the Communist Party, which remained in an illegal position as before. In 1936, after years of discussion, the Turkish parliament passed a labour law. For the first time in Turkey, labour regulation was introduced, the 48-hour working week was recorded, the working conditions of women and children were determined, etc. But in practice, this law did little to improve the position of the Turkish worker; agricultural workers were completely excluded from the law, workers, sailors, workers and employees of dairy

enterprises and government institutions, that is, the vast majority of the Turkish proletariat. At the same time, the law provided many benefits to the owners, which they used to bypass the regulations on the 48-hour working week, on vacations, on wages, etc. Strikes were strongly prohibited and under the threat of imprisonment and a fine. Collective agreements were not allowed.

Conference in Montreux. In connection with the Italian attack on Abyssinia an alarming situation was created in the Mediterranean Moro. There was also great concern in Turkey, as the situation in Istanbul and the Straits zone became particularly dangerous. At the insistence of the Turkish government, which saw the threat posed by the Lausanne Convention on the Straits of 1923, a conference in Montreux, was opened in June 1936, in which the same states participated as at the Lausanne Conference (except Italy). The Turkish delegation in Montreux showed hesitation and inconsistency and even opposed the legitimate and well-grounded proposals of the USSR. On 20/VII/1936 a new convention on the regime of the Straits was signed. It granted Turkey the right to arm the Straits and set a limit for the passage of warships through the straits (15,000 m); as well as for the passage of non-Black Sea fleets to the Black Sea (30,000 m); the Black Sea powers, on the other hand, received the right to sail their large ships through the Straits over the limit established by the convention; the freedom to negotiate navigation through the Straits was confirmed. In case of war, other conditions were established: if Turkey is a belligerent, she can set the regime in the Strait at her

discretion with the neutrality of Turkey the passage of the ships bargaining is free and the warships of the belligerents have the right to pass through the straits, with the exception of cases of assistance to victims of aggression in accordance with the treaties on mutual assistance concluded with Turkey. The big drawback of the convention was the granting of Turkey an uncontrolled right of its interpretation and application; Turkey took advantage of this during World War II to the detriment of the interests of the USSR and other powers of the anti-fascist coalition.

The behavior of the Turkish delegation at the Montreux conference was a coincidence. During this period, the process of crushing the Anatolian and Istanbul bourgeoisie went very far. The influence of the big bargaining of the bourgeoisie gave rise to capitulatory tendencies among a certain part of the ruling elite. Thus, the ground was created for the diversion of Turkey from friendship with the USSR and for the implementation of plans (of the fascist powers seeking to draw Turkey into their orbit. In the fall of 1937 Ismet Inonu resigned. Dzhelyal Bayar, a protégé of the big bourgeoisie, who pinned great hopes on him as a representative of the "business" circles, capable of concluding deals beneficial to this bourgeoisie with foreign capitalists and suppressing the growing labour movement. By this time, fascist Germany had acquired a great influence not only on the economy, but also on policy of Turkey. With the connivance of the Turkish authorities, the Nazis developed an active propaganda in Turkey. At the same time, Turkey became closer to England. British Chamberlain at that time pursued a policy of "non-intervention" and concessions to the aggressors and actually prevented Germany from

penetrating into Turkey. The activity of reactionaries in domestic politics also intensified in Turkey. The government led through parliament a law on the press, which provided unbearable press bail and heavy fines on democratic press. A law on amnesty was also adopted, the enemies of the national movement, the participants in the struggle of the Sultan against the Kemalists received full forgiveness, but the amnesty did not apply to the communists.

Death of Ataturk and election of Inonu as president. 10/XI/1938 Kemal Ataturk died. 11/XI, the Grand National Assembly elected Ismet Inonu as president, who remained the most popular figure in the country. Soon an emergency congress of the People's Republican Party was held. Inonu, like Ataturk before, was elected as the permanent chairman of the party.

The election of Inonu as president of the republic was initially greeted with sympathy by wide sections of the Turkish people. Turkish patriots hoped that Inonu would decisively break with the policy of vacillation, strengthen friendship with the USSR, suppress the machinations of capitalists and reactionaries, provide the peasantry, the working class and democracy, the intelligentsia with the necessary democratic rights, peace, freedom and independence of the country. The first Inonu's steps to the presidency seemed reinforced this hope. Instead of Bayar and on the post of prime minister was appointed the nearest Inonu employee, Dr. Refik Saidam. At the beginning of 1939, the re-election of the Mejlis took place, as a result of which the new parliament many young leaders entered. Inonu announced that he would fight corruption and

disintegration in the government apparatus. The new Foreign Minister Sarajoglu said it will be decisive fight for the country's independence, and emphasised his desire to preserve and develop Soviet-Turkish friendship. However, in the future, these progressive tendencies of the new president did not develop. There were no changes in the position of the working class and peasantry of Turkey. The press law has not been repealed. The Communist Party of Turkey was not legalised. At that time, reactionaries and capitulators had the ability to openly develop their activities. A number of lost oppositionists, leaders of anti-Kemalist parties and groups like Kazim Karabekir, Rauf Orbay, Di-sahgda Yalchin and others, was promoted to parliament and to ministerial posts.

The influence of fascist Germany continued to increase in foreign policy and the economy of Turkey. The Hitlerites widely launched subversive espionage and military activities in Turkey in favour of the "Axis" dormitories and the propaganda of fascist ideas. This activity was carried out under the leadership of the Germans, Ambassador to Turkey von Papen. Certain press organs in Turkey, bribed by the Nazis, became the mouthpiece of him, fascist propaganda. At that time, the influence of England was growing. It intensified thanks to the assistance provided by Turkey's diplomacy in the question of the Alexandretta Sanjak (district). Back in 1930, Turkey demanded that France join the Sanjak to Turkey. After lengthy disputes involving the League of Nations in their resolution, France, under pressure from England, satisfied Turkey's demand. In 1938, Turkish troops entered the Alexandretta Sanjak, and in the summer of 1939 this district, which received the Turkish name "Hatay", was annexed to Turkey.

Turkey before and after the Second World War.

In the fall of 1939, when the war broke out in Europe, Turkey chose to focus on England and France. On 19/X/1939 in Ankara the Anglo-French-Turkish agreement on mutual assistance was signed. Despite this, Turkey then, throughout the Second World War, actually provided assistance to Hitlerite Germany. After the surrender of France and the military setbacks of Britain, Turkey began to interpret her allied obligations more and more restrictively, and in the spring of 1941, after the appearance of the Germans, fascist troops in the Balkans, she reduced these obligations to maintaining neutrality. Contrary to its obligations under the treaty of alliance with Greece and under the pact of the Balkan Entente, Turkey did not defend Greece, which was attacked by Nazi Germany on 6/IV/1941. Moreover, in the spring of 1941 correspondence with Hitler, and on 18/VI/1941, Turkey signed a treaty of "friendship" with Nazi Germany.

After the treacherous attack by Hitlerite Germany on the USSR, Turkey declared its neutrality in the Soviet-German war. In reality, Turkey's "neutrality" brought benefits only to fascist Germany. Having secured his Balkan flank, Hitler was able to transfer a significant number of divisions from Bulgaria and Greece to the Soviet front. The Straits were open to the Axis fleet. At the same time, Turkey's unfriendly attitude to the Soviet Union was manifested, which was reflected, for example, in the trial of innocent Soviet citizens Pavlov and Kornilov, staged by the Turkish authorities at the request of the Germans, ambassador to Ankara von Papen in February 1942, hostile to the Soviet Union, the activities of the Pan-Turkists and even the

concentration of Turkish troops on the Caucasian border. In early 1942, Inonu told von Papen that “Turkey is highly interested in the destruction of the Russian colossus” and that “Turkey’s neutral position is already much more advantageous for the Axis countries than for England”. In August 1942, when Nazi troops were advancing on Stalingrad, Prime Minister Saradyasoglu (who replaced the deceased Saidam) in a conversation with von Papen, confessed that he “passionately desires the destruction of Russia” and that “the Russian problem must be solved by Germany, only if at least half of all Russians living in Russia are killed”.

After the defeat of the Germans at Stalingrad and the landing of Anglo-American troops in the North, in Africa, the ruling Turkish circles, while maintaining their ties with Hitlerite Germany, at that time took steps towards rapprochement with Britain and the United States. In early 1943 Churchill, after a meeting with Roosevelt in Casablanca, visited Adana, Churchill had a meeting with Inonu, Sarajoglu, Marshal Fevzi Cakmak and with other Turkish state and military leaders. During the Adana rendezvous, Churchill, according to the official communique, said that the English, will supply Turkey with modern weapons in order to ensure its general security. The tendencies towards rapprochement with Britain and the United States progressed as the Red Army inflicted severe blows on the Germans and the fascist “axis” collapsed. In December 1943, immediately after the Tehran conference of the leaders of the three powers—the USSR, Britain and the United States—Roosevelt, Churchill and Inonu met in Cairo.

However, Turkey continued to actually help Hitler.

She did not refuse to receive weapons and equipment from England and the United States, but also continued to supply Germany with valuable raw materials (chrome, cotton, copper, etc.). In the internal politics of Turkey, reactionary tendencies prevailed. The speeches of overt and covert Hitler agents were promoted, including anti-Soviet attacks in the press, and democratic and non-democratic elements were repressed. Only in April 1944, at the request of the Allies, Turkey cut off the supply of chromium to Germany, and on 2/VIII/1944 announced the break of the diplomatic and economic relations with Germany. Adopted with a great delay, this decision of Turkey did not affect the course of the war, the result of which was already predetermined by this time, by the victories of the Red Army and the Allies. In view of this, progressive circles around the world were greeted the news of the decision of the Turkish government with restraint, and a homely attitude, the press noted that Turkey should have done away with policies that were beneficial only to Germany much earlier. Finally, on 23/II/1945 Turkey declared war on Germany and Japan. Turkish diplomacy did not even try to hide the fact that this step has only the meaning that, having declared war, Turkey had the right to send a delegation to the San Francisco International Conference. Turkey did not take any real part in the war against Germany. With such a position of Turkey, the former relations between the USSR and Turkey could not remain unchanged. On 10/III/1945, the Soviet government announced that it considers the 1925 treaty to be in need of serious improvement, and therefore denounces it in accordance with the terms of the protocol signed in 1935. Thus, the 1925 treaty and the subsequent agreements concluded

in its development became invalid. After the end of the Second World War, Turkey, both in foreign and domestic policy, continued to follow a reactionary path. Guided by the reactionary circles of England and the United States, the Turkish government showed hostility to the Balkan democratic countries, and tried to establish close relations with the monarchist-fascist Greece. Turkish diplomacy, at the behest of Britain, began to seek the formation of a bloc within Turkey and the Arab countries. At the same time, Turkey rejected the Soviet Union's proposal to transfer the question of the strait to the resolution of the conference of the Black Sea powers and to organise a joint Soviet-tour of the defense of the straits. The result of this policy of Turkey was the subsequent deterioration of Soviet-Turkish relations, which replaced the friendship between the two countries that existed under Ataturk.

In the internal life of Turkey, reaction intensified. Showing ostentatious "democracy", the Turkish government allowed the creation of other, besides the government, political parties, but in reality still used repression against democratic groups, newspapers and activists. The Communist Party remained in an illegal position. A number of prominent Democrats were arrested and imprisoned. In 1946, the prime minister was appointed, instead of Saradyasoglu, another, no less reactionary figure—Peker, but Saradyasoglu retained his leading influence, taking the post of deputy chairman of the people's republican party.

A. Miller

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V. Political Parties.

The government party, which has an overwhelming majority in parliament, is the Republican People's Party, which reflects the interests of the national bourgeoisie, landlords and the upper class of the peasantry. It was founded by Kemal Ataturk in 1923 on the basis of the parliamentary group for the "defence of rights" and local "societies for the defence of rights". In view of this, the Kemalists consider the first all-Turkish congress of "societies for the protection of rights" held in 1919 in Sivas as the date of the party's founding. By 1931, after unsuccessful attempts to form other bourgeois-landlord political parties—progressive-republican, liberal-republican (see. Historical essay), the People's Republican Party was the only legal political party in the country, since the Communist Party, founded in 1920, was forced from 1925 as a result of severe repressions, go deep underground. The official doctrine of the Republican People's Party is expressed in the party emblem—"six arrows" (republicanism, nationalism, nationality, statism, laicism and revolutionism). In fact, the party, especially after the death of Ataturk, departed from the principles of the struggle for national independence and took up reactionary positions in both domestic and foreign policy. The charter and activities of the party contradict elementary concepts of democracy. The chairman of the party (who is also the president of the republic) has the sole right to nominate candidates for parliamentary elections. The domestic and foreign policy of the Republican People's Party and its departure from Ataturk's positions aroused great discontent not only

among the working masses of Turkey, but also part of the Turkish bourgeoisie. Fearing the growth of the democratic. sentiments and striving to create a politician safe for the ruling class. outlet, the People's Republican Party in 1945 decided to abandon its monopoly, allowing the formation of other bourgeois and bourgeois landlord parties. However, ongoing administrative and police measures (for example, party programs are subject to the preliminary approval of the Ministry of the Interior) are intended to exclude the possibility of creating a truly democratic. parties and prevent the legalisation of the communist. party. Of the new parties formed in 1945-40, the largest is the "democratic" party headed by D. Bayar. Fulfilling the role of "legal opposition", although it criticises the government, it adheres to reactionary principles in the main issues of domestic and foreign policy. Nevertheless, there are radical elements in this, as well as in other parties, who are seeking the democratisation of the country and the return of Turkey's foreign policy to the principles of Ataturk.

VI. Political System.

Turkey according to the form of government, a parliamentary republic, proclaimed on 29/X/1923. On 20/IV/1924 the Grand National Assembly adopted a republican constitution, which reflected the aspiration of the ruling class—national bourgeoisie—to create instead of the former feudal-theocratic empire of the sultans bourgeois-democratic, secular state.

The main provisions of the constitution provide that “the supreme power, without any restrictions and conditions, belongs to the people” and that “the Grand National Assembly of Turkey is the only and genuine representative of the people and exercises supreme power on their behalf.” The legislative power of the Grand National Assembly exercises itself, and the executive power through the President of the Republic and the Council of Ministers. The Great National Assembly is elected for 4 years by Turkish citizens of both sexes who have reached the age of 22; the right to be elected to the parliament belongs to persons who have reached the age of 30 and must be able to read and write in Turkish. The President of the Republic is elected by the Grand National Assembly from among the Turkish deputies for a four-year term. He may be re-elected for a new four-year term. The President has the right of a suspensive veto, but he has no right to either dissolve or postpone the meetings of the Grand National Assembly. The ministers, headed by the prime minister, are appointed by the president of the republic and are responsible to the Grand National Assembly. The supreme command of the army is a prerogative of the Grand National Assembly and is exercised on behalf of

the latter by the President of the Republic; in peacetime it is entrusted to the chief of the General Staff, and in military time—to a person appointed by the president on the proposal of the council of ministers. The judiciary, according to the constitution, “is exercised on behalf of the people by independent courts in accordance with the regulations and laws applicable to them.” The constitution also provides for the usual bourgeois-democratic freedom, stipulating that “the limits of freedom, which is natural law, are the limits of the freedom of others” and that “these limits are determined and established only by law”

In practice, the implementation of the constitution depends entirely on the discretion of the ruling Republican People’s Party. At the head of the Republican People’s Party is the permanent (life) chairman. Since 1938, after the death of Kemal Ataturk, he is the current president of the republic, Ismet Inonu.

The electoral law provides for two-step elections, and the program of the People’s Republican Party, adopted in 1935, declares this system to be the only possible one in Turkey. In fact, the electoral system is designed to ensure that the Republican People’s Party has hegemony in parliament. In 1946, during the elections to the Grand National Assembly, the Turkish opposition party noted that “the entire state mechanism acted against the democrats.” As a result, the Republican People’s Party won 396 seats, the Democratic Party 62 seats, and the Independent only 7.

Locally, in vilayets (provinces), power belongs to the wali (governor), with an elected general council. Vilayets are divided into kaza (uezds) and kaza-into nakhie (volosts). Major cities have city governments with elected municipal councils.

VII. Military Establishment.

Higher Military Administration.

According to Turkish law, the supreme body of the armed forces is the Grand National Assembly (Meclis), from whom the President of the Republic performs the functions of the Supreme Commander-in-Chief. In fact, in peacetime, the head of the country's armed forces is the chief of the General Staff appointed by the president, and in wartime, a person specially appointed by him. General Staff and Ministry of National Defense are the executive bodies responsible for the construction, condition and maintenance of the country's armed forces. The General Staff is in charge of all questions of the country's defense and combat training of the ground forces, the navy and military aviation. Ministry of national defense provides the armed forces with personnel, weapons, supplies, etc. It also has jurisdiction over the country's military industry and the import of weapons from abroad. In addition to these executive bodies, there is an advisory body—the Supreme Military Council. Indispensable members of the Supreme Military Council are: the president of the republic (chairman), the prime minister, the minister of nat. Defense, Chief of the General Staff, Commander of the Navy and Commander of the Air Force. The Supreme Military Council meets periodically to discuss the most important issues of building the armed forces and defense of the country, including the organization and deployment of forces, weapons, deployment of naval and air bases, construction of strategy, routes, and the country's defense as a whole. The considerations of the Supreme Military Council form the basis of government

decisions on military matters. The decisions of the government and the supreme commander-in-chief of the armed forces are implemented through the relevant departments and directorates of the General Staff and the ministry of national defense.

Organisation and composition of the ground forces. Submitted in 1944, the land forces of Turkey consisted of 11 army corps, which included 23 rifle divisions, several armored brigades, 3 cavalry divisions, and 7 fortress battalions. The corps are part of several army inspectorates, which are essentially army directorates. In 1940, there were 3 such inspections. The Turkish army corps consists of 2 infantry divisions, a cavalry regiment, a heavy artillery regiment, a sapper battalion, a communications battalion, and a motor transport battalion. The infantry division consists of 3 infantry regiments, 1 mountain and 1 field artillery regiment, an antiaircraft company, a sapper company, a reconnaissance cavalry squadron and a transport battalion. The strength of the infantry division is approx. 13 thousand people, including 500 officers. In the regiment—3 battalions, in the battalion—4 companies, of which 3 rifle and 1 machine-gun.—The cavalry division consists of 4 cavalry regiments (in 2 brigades), machine gun squadron and a group of mountain artillery consisting of 2 battalions and 3 batteries (12 guns) each.

The number of cavalry divisions—250 officers and 5,200 privates. In the cavalry regiment—4 saber squadrons, 1 machine gun squadron and artillery battalion, the material part of which is transported on packs.—Mountain infantry brigade and consists of 3

infantry regiments and mountain artillery units.—As part of the artillery and Turkish army corps heavy artillery regiments, divisional field artillery regiments, heavy artillery fortress regiments, several separate heavy artillery battalions, anti-aircraft batteries and several mountain divisions artillery.—Technical troops a include 3-company sapper battalions, fortress sapper battalions, communications battalions, and motor transport battalions.—In service with armored vehicles—Our troops include tanks, armored vehicles, motorcycles and trucks. According to 1940, in the Turkish army there were only 120 tanks and 40 armored vehicles. In the future, their number grew, but the pace of development of this kind troops due to the lack of tank building in Turkey did not meet the needs of modern armies for armored vehicles. Aviation. In 1938 the Air Force (Air Force) Turkey consisted of 3 air regiments.

The composition of the Air Force regiment was not the same, but in Basically, each regiment consisted of 2 reconnaissance and 1 fighter groups, each consisting of 2-3 squadrons. In total, there were approx. 370 aircraft (together with training, training). In 1940 in the composition the Turkish Air Force was approx. 400 combat aircraft and 8,500 people. personnel. To the beginning 1943 the number of air regiments increased to 5.

They were combined into 2 air brigades. The number of aircraft by this time and in subsequent years increased significantly due to supplies from the UK, as well as from USA. In the last years of World War II, aircraft from the United States arrived under the law on lending and lease of armament (so-called lend-lease), which was also extended to Turkey. The number of personal the composition of the Air Force.

Technical equipment of the army.

Equipping the Turkish army and air force with various types of weapons, ammunition and combat vehicles continues to be, as in previous years, very motley. This is due to the fact that Turkey acquired the steering, and partly received it in the form of various kinds of "assistance" (on the basis of "exchange of services", etc.) from many states—Germany. Great Britain, the United States, before the Second World War—Turkey from France and some other states. The country's own production of weapons is negligible.

Small arms. The infantry is largely armed with 7.9-mm Mauser rifles, Hotchkiss light machine guns, Maxim and Schwarzlose machine guns, and some other types of weapons. The cavalry units are armed with rifles, bayonets, sabers, pikes (in some regiments), light and heavy machine guns of the same systems, as in the infantry. During the second world war, the government of Turkey began to accept measures to equip parts of the infantry and cavalry such modern types of small arms artillery, such as submachine guns (machine guns), anti-tank rifles, etc. The corresponding artillery unit Turkey receives from UK and USA Artillery-Riyskoe weapons. Artillery armed with 75-mm zero guns German factories Large and French. factories Schneider-Creusot, 105-and 120-lsh howitzers, as well as 105-, 120- and 150-hp long-range guns, 210-liter "mortars, etc. In recent years, the Turkish army has appeared tayuke and mortar armament. Aviation-new weapons. In service Air Force consists of aircraft at least 6 countries, including fighters Curtiss—"Howyu", "Tomahawk", PZL-24 and

others, bombers Bristol-Blenheim, Martin-139, Heinkel-111 and others, reconnaissance Breguet-XIX, attack aircraft-Valti-11 and aircraft of other types and systems.

Gendarmerie and customs troops. The gendarmerie and customs troops are organised as military units. The customs troops were consolidated into a tamolsen corps, divided into battalions; and the Gendarme troops, designed to maintain internal order in the country, are subordinate to the Ministry of Internal Affairs. Their total number, according to 1940, was approx. 40 thousand people, including 3 thousand officers and officials equated to them. The number of the customs corps is approx. 10 thousand people.

The size of the Turkish army and Air Force. Before World War II, Turkey had a relatively small army in the states of peace. The law provided for the presence of a cadre army of 250 thousand people. In fact, in 1939 there were 207,383 people in the army, including: 20 thousand officers, 10 thousand non-commissioned officers, 100 thousand trained enlisted personnel, 84 thousand untrained enlisted personnel, 8,383 air force personnel, military officials, administrative officials. service and students of officers' schools 5 thousand people. The annual contingent of conscripts in the army was 175 thousand people, the total contingent of conscripts was estimated at 2 million people.

In 1940-41, in connection with the war in Europe and, in particular, in the Balkans, the Turkish production carried out a partial mobilization, as a result

of which the army was replenished with several ages of military-trained persons. In the first half of 1940, the total number of the Turkish army increased to 700 thousand people, including 400 thousand soldiers and officers of the personnel service and 300 thousand reservists. Subsequently, the number of those mobilized into the ranks of the army exceeded 500 thousand. Thus, the total size of the army increased by 2.5 times compared to the pre-war period. Throughout the war, the Turkish army was in a state of mobilization readiness.

Army manning and terms of service (in peacetime). The army manning system is based on a general military the obligation prescribed by law 12/VI/1927. All Turkish citizens, excluding women shins, are called up for military service in age 21 and are considered liable for military service up to 45 years. The duration of service in frames ranges from 1 1/2 to 3 years old; in infantry—1 1/2, in the cavalry, aviation and technical troops—2 years, in the gendarmes and customs troops—1/2 years, in the navy—3 years.

At the end of valid service all soldiers are enlisted in the army reserve, which includes: infantrymen up to 45 years old age, military personnel of other families troops—up to 44 years old, gendarmes—up to 43 years old and sailors up to 42 years old. Those in the reserve go through a one and a half month camps every 2 years. The reserve of the Turkish army is credited also young people from 18 years of age. She is in reserve until enlisting in military service in a personnel unit or military school.

Navy. Turkey has a relatively small naval force. Some data characterizing the technical, seaworthy and combat properties of individual ships are given in the table on columns 389-390. By the beginning of World War II, the personnel of the fleet included 1,200 officers, 1,000 non-commissioned officers and 7,000 privates, as well. total 9,200 people.

During World War II, Great Britain and the United States periodically assisted Turkey in strengthening its navy.

Ship composition in the fleet (data on 1/X/1944).

Names of ships of the main classes and years of descent to their naval	Tonnage	Mechanism power (hp)	Stroke speed (knots)	Artillery and mine weapons *
Battle cruiser Yavuz (former German cruiser "Gebep", launched on iodine in 1911 and modernized in 1930)	23,100	52,000	25.5	X-280-mm X-150- » IV- 88- » (zen.) XII- 40- mm (zen.) II-500- » (torp.)
Cruisers Hamidie (1903) Medjidie (1903)	3,830 3,500	12,000 21,000	18 18	II-150-mm VIII- 75- » II-450- » (torp.)
Destroyers Demirkhis type p - 4 ships (years of descent between 1939 and 1942) Type Tinaztepe-2 ship I (1931) Kodjatepe class-2 ships (1931)	1,350 1,206 1,250 683	34,000 35,000 40,000 1,550	35.5 36 38 13.7/9	VI-130-mm IV- 75- »
Submarines**—Type Flight—4 ships—li (1940)	----	3,500	20/9	IV-120-mm VI-40- » (zen.) VIII-533-mm (torp.)
Type L- 2 ships (1,938)	934 1,210	3,000	17.5/9	IV-120-mm II- 40- » (zen.) II-20- » VI-523- » (torp.)
Dumlupinar (1929)	920 ----	1,150	16/9.5	I-75-mm V-533- » (torp.)
Sakarya (about 1929)	610 940	1,600	20/9	I-102-mm VI-533- » (torp.)
Gur (1930)	750 960	2,800	20/9	I-102-mm I- 20- » (zen.) VI-533- » (torp.)
Inonu type-2 ships (1927)	505 ----	1,100	14.5/9.5	I-75-mm I-20- » (zen.) VI-450- » (torp.)
Watchdog ships Burki Peik {1906}	620 840	5,100	22	II-88-mm II-450- »

* Roman numerals indicate the number of guns or torpedo tubes.

** In the columns showing the displacement and speed of submarines, the upper number a characterizes the surface position, the lower number—underwater One.

VIII. Healthcare.

The high mortality rate of the Turkish population is due to the significant incidence of infectious diseases: cholera, plague, typhus, typhoid fever, yellow fever, smallpox, diphtheria, epidemic cerebrospinal meningitis, postpartum fever, influenza, malaria, relapsing fever, measles, and chickenpox. Officially published figures do not give a correct idea of the actual number of infectious diseases, although the law of 31/III/1914 establishes the obligatory filing of cases of diseases for the main infections. However, they are far from being fully recorded, and the published data are below the actual number of diseases.

The high incidence of infectious diseases in Turkey is seen from the following table:

	Average annual number 1928-38	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943
Typhoid fever	3,349	5,815	3,349	3,211	3,091	3,139	3,812	3,293
Paratyphoid	214	277	125	174	221	198	167	153
Dysentery	407	322	383	304	341	598	638	650
Scarlet fever	917	765	796	607	472	604	341	338
Diphtheria	1,204	1,188	1,087	1,038	633	936	869	846
Cerebro-spin								
Silt meningitis.	521	968	739	819	669	476	616	400
Typhus	259	667	450	463	816	950	878	4,143
Smallpox	188	36	641	431	544	7	1,871	12,370
Total	7,059	10,038	7,570	7,047	6,787	6,908	9,192	22,193
%	100	165.3	124.7	116.1	111.8	113.8	151.4	365.6

The infectious diseases listed in the table diseases increased by 265% compared with an average of 1928-38. Malaria incidence note reliable information, however, from a large number of treatments. It can be judged about its extremely large distribution. In very many areas, malaria patients approx. 60% of the population.

Of the 63 vilayets, malaria is rampant in 1937. That clade is considerably widespread trachoma, especially in the eastern regions. 1939 medical examinations revealed 114,028 trachoma patients; were treated on an outpatient basis 4,742,287. These numbers far from covering the entire incidence the population of trachoma. Syphilis is also strong widespread in Turkey. Registered about 120,000 syphilitics are far from exhaust their entire number, since in this number but includes those being treated by private doctors and a huge number of those who are not treated and hide their illness. Tuberculosis in Turkey kills a lot.

In Ankara per 100,000 population died from tuberculosis in 1932 77.6 people, in 1936—89.6; in Izmir, respectively, 263.9 and 187.8; in Istanbul—212.8 and 186.1. These indicators and the years that followed were very great. The organization of public health services in Turkey is in an unsatisfactory state, and the case health care in Turkey has lagged behind many European countries. Prior to the establishment of the Kemal government, the Turkish people was almost completely deprived of available medical care, and the sanitary condition the country was unusually difficult. High mortality, mass spread of infectious diseases, negligible amount doctors and midwives and an extremely sparse network medical institutions with a huge number medicine men characterised the state of health care in Turkey. But the measures carried out after the overthrow of the sultan's regime to improve the organisation of medical care in, were very insufficient for in order to cause a significant fracture in protecting and promoting the health of workers in Turkey.

Sanitary legislation in Turkey is scattered. The

Public Health Law of 6/VI/1930 covers the main issues of the organization of medical care, housing and communal hygiene, food hygiene, hygiene of industrial places. and school hygiene, but there is no adequate material and financial base for its application. Health administration in Turkey is carried out by the Ministry hygiene and social assistance. Part ministries include departments: public hygiene, social assistance, sanitary border protection, information and statistics, Subordinated to the Department of Public Hygiene an appropriate network of sanitary and anti-epidemic. institutions, hygienic in-you, museums, as well as venereology, dispensaries, hospitals and pharmacies. Department of social assistance, cabbage soup manages hospitals, outpatient clinics, dispensaries, maternity hospitals, medical educational institutions, tuberculosis-medical institutions. Sanitary vale in charge of the general sanitary inspector. Under the Ministry of Hygiene and Social Affairs; relics is the Supreme Health Council, consisting of 9 large medical specialties socialists approved by the president of the republic.

In each vilayet, the management of health care is carried out by the head of the department; by the public health authority and by the government physician on the staff of the vilayet administration. Local outpatient clinics are also run by a doctor in the public service, subordinate to the head of the regional health department. Helping a government doctor given a sanitary doctor and certified midwives. In addition to these government doctors, to-rye are maintained at the expense of the state, in Turkey city municipalities and regional governments have their own doctors, who, however, must be approved by the Ministry of Health.

All these doctors are called sanitary advisors. Each local government has a health council composed of doctors from the main medical institutions.

The entire territory of Turkey is divided into 10 sanitary districts, each of which heads a certain number of regions. Each district is headed by a sanitary inspector, subordinate to the general sanitary inspector of the Ministry of Health and Social Assistance. For the scientific management of sanitary affairs in Ankara, the Central State Institute of Hygiene was created, which also exercises control over the production of various vaccines and serums. With him, a special higher hygiene was created. school, in a cut doctors undergo an improvement course in various areas of hygiene

Higher medical education is given at the medical faculties of universities in Istanbul and Ankara. Dental, pharmaceutical and obstetric schools are attached to the faculty in Istanbul. The law of 8/X/1923 establishes the obligation for all graduates of the medical faculty to serve two years in the state or public service. In 1924, 2 schools were organised to train sanitary inspectors. Nurses are trained in special schools of the Red Cross Society in Istanbul.

The hospital business is underdeveloped. In 1939, there were only 173 hospitals in Turkey, of which 12 were state, regional, and municipal, the rest were private and charitable. There are approx. 9,949 beds, of which only 1,313 beds (in 21 hospitals) are funded by the municipal budget. Turkey has 1 hospital bed for 1,800 people. the population is extremely low. In many counties there are outpatient clinics with 5 beds attached to them, but the network of these establishments is extremely small—in all, there are 271 outpatient clinics with 1,000 beds in Turkey. In total,

654,840 people were admitted to outpatient clinics in 1939. These figures point to the extremely inadequate hospital and outpatient care for the population. There are very few beds for children and especially few beds for narrow specialties. There are 3 small psychiatrists in Turkey's hospitals. There are outpatient clinics at some city hospitals. Most hospitals have only a general department and a surgical department. There are very few maternity hospitals, and there are very few children's hospitals. A total of 6,212 women in maternity hospitals received assistance in 1939 in Turkey, and 24,461 women in outpatient clinics; in children's hospitals, 1,092 sick children were treated in total, and in outpatient clinics—48,430 hours.

Malaria is a terrible scourge of the country; however, in 1939 there were only 9 dispensaries for combating malaria, with 5-10 beds in each of them, and 1 hospital with 20 beds. The management of anti-malaria activities is entrusted by law, to special anti-malaria commissions.

The fight against syphilis is also organised by special commissions. Treatment of patients with sexually transmitted diseases is free of charge. In places where syphilis was widely developed, venereology and institutions were organised. 7 medical venereal diseases are deployed. detachments, 61 venereal diseases. dispensary and 204 venereologic points. Syphilitics are required to be treated by law and are punished for avoiding treatment. Prostitution is regulated and is under medical and police supervision. Doctors are required to notify local health authorities of any cases of venereal disease they find. diseases.

In places where trachoma is very widespread, trachomatous points and groups are organised, but

there are very few of them. Physicians are required to report trachomatous patients to the public health authorities; patients are obliged to be treated. Patients with trachoma at different stages are not entitled to stay at enterprises or attend schools. Special commissions organize the fight against trachoma in areas affected by trachoma. However, in 1939 there were only 13 small hospitals for trachomatous patients and an extremely insufficient number of outpatient institutions—only 25 dispensaries with 34 doctors.

Another 77 charitable societies are involved in the organisation of medical care, of which the most significant are the Red Cross Society and the Child Welfare Society. Women's Union, Green Cross Society Anti-Tuberculosis League. In some industrial and commercial enterprises, mutual aid societies have been formed, the funds of which are made up in the overwhelming part: at the expense of the contributions of the workers themselves. The medical care provided by all of these societies is small in size and poorly available to the population. Free-paid medical care in state and municipal medical institutions is provided only by the state officials and a small part of the poor. Even tuberculosis patients have little access to medical care—in 1939 there were 4 dispensaries in large cities and 5 sanatoriums with a small number of beds. Doctors are obliged to notify the sanitary authorities of each detected case of tuberculosis in the infectious stage and of each case of death from tuberculosis.

Rural areas are health deprived; there are only a small number of outpatient clinics, to-rye provide free medical care to the rural population. Particular attention is paid to the fight against syphilis, gonorrhea, tuberculosis. In connection with the high incidence and

significant spread of infectious diseases, in recent years they began to pay a certain attention to health education of the population. For this purpose, cinema is used, hygiene exhibitions are organised, and popular brochures and leaflets on various hygiene issues are distributed.

Help for mothers and children in Turkey is poorly organized. Free help is provided only to poor women in labour, and then only in state maternity hospitals, of which there are very few in Turkey. Under the Public Health Act of 6/V/1930, entrepreneurs are required to set aside rooms for mothers to feed their babies, organize a nursery and free pregnant women from heavy labour for 3 months before and after childbirth, but this is not always done. The law provides for the obligation of municipalities in places with the population of St. 10 thousand to organise children's consultations, but there are very few such institutions, and even then in big cities.

With regard to labour protection, the above law contains only a few clauses on the exclusion of children under 12 years of age from work at enterprises, on the limitation of the working day of children from 12 to 16 years old and on the establishment of an 8-hour working day for workers employed in underground work or in night shifts.

Lit.: Public health and social assistance in Turkey, Ankara, 1941; Bulletin of the Health Organisation, v. X, № 4, Geneva, 1943; Epidemiological Report ..., Geneva, 1923–1941—(Society of Nations. Organisation d 'hygiène); Law No. 1593 on public hygiene, published in the Official Journal of the Turkish Republic of May 6, 1930, "Bulletin mensuel de l 'Office international d 'hygiène publique", P., 1931, t.

XXIII, № 4; **тоже**, Istamboul, 1935.

IX. Public Education.

Before the establishment of a bourgeois republic in Turkey on 29/X/1923, public education was almost entirely in the hands of the Muslim clergy. In addition, missionary organisations in different parts of the country had not only primary, secondary, but and higher schools under protection foreign embassies.

The law on the compulsory education of schoolchildren in Turkey was formally adopted as early as 1910, but it was purely declarative in nature and was not implemented. Primary education in Sultan Turkey was conducted in schools at mosques, where children memorized the Koran in Arabic, and almost never learned Turkish. A more advanced type of school were theological schools—madrasahs, the entire program of which was saturated with Muslim theology and mysticism. In 1912, the Turkish Empire had 2,120 mosques and 1,780 elementary schools associated with them. The university in Istanbul, opened in 1900, also had a Muslim theological faculty. character.—On 6/X/1913 a new law on universal primary education for children from 7 to 16 years of age was published, but it was not implemented any more. In large cities, a small number of schools of a new type (for boys from 11 to 16 years of age) and single secondary schools with a 7-year course of study were organised, in which, in addition to religious, “European” subjects were taught... Under a law passed in 1918, for the first time, similar schools were opened for girls. In Sultan’s Turkey, the illiteracy of the population was almost universal.

With the coming to power of the Kemalists, the new government took a number of important measures

aimed at developing public education on a bourgeois basis. Along with the general progressive innovations that had a great influence on the development of culture (the abolition of the caliphate, the separation of the church from the state, new secular legislation, the improvement of the status of women, the introduction of European dress, customs, etc.), laws were adopted, which were promote the elimination of mass illiteracy, the construction of a school network, etc. According to Art. 87 of the Constitution 20/IV/1924, primary education was declared compulsory and free of charge for all Turks. In 1924, the Great National Assembly also adopted a law on the “uniformity of education,” but except that the whole matter of public education in Turkey was concentrated in the hands of the Ministry of Education. Muslim theological educational institutions were closed, their property was transferred to the government for cultural and educational needs. Foreign schools were under the control of the Ministry of Education. A little later, teaching religion in the state schools were abolished, but the “moral elements” of religion in the curriculum were retained. In the development of projects for the reorganisation of the public education system in Turkey, much was borrowed from school legislation and practice in the United States, France, and other states. The Ministry of Education of Turkey also studied materials from Soviet schools, and delegations from the ministry traveled to the USSR. The influence of the USSR was especially pronounced in the development of the question of introducing a new alphabet instead of the Arabic one. On 1/XI/1928 The Grand National Assembly adopted a law on a new alphabet on a Latin basis, mandatory for state, public and private institutions, schools, cinema,

publishing houses etc. (it should be borne in mind that according to the census 28/X/1927 only 1,111,496 people were registered literate based on the Arabic alphabet. Somewhat earlier by law 22/111 1926 was installed in Turkey system public education, which is still in force with some additions and changes. Under this law, primary education is compulsory for children of both sexes in urban primary schools with 5-year course (two concentrates at 3 and 2 years) and in village primary schools with a 3-year course. Although the initial training received widespread, but in practice it did not become universal, and immediately before the Second World War outside of school more than half of the children of school age remained. The network of primary schools in villages is extremely inadequate, especially in areas remote from cultural centres. The 5-year elementary school is the foundation for the 6-year secondary general education school, consisting of two concentrates—3 years each. The first concentrator is an incomplete secondary school, functioning separately as an independent educational institution. A special network of pedagogical educational institutions (with different periods of study) prepares teachers for primary and secondary schools. There are a small number of primary and secondary vocational schools of various specialties.

The University in Istanbul (founded in 1900) was reorganised (in 1933) according to the European type and consists of medical, legal, historical-philological and physical-mathematical faculties (the Muslim theological faculty was closed due to the absence of students). There were 6,739 students at this university in 1940 (5,133 men and 1,626 women). In addition, the construction of a university has begun in Ankara. The

Higher School of Law has been functioning since 1925, and since 1934 it has been a historical-philological and geographical one. faculties, since 1938—Higher Medical School. In addition, there are a number of technical and special higher schools.

In the 1939-40 academic year, in total, Turkey had the following number of educational institutions and students (see table).

For 1,000 nestles in 1940 there were approx. 58.5 students in all types of educational institutions, including 50.7 primary school students and 6.5 secondary school students.

Name of educational institutions	Number of training sessions	Students		
		Men	Women	Total
Primary schools	9,417	619,246	285,893	905,139
Secondary schools (incomplete)	155	66,712	25,615	92,327
Lyceums	77	20,306	6,095	26,401
Pedagogical schools	17	2,172	1,948	4,120
Vocational schools	56	6,623	2,881	9,504
University and other higher schools	17	10,025	2,300	12,325
Total	9,739	725,084	324,732	1,049,816