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AÇILIŞ KONUŞMALARI
Opening Remarks
Osmanlı Devleti’nin hakimiyet ve etki sınırları içinde bugün 64 ayrı devlet, bağımsız ülke bulunuyor. Bu 64 ülkenin her birinin bir şekilde Osmanlı Arşivlerine işi düşüyor. Yine dönemin en güçlü devleti olması hasebiyle Osmanlı’yla ilişki içinde olan tüm ülkelerin araşturmacıları da kendi tarihlerinin, kendi geçmişlerinin izlerini gelip burada sürüyorlar.

Tarih baştan sona ibret vesikalarıyla doludur. Maalesef ülkemizde tarihimizi araştırmakta, elimizdeki vesikaları okumakta, değerlendirmekte uzun süre tembellik yapıldı, ihmal kar davranıldı.

Bizim geçmişten ders çıkarmamız, ibret almamız gereken pek çok örnek, pek çok hadise vardır. En somut örnek olarak Birinci Dünya Savaşı’ndan alacağımız çok önemli dersler var. Son 200 yıllık tarihimizin en büyük zaferi Çanakkale ise, en önemli utançlarından biri de Balkan bozgunudur. Yine tarihimizin önemli sayfalarından biri olan ve 100. yılı idrak ettigimiz Sarıkamış felaketinden de ibret alamanız gerekiyor.

Burada bir hususun altını özellikle çizmek istiyorum. Birinci Dünya Savaşı onca yokluga, onca imkansızlığa rağmen ordularımızın azimle, inançla çarpıştığı çok önemli zaferler elde ettiği tarihimizin önemli sayfalarından biridir. Biz, Birinci Dünya Savaşı’nda gerçekten 7 düvele karşı savaştık. Çanakkale’yle birlikte Kafkasya’dan Galiçya’ya, Sina’dan İrak’a kadar pek çok cephe askerlerimiz kahramanca çarpıştı, bayrağımızı kahramanca dalgalandırdı.


Bugün çok net biçimde görüyoruz ki; Birinci Dünya Savaşı aslında hala sona erilmiş değil. Bölgenizde, coğrafyamızda ne kadar sorun varsa, ne kadar kavgaya varsa, akan ne kadar kan varsa hepsinin gerisinde Birinci Dünya Savaşı’yla tesis edilen düzenin gölgesini görüyorum.


Biz 2015 yılı şanlı mücadelelerimizin, zaferlerimizin 100. yıl dönümü olarak kutlarken, birileri de bu yıl Türkiye katışığının, Türkiye düşmanlığının bayrağı haline dönüştürmek istiyordu.
Ermeni diasporası dünyanın her yerinde soykırımı iddialarına dayalı kampanyalarla Türkiye düşmanlığını geniş toplum kesimlerine aşlamaya çalışıyor. Dikkatinizi çekiyorum; bu kampanyaların amacı, tarihin bir dönemde Ermenilerin yaşadığı acıları canlı tutmaktan ziyade, doğrudan ülkeyize ve milletimize düşmanlık yapmaktır.


Türkiye Cumhurbaşkanı olarak tarih ve arşiv araştırmaları konusunda çok daha fazla çalışma yapmasını arzu ediyorum. Bu konuda yürütülecek projelere bugüne kadar olduğu gibi bundan sonra da destek olmayı sürdüreceğim.
There are currently 64 states and independent countries established in the areas that used to be under Ottoman dominance and influence. Many of these 64 countries find that, for various reasons, they need to refer to the Ottoman Archives from time to time. In the same way, scholars from countries that had relations with the Ottoman Empire which was the most powerful state of its time visit the archives to trace their own history and past.

History is replete with many documents that have great instructive value. Unfortunately, we have been lazy and negligent for a long time in our country with respect to conducting research about our own history, and reading and studying the documents available to us.

There are many lessons that we need to learn from our past. For example, there are important lessons to be learned from World War I. If Çanakkale is our greatest victory in the last 200 years, the Balkan defeat is our greatest embarrassment. We must also learn from the disaster in Sarıkamış as we mark the centenary of this important historical event.

I would like to emphasize that World War I where our armies fought with great dedication and valor despite many hardships and suffering to win important victories is one of the most important chapters of our history. During the First World War, we fought against the most powerful nations of the world. Our soldiers fought valiantly on many fronts including in Çanakkale and the Caucasus, Galicia, Sinai and Iraq, and bravely kept our flag flying.

The First World War is also the “first war of partition”; it was about the partition of the Ottoman Empire that held the key to oil, the Mediterranean and trade routes through Suez. This perspective sheds light not only on the past, but also on the events taking place today.
To understand what is taking place in Syria, Iraq, Egypt and Libya today, we must look to the past. Our nation discharged its duty then and it continues to do so today. We shall continue to fight with the understanding that there is a destiny above and beyond our own destiny. In this regard, I believe that both the sacrifices made by our nation and the outcry of the oppressed Islamic community will not have been in vain.

Today, we see clearly that World War I has not come to an end. The order established with the First World War casts its long shadow over all of the problems, fights and bloodshed in our region and geography today.

The Sykes-Picot Agreement signed at the end of the war led only to discord, chaos, suffering, tears and oppression. The borders drawn with this agreement aimed not at ending, but aggravating ethnic, religious and sectarian divides. Contemporaneous memoirs and documents serve as clear evidence of this intention.

As we marked the centenary of our glorious struggle and victories in 2015, others were trying to promote anti-Turkish sentiment and hostility against Turkey.

The Armenian diaspora is engaged in a global campaign based on allegations of genocide in order to foster widespread hostility against Turkey. I would like to draw your attention to the fact that these campaigns specifically aim to create hostility against our country and nation rather than keep the memory of Armenian suffering during a period in history alive.

Furthermore, this is not an issue that should be exploited for the sake of day-to-day politics, and, most importantly, in international politics. I have always invited the Armenian diaspora as well as the Armenian government to visit our archives. We have millions of documents that have been catalogued. We should task historians, archivists, political scientists and even archeologists and legal experts to study these documents; we should look for the truth in these documents.

As the President of Turkey, I believe in the importance of conducting more studies on history and archival research. As always, I will continue to support projects in this respect in the future.

Recep Tayyip ERDOĞAN
President of Turkey
Sayın Cumhurbaşkanım,
Değerli Misafirler,

Savaşlardan alınacak derslerin küresel barışa katkı sağlayacağı düşüncesi ile gerçekleştirdiğimiz ve dünya arşivlerinin mümtaz belgelerinden derlediğimiz “Yüzüncü Yılda Birinci Dünya Savaşı Belgeleri” başlıklı uluslararası etkinliğimize hoş geldiniz.


Şüphesiz bu bilgi ve belgeleri en iyi tanıyanlar ise o belgeleri muhafaza edenlerdir, yanı arşiveçilerdir. Belgeleri yakından tanıyan uzmanlar olarak bugün millî arşiv yetkililerinin katıldığı bu etkinlikte Birinci Dünya Savaşı’ını ve bu savaşın belgelerini konu edinerek cihan

Bu programı düzenlemekteki amacım, savaşın etkilenen ülkelerin belgelerini ve belge temelli sunumlarıyla dünya barışına katkı sağlamak. Bu vesile ile değerli misafirlerimize Türkiye arşivciliği tanıtılmayı, Osmanlı Arşivi örnekli hareketle arşivleri- mizin çalışma sisteminin uluslararası standartlarına uygunluğunu göstereceğiz.


Küresel barış vizyonunuz bu uluslararası programın hazırlanmasında da ilham kaynağı olmuştur. İcra edeceğimiz etkinlik etkinlik inşa edilecek ve gerçekleştirileceğimiz faaliyetler için de önemli bir emsal teşkil edecektir.

Sözlerime son verirken programımıza katılmalardan bilinen ancak maalesef iki hafta önce vefat eden Makedonya Devlet Arşivleri Genel Müdürü Prof. Dr. Zoran Todorovski’yi de burada saygıyla anmak istiyorum.

“Yüzüncü Yılın I. Dünya Savaşı Belgeleri” başlıklı etkinliği himaye ve gürültülemewiększektir edilir ve ziyaretçilerimiz şükranlarımızı arz ediyor, programımızın hayırlara vesile olması temenni ediyor.

Hepinizi saygıyla selamlıyorum.
Your Excellency, Esteemed President,
Distinguished Guests,

Welcome to the international event titled “Documents of the First World War Centenary” which is comprised of outstanding documents from the archives around the world and is organized in the belief that lessons to be learned from wars will contribute to global peace.

Archives are treasures of information by forming a basis for the histories and cultures of countries. Thanks to these treasures people can access to documents and information on site. Documents are undoubtedly the main sources of true and acceptable information. Today the world has many documents than ever before. The historical documents kept by the countries contribute to writing not only their own histories but also the histories of other countries. Information, as a global source for power, can enable humans to cross the borders easily and to carry out multi-dimensional and multi-cultural studies. In this context, discussing the first global war, First World War, in its all aspects will help to solve the troubles and difficulties experienced in various territories of the world. One hundred years ago the world has witnessed an unimaginable disaster because of the war which comprised a wide geographical area and caused millions of casualties. This disaster, on the other hand, resulted in a huge amount of document accumulation due to correspondence. Naturally, a considerable amount of documents which bring these serious events to future are kept in the countries’ archives. It is seen that even the archives of the states which did not enter the war are full of information and documents pertaining to the war period.

Those who know these documents and information best are undoubtedly the archivists who preserve them. In this event gathered the authorities of national archives we, as the experts closely acquainted with documents, will try to discuss the route from world war to
world peace by dealing with the First World War and its documents. Thanks to the exhibition prepared with the valuable contribution of archival authorities of the participating countries, we will have the chance to see the document copies, related to First World War, being in the archives of different countries. In this way we will handle the documents in an integrative approach together with the related sides for the first time; and the symposium will provide a big opportunity for those interested.

We organized this event with the aim to contribute to world peace by means of documents kept by the countries which were, more or less, under the influence of war and their presentations based on these documents. Hereby, we will try to introduce to our valued guests the archival structure in Turkey and to show them our working system and its compliance with transparency principle in international standards by giving the example of Ottoman Archives.

Your Excellency, Esteemed President, the Ottoman Archives which gives service within the structure of the General Directorate of State Archives found the opportunity of having a magnificent complex with the favor and close interest of your highness. Our service capacity is increasing day by day thanks to this complex. Digitization and restoration services were improved much more especially in last two years. This site which was constructed under the auspices of Your Highness and was opened by Your Excellency became one of the prides of our state. On the other hand you made a significant contribution to the historical memory of our country and of other countries; and also to the writing of histories of these countries by centralizing the Ottoman Archives in a single complex.

Your vision for global peace also inspired us to organize this international program. We hope that this event will establish a precedent for our activities to be carried out in the future.

In conclusion I would like to remember with respect Prof. Dr. Zoran Todorovski, the General Director of Macedonian State Archives, who informed us about his participation in our program but unfortunately passed away two weeks ago.

I would like to extend my gratitude in particular to Your Excellency for honoring our event titled “Documents of the First World War Centenary” which we organized under the auspices of your highness. Also I would like to express my sincere thanks to our distinguished guests from different regions of the world; and I hope that the event will be beneficial.

I salute you all with respect.

Prof. Dr. Uğur ÜNAL
Republic of Turkey
Prime Ministry
General Director of State Archives
Esteemed President Recep Tayyip Erdoğan,
General Director of the State Archives of Turkey, Associate Professor Uğur Ünal,
National Archivists and Distinguished Participants,

I am honoured to be here today in my capacity as President of the International Council on Archives in such esteemed company and to have the opportunity to remark upon this most significant international event.

The International Council on Archives is an organisation dedicated to the effective management of records and the preservation, care and use of the world’s archival heritage through its representation of records and archive professionals across the globe. We have around 1400 members in 199 countries and territories, a truly diverse membership rich with talent and united by our shared values.

Thanks to the initiative and leadership of Associate Professor Uğur Ünal, a good number of us are gathered here today, and in particular I acknowledge the presence of two members of the ICA Executive Board: Karel Velle, and Francis Mwangi.

We have the opportunity in the next two days to reflect upon the events of the First World War – but more specifically the role that Archives play in the preservation of the collective memory of this profound turning point in global history.

We will have an opportunity to reflect upon the reasons we preserve the memory –and perhaps the most important reason of all is so that humanity can learn the terrible lessons of war and find the path to enduring peace.

There is no doubt that we will change the future for the better if we continue to recall the past, but we cannot restrict ourselves only to the received wisdom of published histories. We must continue the re-examination of the primary sources –the records.

Because history is never finally written. There are so many discoveries still to be made. Think of it - billions of records held within the archives of the world, individually and collectively offering new insights into the motivations, actions and consequences of the key events that have shaped the world we live in today.
This is the value of Archives: Bringing the past to the present. The value of living memory.

Archivists don’t keep records just to glorify the past.
Nor do we keep records just to apologise for the past.
We keep records to remember the past – faithfully, honestly and completely.
But just keeping the records is not enough. Our responsibilities as Archivists go much further than this.

We have an obligation, a duty to ensure the archives are promoted, made accessible and used.

And used by everyone - Because no one can change the past, but everyone can change the future.

And so our job is to ensure the future is better than the past, to ensure that our children and grandchildren enjoy peace and prosperity. To do anything less betrays the service and sacrifice of those who came before us. Those that still speak to us from the records in our Archives.

Associate Professor Ünal, all of us here are immensely grateful to you for the organisation of this historic event, and I speak on behalf of us all when I say we feel privileged to have been given the opportunity to participate in this fascinating and informative program.

Mr. President, I am very grateful that you have given us your time this morning. Your presence here sends a clear message to all of us in the ICA and the broader international community that you value Archives and all that they represent and your presence encourages us to redouble our efforts towards the preservation, promotion and use of the world’s archival heritage.

Thank you.
Saygıdeğer Cumhurbaşkanı Recep Tayyip Erdoğan,
Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Devlet Arşivleri Genel Müdürü Doç. Dr. Uğur Ünal,
Milli Arşivciler ve Değerli Katılımcılar,

Bugün burada, Uluslararası Arşiv Konseyi Başkanı unvanımla, bóylesine saygın bir topluluk içinde bulunduğu ve bu çok anlamlı uluslararası etkinlikle ilgili görüşlerimi ifade etme imkanına sahip olduğum için onur duyuyorum.

Uluslararası Arşiv Konseyi, dünya genelindeki belgeleri ve arşiv uzmanlarını temsil etmesi vasıtasıyla, belgelerin etkin bir şekilde yönetimine ve dünya arşiv mirasının muhafazası, bakımı ve kullanılmasına adanmış bir organizasyondur. 199 ülke ve bölgede yaklaşık 1400 üyemiz bulunmaktadır olup yetenekleri ile zengin ve ortak değerlerimizle uyumlu gerçek bir üyelik çeşitliği mevcuttur.

Doç. Dr. Uğur Ünal’ın girişimi ve öncülüğü sayesinde hatırı sayılır bir topluluk bugün burada bir araya geldik. Ben özellikle ICA Yönetim Kurulunun iki üyesinin, Karel Velle ve Francis Mwangi’nin de burada hazır bulunduğunu bildirim.</p>
Ve bizim işimiz, geleceğin geçmişten daha iyi olması, çocuklarınızın ve torunlarınızın barış ve refah içinde olmalarını sağlamaktır. Bundan daha azını yapmak, bizden öncekilerin, bizimle hala arşivlerimizdeki belgeler üzerinden konuşanların hizmet ve fedakârlıklarına ihanet etmek olur.

Doç. Dr. Ünal, hepimiz bu tarihi etkinliğin organizasyonu için size son derece müteşekkiriz. Bize bu büyüleyici ve bilgilendirici programa katılma imkânı verildiğini için ayrıcalıklı hissettğimizi hepimiz adına ifade etmek istiyoruz.

Sayın Cumhurbaşkanı, bu sabah bize zaman ayırdığınız için size minnettarım. Sizin buradaki mevcudiyetiniz ICA’daki ve uluslararası camiada ki herkese, arşivlere ve arşivlerin temsil ettiği şeylerle atfettiğiniz değerle ilgili açık bir mesaj vermekle; dünya arşiv mirasının korunması, geliştirilmesi ve kullanılması yönündeki çabalarınızı teşvik etmektedir.

Teşekkür ederim.

David FRICKER
ICA Başkanı
Avustralya Milli Arşivi
Genel Müdürü
H.E. President Recep Tayyip ERDOĞAN honoured the “Exhibition of the Documents of the First World War Centenary”
ÖNSÖZ

PREFACE

Birinci Dünya Savaşı’nın anlaşılması, sadece dünü değil bugünü ve içinde bulunduğumuz dönemin olaylarını daha doğruyle değerlendirebilmemize, ülkelerin benzer felaketlere tekrar sürülenmesine karşı insanlığın daha güçlü olması büyük katkı sağlayacağını düşünmek yanlış olmayacaktır. Bu savaşın tüm yönleriyle ele alınmasının muhtelif coğrafyalarda yaşanan ve günümüze kadar uzanan sıkıntı ve sorunların çözümüne de yardımcı olacağı muhakkaktır.


Cumhurbaşkanımız Sayın Recep Tayyip Erdoğan’ın himayelerinde, 19-21 Mart 2015 tarihlerinde İstanbul’daki Osmanlı Arşivi Daire Başkanlığımız Kongre Merkezi’nde düzenlenmiştir bu uluslararası etkinliğe, gerek gönderdiği belge ve gerekse iştiraki ile 72 ülke katkı sağlamıştır. 69 ülkenin milli arşivinden 126 üst düzey yetkili de etkinliğe katılmiştir.

Savaşın büyüklüğü ve süresinin uzunluğunu bu süreçte oluşan belge miktarının fazlalığını da beraberinde getirmiştir. Bu nedenle dünya arşivlerinde bu savaş dönemine ait milyonlarca ifade edilebilecek belge yer almıştır. Bu etkinlik çerçevesinde düzenlenen bilimsel program sayesinde ülkelerin arşivlerinde bulunan belgelerle ilgili ayrıntılı bilgi edinilirken, sergi faaliyeti sayesinde seçilen belge örneklerinin bir bütünlük içerisinde görülme imkanı bulunmaktadır.

İki salonda 14 oturum ile gerçekleştirilen bilimsel programda 47 ülkeden 50 tebliğ sunulmuştur. Bilimsel programda yer aldığı halde hiç olmayıp alanlarla ifade edilebilecek belge yer almıştır. Bu etkinlik çerçevesinde düzenlenen bilimsel program sayesinde ülkelerin arşivlerinde bulunan belgelerle ilgili ayrıntılı bilgi edinilirken, sergi faaliyeti sayesinde seçilen belge örneklerinin bir bütünlük içerisinde görülme imkanı bulunmaktadır.
rumu, savaş yargılanamaları, taraf dış ülkelerin durumu, toplumların Birinci Dünya Savaşı’na bakışı, ülke devlet arşivlerinin yapısı ve projeleri, e-arşiv ve dijitalleştirme çalışmaları bulunmaktadır.

Etkinlikle ayrıca, 42 ülke arşivinden gönderilen ve ülkemiz arşivlerinden seçilen belge ve görsel malzemeden oluşan “100. Yılında Birinci Dünya Savaşı Belgeleri Sergisi” de büyük ilgi ile karşılanmıştır. Hazırlanan sergi kataloğuunda sergiye katkı sağlayan 44 ülkenin arşivlerinden alınan 449 belge örneğine ait 1130 adet görüntü ile ülkemiz arşivlerinden seçilen 45 belge örneğine ait 60 adet görüntüden oluşan toplam 494 belge örneğine ait 1190 adet görüntü yer almıştır. Söz konusu görüntüler, kullanıma daha elverişli olacak şekilde esere ek olarak CD ortamında ilgililerin istifadesine sunulmuştur. Sergi malzemesine ait İngilizce özetlere ve referans bilgilerine tarafımıza gönderildiği şekilde aslına sadık kalmıştır.

Sergide yer alan belge, fotoğraf ve haritalar savaşın başta siyasi, askeri, mali ve insani boyutu olmak üzere birçok yönü ortaya koyan niteliktedir. Sergi malzemesinde göze çarpan önemsiz konular arasında savaş öncesi ve esnasındaki diplomatik gelişmeler ve devletlerarası ilişkiler, kurulan ittifaklar, Birinci Dünya Savaşı’na neden olan gelişmeler, ülkelerin birbirlerine savaş ilan etmeleri, savaş sırasında ülkelerin yurtdışı temsilcilikleriyle haberleşmeleri, devletlerin savaş sırasında halkları üzerindeki propagandaları, devlet başkanları arasındaki yazımlar, yardım talepleri, savaşın tarafsız devletler üzerindeki etkileri, kadın ve çocukların savaşta durumu, savaş esirlerinin durumu, yerleşimlerin tedavileri, savaş sonrası imzalanan ateşkes anlaşmaları ve savaş boyunca verilen kayıplar gibi hususlar yer almaktadır.

“Barış dolu bir dünya” için geçmişte yaşanan acı ve izdirapların unutulmaması gerektiği ana fikri çerçevesinde gerçekleştirildiğimiz bilgi ve belge şölenimizi teşrif ederek vecih konuşmaları ile etkinliğini büyük değer katan Cumhurbaşkanımız Sayın Recep Tayyip Erdoğan’a ve kapanış konuşması ile bizleri onurlandıran Başbakan Yardımcımız Sayın Prof. Dr. Numan Kurtulmuş’a şükranlarını sunmayı bir borç bilirim. Ayrıca, davetimize izabet ederek etkinliğiimize önemli katkı sağlayan başta ICA Başkanı Sayın David Fricker olmak üzere ülkelerin arşiv yetkilileri ve çalışanları ile gerek uluslararası etkinliğin gerekse bu çalışmanın hazırlanmasında emeği geçen Devlet Arşivleri Genel Müdürlüğü çalışanlarına içtenlikle teşekkür eder, eserin ilgililere faydalı olmasını dilerim.

Prof. Dr. Uğur ÜNAL
Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Başbakanlık
Devlet Arşivleri Genel Müdürlüğü
We are in the centenary of the First World War, called as the General War (Harb-i Umûmî) and Great War. It is also possible to call the First World War as the “First War of Partition”. Thus, some empires collapsed and they were replaced with many newly established states at the end of this partition war.

The understanding of the First World War will make a great contribution to evaluate the past and today’s events accurately. Also, it will help humanity to be more conscious of similar tragedies. Detailed consideration of the First World War, with its all aspects, will certainly be helpful for solving extant problems and troubles occurred on several geographies.

Undoubtedly, the most important sources for understanding and considering this war are the archives of countries and the documents kept in the archives. The most competent people are the ones who are qualified to evaluate these unique sources effectively. Among these, archivists are the leading people who preserve the archives of their countries. In this context, we are honored to have successfully performed the international event titled “Documents of the First World War Centenary” which was organized with the participation of archive authorities from several countries in the belief that it will be an important step on the road to world peace.

72 countries contributed, either by participating or sending documents, to this international event which was organized, under the auspices of H.E. President Recep Tayyip Erdoğan, on 19-21 March 2015 in the Congress Center of the Directorate of Ottoman Archives in Istanbul. 126 high-level archive authorities from the national archives of 69 countries participated in the event.

Massive scope and long duration of the war resulted in an increase of document creation during this period. Consequently, millions of documents pertaining to the war period took place among the holdings of archives all over the world. Scientific program of the event made it possible to have detailed information about the documents in the archives of the countries. Also, the exhibition gave the opportunity to see the selected document samples within the context of war.

Scientific program was held at 14 sessions in two halls with the presentation of 50 papers from 47 countries. Some papers which were presented in the scientific program but not delivered to our side could not be included in this work. On the other hand, one paper which could not be presented in the program but delivered later was included in the work. Documents and visual materials concerning the First World War in the archives of countries; events leading to the First World War; independence struggles of some countries during the war; political, economic and social effects of the war on countries; role of the archives in commemoration of the First World War; humanitarian aids; conditions of war prisoners; war trials; situation of neutral countries; nations’ perspective on the war; structure and projects of state/national archives; e-archives and digitalization works are among the subjects of papers.
Moreover, the “Exhibition on the Documents of the First World War Centenary” composing of documents and visual materials from the archives of 42 countries and Turkey drew great interest. Exhibition catalogue contains 1130 images of 449 document samples from the archives of 44 contributing countries and 60 images of 45 document samples from our country, totally 1190 images of 494 document samples. Mentioned images were given in a CD format as an attachment to this work in order to be utilized conveniently by those concerned. English summaries and reference information belonging to the exhibition materials were given in their authentic forms sent to our side.

Documents, photographs and maps in the exhibition reflect several aspects of the war, mainly political, military and humanitarian dimensions. Diplomatic developments and interstate relations before and during the war; alliances; events leading to the First World War; countries’ war declaration to each other; countries’ communication with their foreign missions during the war; states’ propagandas on their people during the war; correspondence between the presidents; requests for help; effects of the war on neutral states; conditions of women and children in the war; conditions of war prisoners; treatment of wounded people; after-war cease fire agreements and war casualties are among the significant subjects of the exhibition materials.

I would like to express my gratitude to H.E. President Recep Tayyip Erdoğan for his estimable opening speech and for honoring our information and document feast, which we organized within the framework of the main point that the past tragedies and sufferings should not be forgotten in order to build a “peaceful world”, and also to the Deputy Prime Minister Prof. Dr. Numan Kurtulmuş for honoring us with his closing speech. In addition, I would like to present my sincere thanks, especially to the ICA President Mr. David Fricker for his valuable participation in the event, to archive authorities and colleagues from several countries and to the staff of the General Directorate of State Archives who contributed to the organization of the event and to the preparation of this work. I hope that it will be beneficial for all those concerned.

Prof. Dr. Uğur ÜNAL
Republic of Turkey
Prime Ministry
General Director of State Archives
When considering how to mark the 100th anniversary of the outbreak of the First World War, the German Federal Archives quickly reached the decision not to enter into competition with museums or research institutes. Instead, our aim was to use the commemoration of this centenary to help us fulfil the key objectives of our archives, namely those of securing and preserving our records and making them accessible. Our intention was to make use of the latest technology to create a cost-effective, sustainable solution. With this in mind, we set the following targets:

1. To make the descriptions of all First World War documents accessible
2. To reproduce 4.6 million pages of civilian and military records from the First World War on microfilm
3. To digitise 700,000 pages
4. To digitally present selected individual documents and photos in online galleries that focus on different topic areas
5. To digitise films from the First World War period

To present the results, we decided to build an internet portal: https://www.ersterweltkrieg.bundesarchiv.de/

This portal went online at the end of June 2014 and during the course of this presentation, I would like to provide you with a brief overview of how it works.

1. Our primary aim was to make accessible the descriptions of all the First World War documents held by the Federal Archives.

The Federal Archives are, amongst others, responsible for documents originating from the period of the German Reich. The official documents are supplemented by private collections. The military documents held by the Federal Archives are stored in the Department Military Archives in Freiburg, while the civilian documents dating from the period of the German Reich are preserved in the Federal Archives’ Department German Reich in Berlin. Both civilian and military film footage is kept in the Department Film Archives, which is also in Berlin. A significant proportion of the photographic material is held at the Federal Archives’ Picture Archives in Koblenz, where the audio recordings are also stored. The First World War records kept at the Department Military Archives in Freiburg include the written documents of the Prussian Army and the German Army, into which the Prussian Army was integrated following mobilisation in August 1914. This is with the exception of the documents produced by the Bavarian, Saxon and Württemberg armies that are held in the German federal states of

* Head of Section-German Federal Archives
Bavaria, Saxony and Baden-Württemberg, as well as those drawn up by the Baden formations and units of the Prussian Army. The documents created by the Imperial German Navy and the Schutztruppen, the Imperial Colonial Forces, are also stored in Freiburg. Although the list of documents for which the Department Military Archives is responsible may sound extensive, the reality paints an entirely different picture. While close to 1,800 metres of documents drawn up by the Imperial German Navy remain, only around 700 metres of Prussian Army documents have been preserved, along with just a few individual fragments from the Imperial Colonial Force. However, we still have access to almost 1,000 metres of medical records for soldiers born between 1803 and 1899.

These marked differences stem from the considerable losses brought about by war. The fire at the German Army archives during the Allied air raid on Potsdam in April 1945 and the air strikes on Berlin resulted in the loss of around 95% of the Prussian Army’s documents. Furthermore, vast quantities of the documents that had been put away for safekeeping before the aerial assaults were destroyed by order of the authorities shortly before Germany’s surrender in 1945. The destruction of the German Army archives also resulted in the loss of records compiled by the units of the Imperial Colonial Force. In the end, the only documents to have survived are those that never left Africa and still remain there today. In contrast, the bulk of the Imperial German Navy and civilian documents dating from the German Reich remain intact.

Providing online access to all these collections was the primary objective of all our endeavours. From now on, it should be possible for anyone wishing to search the archives to conduct their entire research using online search tools from the comfort of their own home and to identify the relevant files before actually having to visit the archives in person. The invenio research tool was developed to provide access to the available cataloguing information online and in the reading rooms. A link to the tool can be found on the Federal Archives homepage www.bundesarchiv.de (under “search engines / portals”). To enable visitors to the First World War portal to search for all World War One documents held by the Federal Archives, a link to invenio has also been provided in the portal.

Clicking on the upper middle field takes users to a page providing a brief overview of invenio, our new research tool. From here, they can access the invenio homepage and perform their own searches through the Federal Archives’ collections.

2. While the main objective of reproducing the records from the First World War on microfilm was to keep them safe and preserve them for the future, another aim of digitising these documents was to make digital copies available online. Links were created between the digital copies and their descriptive data sets, allowing these records to be viewed during searches on invenio. The digital copies were produced from rolls of black and white microfilm. The decision not to use coloured microfilm was purely economic, since considerably more documents can be reproduced in black and white than in colour for the same outlay. Although coloured entries and annotations were increasingly common in the records from this period, they generally did not yet appear on a regular basis or, above all, as a separate system. This is
particularly true of military documents from this time. We therefore believed that our decision not to create coloured digital copies in favour of producing a greater quantity of microfilms was acceptable.

While, in the majority of cases, complete collections were microfilmed and subsequently digitised, in some isolated instances, only certain selected topic areas of a collection were processed. Furthermore, only A3 documents or smaller were microfilmed and digitised. Larger documents, and in particular maps, have been temporarily put aside and will be processed at a later date during an extensive digitisation project for large-format documents. The Federal Archives are planning to purchase a large-format scanner for their Department Military Archives, which will be capable of producing high-quality scans of maps that are up to 2 x 3 m in size.

Despite the considerable loss of military documents, the total number of records of the First World War that have survived both World Wars is far greater than we could realistically hope to microfilm and digitise. We therefore had some choices to make. While the criteria for the decision-making process were predominantly based on the importance of the documents’ contents and how frequently they are accessed, technical feasibility also played an important role. For example, we had to take into account whether our workshops had the capacity to undo files bound with thread. Prussian records and those compiled by the German Reich as recently as the 1920s are normally bound by thread. In previous microfilming projects, intact thread stitching was generally not unpicked. This meant that when reproducing thick documents on microfilm, the text in the middle of the films was often distorted and sometimes illegible. During this project, we decided that such unfavourable results had to be avoided at all cost to ensure that high-quality digital copies could be made from the microfilms. Consequently, thread-bound files had to be undone before being microfilmed. During the microfilming process, the documents were also foliated. The foliated loose sheets could then be microfilmed without any of the information being lost. The created microfilms would subsequently contain exactly the same content as the original documents (with the exception of colour) and could then be digitised.

Illegible text was not the only problem to be solved by undoing the thread stitching. A considerable number of military documents contain large-format maps and plans. These are generally folded and sewn into the documents, making them difficult to consult and extremely complex to reproduce. During the process of unstitching the records, these large-format documents were removed and properly stored in a separate location. This allowed each of them to be labelled with a reference number and described, creating the right conditions for them to be digitised at a later date.

After weighing up all the factors at play, the selection procedure was finally complete. In terms of official civilian records, the microfilming process focused on companies and bodies set up to support the war effort and manage the wartime economy. Three companies were selected for the digitisation process as representative of these establishments: the chemical company Kriegschemikalien AG, the Kriegsausschuß für Kaffee, Tee und deren Ersatzmittel
GmbH (Wartime Committee for Coffee, Tea and their Substitutes) and the Reichskartoffelstelle (Reich Potato Agency). In addition, the war records of the Reich Chancellery and the Reich Colonial Office were also digitised. The official civilian documents were supplemented by the microfilming and subsequent digitisation of personal papers, in particular those of Matthias Erzberger, a prominent member of parliament during the war who went on to become a Reich Minister and subsequently Vice-Chancellor.

In terms of official military documents, emphasis was placed on the administration of Germany’s occupied territories. To this end, the documents of the Imperial German General Governorate of Belgium, the Imperial German General Governorate of Warsaw, the Administrative Region of the Supreme Commander of the German Forces in the East, the so-called OberOst, and the Military Administration of Romania were microfilmed and digitised, as were those of all other governorates and the strongholds and commanding offices of the Prussian Army. This subject area was supplemented by the microfilming and digitisation of documents from the Kiautschou Governorate and previously unpublished manuscripts on the war in the colonies produced by the Military History Research Institute of the German Army between 1936 and 1945. The most frequently accessed documents of the Prussian Military Cabinet, the army group command authorities and the Commanding General of the Air Force of the Prussian Army were also microfilmed and digitised. These official military documents were added to by the microfilming and digitisation of selected personal military papers. These include the personal papers of Admiral Wilhelm Souchon, Commander of the Imperial German Navy’s Mediterranean squadron and Commander-in-Chief of the Ottoman and Bulgarian Navy; Admiral Georg von Müller, Chief of the Imperial Naval Cabinet; and Colonel General Moriz von Lyncker, Chief of the Prussian Military Cabinet.

Clicking on the top left-hand field takes users to a list of the digital collections, where they can find out more about each of the individual holdings. This page also provides a direct link to the corresponding part of invenio, giving users access to the classification, the table of contents of the collection and the digital files.

3. The Federal Archives hold more than 150 films recorded during the First World War. These comprise newsreels as well as documentary and propaganda films. The films have been digitised and made available online on the European Film Gateway. During this project, European film archives produced digital copies of large parts of their First World War collections.

Clicking on the lower middle field takes users to a page providing background information on the digitised film archive. From here, they can access the Federal Archives’ films on the European Film Gateway. Technical information and additional details on the content of each film are available here, together with a link to a further website, in this instance filmportal.de, where the films can be played.

4. The Picture Archives are responsible for keeping the Federal Archives’ photographic material. Of the approximately 11 million pictures held here, several hundred thousand date from the First World War. These include private images as well as picture collections that were...
compiled by both civilian and military state institutions. More than 200,000 of the images preserved by the Picture Archives have been digitised to date. These can be searched for and ordered online on the Digital Picture Archives website. A dedicated section has been created here for the First World War images.

Clicking on the lower left-hand field takes users to a page providing information on the picture collection. From here, users can enter the Digital Picture Archives.

5. The audio recordings held by the Federal Archives from the period of the First World War have also been digitised. Users can access these records by clicking on the lower right-hand field. Unfortunately, only four recordings are available.

6. The top right-hand field, entitled “Urgroßvater im Ersten Weltkrieg” (“My Great-Grandfather in the First World War”) takes users of the portal to a section that aims to make them feel personally connected to the events of World War One.

Firstly, this area of the website is home to a representative collection of digitised combat reports and diary entries.

These carefully selected, unique items are written by eyewitnesses, meaning that visitors are directly confronted with life on the front line.

Secondly, this section contains all the information visitors require to carry out their own genealogical research as well as the forms needed to send an enquiry directly to the Federal Archives.

7. Slightly below this part of the website, visitors can find information on the thematic galleries. The various galleries can be viewed via the portal and will be added to over time. A separate link provides access to the Google Cultural Institute, where all of the Federal Archives’ First World War galleries can be found.

The Federal Archives have been working with this Institute since 2014 and use its technology as a platform for their online galleries across the board. We are planning to have part of this gallery translated into English in spring of this year.

8. The digitised panoramic images provide an additional way for interested parties to gain a direct insight into the events of the times. These elongated panoramas, which were produced from multiple individual photos, allowed soldiers to have a good view of the land in front of them. Members of the armed forces used these pictures to identify targets for the artillery and mortars and to introduce their own troops, in particular artillery observers, to the terrain. Some of the images are close-up shots of villages and towns that had suffered varying degrees of destruction.

Since the majority of these pictures were lost during the Second World War, the Federal Archives only have access to around 300 of such panoramic images taken during World War One.

A link to the digitised panoramic images can be found at the very bottom of the website. Once again, clicking on this link takes visitors to a page providing information on the photos. This is accompanied by a list of the collections in which digitised panoramic images can be found. Like the other resources, these digital copies are also presented via invenio.
However, unlike the other documents, they are displayed on a specially developed viewer that uses open-source software. The viewer features a continuous zoom function and allows users to scroll back and forth even when accessing particularly large panoramic images.

The entire portal was never intended to be a static collection of documents. Instead, it will be continuously developed and extended. New First World War galleries were added and additional panoramic images digitised even after June 2014.

Further projects are also in the pipeline as we speak. Work is currently underway to digitise the documents held in the permanent collection of the former Army Archives, which was established in 1936. Key documents from Prussian and German military history dating back to the 17th century, but with a particular focus on the First World War, had been compiled by staff at the time for a permanent collection to be housed in the Potsdam archives building. These documents were moved to external locations early enough to avoid being damaged during the war and are now being digitised.

We are also in the process of completing the digitisation of our panoramic images. Additionally, new online galleries are being compiled.

A priority this year is the digitisation of the Supreme Army Command’s situation maps, which we intend to begin as soon as we have access to the required scanner technology. These digital copies will also be accessible from the portal.
The Mufti of Constantinople, the highest religious authority of the
Ottoman Empire, calls all Muslims to join the “Holy War” against
Great Britain and France
(Copy, 21 November 1914)

The text is designed as a kind of question-and-answer game between the
Mufti, the “Sheikh ul Islam”, on one side and the Ulema, the assembly of
religious dignitaries, on the other side. It ends concluding that joining the
“Holy War” against Great Britain and France is inevitable, for these states
would have declared the war towards Islam. The document shown here was
made available by the governor of the German Schutzgebiet (protection area)
of Cameroon to the local authorities.
Among other things, the entries deal with the raising of the Turkish flag on 16 August 1914 as a symbol of the ship’s takeover by the Ottoman Empire. When the war broke out, the S.M.S. Goeben was stationed in the Mediterranean Sea, together with the small cruiser Breslau. These two ships managed to escape all threats posed by the superior opposing battleships and to reach Constantinople. Following detailed negotiations the then neutral Ottoman Empire took over the two ships including their crews, naming them “Yavuz Sultan Selim” and “Midilli”.
Greetings and thanks.

In 2014 the Australian government commenced five years of commemorative activities marking 100 years since World War One. The program is known as the Anzac Centenary, and in the coming years we will remember not only those who Australians who served during World War One, but all those Australians involved in over century of service to their country.

‘Anzac’, as you may know, is a word that carries deep meaning for Australians and New Zealanders. Originally the letters A-N-Z-A-C stood for ‘Australian & New Zealand Army Corps’, which was the formation of troops that came landed at Gelibolu (known to us as ‘Gallipoli’), beginning at dawn on 25 April 1915. The events of that day became famous in the history of all our countries – Australia, New Zealand and Turkey - and the cove which was the main focus of the landings is known now as ‘Anzac Cove’. For Australians, ‘Anzac’ has become a way of referring to a place, a group of people, and a complex set of ideas and feelings about Australians at war.

Australia is an ancient continent and for many thousands of years was home to Indigenous people who fostered many rich and diverse cultures. European settlement began only in 1788, and only in 1901 did the six separate Australian colonies agreed to unite peacefully under one Constitution as the Commonwealth of Australia. Australians therefore considered themselves part of a ‘young’ nation, inexperienced in what many then believed to the greatest test of nationhood, that of war. So when war broke out in 1914, many young Australians volunteered eagerly and expected, after their training, to be shipped to Europe to face the German army on the Western Front. Members of the first convoys were surprised to find themselves landed in Egypt, from there to be put to fight in the newly opened up Eastern Front.

Few of those young men would have heard of Gallipoli, and most would have had only the slightest understanding of the Allies’ campaign objective, which was to open the Dardanelles to the British Navy to capture Constantinople, and ultimately to remove Turkey from the war. When the Australians got to Gallipoli they were expecting land on a grassy, lightly defended plain near Gaba Tepe, not the steep, scrub-covered hills and sharp ridges above Ari Burnu. In the dark, the Australians could barely see. Bugler Fred Ashton, originally

* ICA President/General Director of National Archives of Australia
a clerk from Geraldton in Western Australia, recalled that: ‘With our officer lying on the beach with a gaping wound on in his chest … we were rather at a loss to know what our next move should be. So we fired at the rifle flashes’. Sadly, in the confusion, this fire hit some of the men further above them.

Watching from the heights were men of the Turkish army, the 27th Regiment initially. Sixteen year old Private Adil Sahin had been a shepherd until his recent call up from his village, Buyuk Anafarta, which was on the Gallipoli peninsula itself. He was still too small to handle his rifle or fit into his uniform. He and his companions opened fire on the shadowy figures below, but many years later Sahin recalled: ‘I was not sure whether we’d hit them or they were taking shelter … we were outnumbered … it was confusing … We were very scared and retreated to the second ridge, firing as we went.’

Lightly defended as the country was, in very little time men of the Turkish 19th Division, under their commander Lieutenant Colonel Mustapha Kemal, were brought up to meet the invaders and it was Kemal’s decisiveness that ensured that the ANZAC’s key objectives that day remained in Turkish hands. Meanwhile, south at Cape Helles the British 29th Division also failed to gain any real ground after its amphibious landing. Stalemate set in and, ultimately, the eight month Gallipoli campaign was a failure for the Allies, who suffered over 44,000 deaths, including over 8,000 Australians. The number killed in the Turkish Army is estimated at nearly 87,000.

For Australia, Gallipoli left a revered legacy. Our collective imagination is still gripped by the story of our young soldiers scrambling under fire up the steep hills above the beach and is remembered every 25 April as Anzac Day. The actions of those men stand for qualities of endurance against overwhelming odds, courage, ingenuity, good humour, and mateship which transcend the historical moment and have profoundly shaped Australians’ sense of national character and identity.

In 1919 Australia’s war official historian, Charles Bean, returned to Gallipoli. He had been there before; had gone ashore at about 9.30am on 25 April 1915 and stayed for the entire campaign. Now, on his way back, as his ferry arrived at Mudros, his eyes anxiously searched the horizon. He wrote:

Far away over the open sea to the north-east … under a line of clustered clouds, could be faintly seen some low grey hilltops … They were the hills of the Dardanelles, and at that moment I, for one, was poignantly homesick for them.

With a party of other Australians, he wanted to walk the old battlefields again to better understand aspects of what had happened there. Guided by Major Zeki Bey, of the Turkish 57th Regiment, who had faced the Australians on the first day, Bean wanted to probe the many ‘riddles of Anzac’, as he called them, that had puzzled him ever since. In the years
that followed, very few Australians were able to visit, for the long journey from Australia was expensive and difficult. Australian Prime Minister Stanley Bruce visited in 1924, but it was largely a private visit to pay respects at the graves of some old comrades, for he had fought with the British Army on Gallipoli. Bereaved mothers often wrote to the Australian government begging for assistance to travel, but all were refused. Only the wealthiest families ever made it.

And yet Australians have never stopped longing to visit Gallipoli. In 1965, for the 50th anniversary of the landing, a 'pilgrimage' of ex-servicemen was organised by the Returned Services League of Australia, and in 1990 – 75 years on – the first government-funded veterans’ pilgrimage took place, led by the Department of Veterans’ Affairs. In recent years, although Gallipoli veterans have all died, many young people are eager to visit. For the 100th anniversary next month over 8,000 Australians will be present.

Visitors today never fail to be struck by the beauty and peacefulness of Anzac. The dead are buried and commemorated as close to where they fell as possible in 21 small cemeteries scattered across the Anzac area. This was done at Charles Bean’s suggestion after his visit in 1919. Bean was deeply aware that Australians at home were suffering a ‘cruel burden’ of anxiety at not being able to see the last resting places of their sons, and thought the men’s bodies would blend with the ground over which they had fought. In 1934 Kemal Atatürk, the man who had commanded Turkish forces in 1915 and who was now, of course, President of the Republic of Turkey, expressed the same idea. He wrote these words to be spoken by his Interior Minister to a delegation from the Imperial War Graves Commission which was visiting Turkey:

Those heroes that shed their blood and lost their lives ... you are now lying in the soil of a friendly country. Therefore rest in peace. There is no difference between the Johnnies and the Mehmets to us where they lie side by side here in this country of ours ... You the mothers who sent their sons from far away countries wipe away your tears. Your sons are now lying in our bosom and are in peace. After having lost their lives on this land they have become our sons as well.

In 1985 these words were inscribed on memorials unveiled on Gallipoli, and in Canberra, Australia, near the Australian War Memorial. Recently, one young traveller to Gallipoli observed: ‘Atatürk’s message makes you realise that we are not Australian or Turkish, but simply people.’

There are other ways that the dead and, indeed, the survivors of war, are remembered. The National Archives of Australia holds rich collections of records which document many aspects of the history of Australia at war, in particular the experience of individuals. We hold the all service dossiers of the 376,000 Australians who served overseas with the Australian
Imperial Force. Of those who returned, the National Archives holds extensive records relating to their post-war rehabilitation, pensioning and medical care. In the five years of the Centenary of Anzac, NAA is devoting substantial resources to enhancing the accessibility of these records, so that they may be easily discovered by new generations of researchers.

Our key platform for online engagement with NAA records is Discovering Anzacs, a website which is the culmination of many years’ work to acquire and make accessible records associated with Australia’s part in World War One. At the heart of Discovering Anzacs are the 376,000 service dossiers of the men and women (including 1,400 nurses) of the Australian Imperial Force. Discovering Anzacs is a partnership with Archives New Zealand and includes 141,000 New Zealand service records as well. Discovering Anzacs offers users the opportunity to input biographical and spatial data, transcribe records, and add their own images and stories. Records can be searched not just by name, but place of birth and place enlistment as well. With the support of the Department of Veterans’ Affairs, we are developing a suite of education resources for use by teachers and students in Australian schools, in line with the Australian high school curriculum. Although service records comprise the bulk of the content on Discovering Anzacs, we are incorporating other kinds of records and records related to other conflicts, including the Boer War. The website has had 135,600 sessions since its launch in October 2014, and over 61,000 contributions. Over 3,540 people have registered as users.

Another major initiative is one we call ‘Project Albany’. NAA holds a large collection of records which document health care, welfare services and pensions provided by the Repatriation Department (later the Department of Veterans’ Affairs) to eligible people who returned to Australia after the war. ‘Repatriation’ in this context means the return and resettlement into civilian life of Australian service personnel who fought overseas. There are approximately 600,000 individual records, but until now only a few of these have been made accessible to the public. NAA has received $3.4 million over three years from the Department of Veterans’ Affairs to describe as many records as possible on NAA’s database, RecordSearch, and to digitise a selection of them. The selection is based on the records of those personnel who left Australia with the first convoy, departing Albany in Western Australia on 1 November 1914. Hence the name: ‘Project Albany’. Nearly all of these people would have served on Gallipoli.

Together, service records and repatriation records provide a rich picture of the service and postwar lives of many Australians. In my allocated time today, I can tell just one story, that of Herbert Cornelius Bourne. Bourne was 21 when he enlisted in the Australian Imperial Force in August 1914, just weeks after the outbreak of the war. He was from Adelaide, in South Australia, and while he had trained as a jeweller and watch maker, at the time of his enlistment he was working as a clerk. After military training he was allocated as a stretcher bearer to the 3rd Australian Field Ambulance and landed on Gallipoli at dawn on 25 April 1915.
In the same unit was John Simpson Kirkpatrick, the man with who, famously, used donkeys to transport leg-wounded men to the beach. Simpson died on 19 May, shot by a sniper. Stretcher-bearing was extremely dangerous and exhausting work, but Herbert Bourne endured almost the entire campaign until finally in December he was evacuated, having suffered for months from influenza and typhoid. He saw no more frontline service, and was eventually discharged from the AIF, diagnosed with a heart condition, and returned to Australia in December 1917.

Bourne’s Repatriation files record that his health was poor for the rest of his life. With financial support from the Department, he established himself as a jeweller but as years passed was constantly troubled by heart problems, nerves, and varicose veins and ulcers which eventually became gangrenous, resulting in the amputation in 1968 of one leg. He died 1976.

What saddens me about Herbert Bourne is a letter his son, Donald, wrote to the Repatriation Department after Herbert died. ‘Could you tell me the nature of my father’s sickness and invalidity after he returned from Gallipoli?’, Donald wrote. He explained that within the family there were stories that Herbert had been buried alive. His father had lived over 50 years with a ‘dual personality problem’, Donald said, and it would be a comfort to the family to learn that this could be attributed to the war, and not to some fundamental problem in his nature. However, the Department wrote back briefly to say that it was unable to disclose any information. The family never received the answers for which they yearned. Pondering Donald Bourne’s letter about his father, I wonder if the family believed that if they could ‘blame’ the war, it would have been easier to ‘forgive’ Herbert the suffering he had apparently caused them. Of course we shall probably never know.

By preserving records and making them accessible, stories like these are not forgotten. The men I have mentioned today are not mere statistics, or names on lists. Through their records we can know them, at least a little. Bugler Ashton, the young man firing blindly in the dark on the morning of the landing, continues to speak to us from his own service record. We learn through his own words how as the morning wore on he became lost and, wandering alone, was captured by some Turkish soldiers and made prisoner. He was imprisoned for the rest of the war. A statement he made to Australian authorities after his eventual release in 1918, describing his experiences, still reaches us in stark, vivid detail.

And that is our purpose as Archives of World War 1 documents. The records we hold bear testament to the service and sacrifice of the men and women engaged in the war. Our job is to ensure that the records did not die when those brave individuals passed away. Instead, through our work, the records continue to live and to offer up new discoveries, new insights and understanding; to educate future generations and equip us all to make better decisions for a peaceful future. As archivists, we keep the records alive and through those records the
men and women that selflessly gave their service to their nations 100 years ago will continue to serve in perpetuity.

However, I am conscious that not all history is contained in archives, and to close my remarks today let me tell you about a meeting that took place in 1985 between an Australian historian and broadcaster, Harvey Broadbent, and Mr Adil Sahin, the rifleman who as a 16-year-old found himself defending his home from attack by Australians 70 years before. Now in his 80s and still living in Buyuk Anafarta, Mr Sahin, with his wife and neighbours, welcomed the young Australian film crew into their homes. Mr Sahin had never forgotten the campaign; only three of the 33 men from his village returned. With his Australian guests Mr Sahin went to Ari Burnu, which had recently been officially re-named Anzac Cove by the Turkish government, to talk of the campaign. He sent greetings to the Australian Gallipoli veterans whom he had met when they returned for the re-naming ceremony, and, carefully and with much emotion, he brought out for Harvey Broadbent a relic from the campaign that he had treasured for seven decades: a cap badge inscribed ‘Australian Military Forces’. For her part, Mrs Sahin presented the Australians with a branch of an olive tree, a universal symbol of peace.

So let me conclude with that thought: with my gratitude for the opportunity to speak at a gathering which so amply demonstrates the abiding peace and friendship between Turkey, Australia and the other nations represented here today.

Thank you.
GLOBAL WAR, THREATS AND PEACE FOR HUMANITY

I, Wadudul Bari Chowdhury, head of National Archives and National Libraries of Bangladesh. I am a civil servant, working in National Archives for last 3 years.

As you all know, Bangladesh got liberated from Pakistan in 1971. National Archives of Bangladesh was established in 1972. Before 1947, it was a part of greater India. So, we don’t have any documents related to First World War. As India was under British rule; so, India was also involved in WW-I. We know something about WW-I from history books, research work etc. Our young generation know very little of the history of WW-I & WW-II. They are peace lover and do not want any more war in the World.

Summary:

The national archives of many countries those who were involved in World War-I is a store house of the records and documents of destruction, tragedy and success of First World War. Based on which many historians wrote many history books. Film maker made various movies and documentaries. Many research works also conducted out of these archival records and documents.

First World War was one of the great tragedies of 20th Century. It was an event of destruction. It changed the world geography and many new countries appeared on our map.

Global War: WW-I: (1914-1918)

In WW-I France, Britain, Russia and other 10 countries were in Allis side and Germany, Austria-Hungary, Ottoman Empire and Bulgaria were in Central Powers.

Major Causes:

• Militarism: Militarism was one of the most major causes of WW-I. Between 1870 to 1914, the Europe countries continued to build and expand their armies.

• Nationalism: Nationalism flourished in Europe, with a different national pride that one’s own nation or culture is superior to other. This nationalism led European nations to compete to build the largest army and navy.

• Imperialism: Another cause of World War-I was that European nations ruled colonies, and competed with each other to occupy to create more colonies. This colony competition caused confrontations and conflicts in many places.

• Alliance: Creating alliance was another important cause of WW-I. By 1907, there were two major defense alliances in Europe. The Triple Entente, later known as the Allis, consisted of France, Britain and Russia and the Triple Alliance, later known as the Central Powers, consisted of Germany, Austria-Hungary and the Ottoman Empire. The danger of these alliances was that an argument between two countries could draw all the other nations allied with them into a fight.

* Director- Directorate of Archives and Libraries of Bangladesh
Affects of WW-I:

WW-I was one of the most important events of the 20th century. A vast number of devastation was caused by WW-I. The total number of military and civilian casualties in WW-I was over 37 million. Over 16 Million deaths, 22 million wounded and around 8 million missing ranking it among the dead list conflicts in human history.

WW-I took its toll on the whole of the European economy, leaving Europe on its knees, financially. The Allies spent around $132 billion on the war and the Central Powers around $61 billion. Millions of people died, out of hunger, disease and violence. The war had brutalized European society and many empires. WW-I is one of the major cause of WW-II.

WW-I destroyed multinational empires like the Ottomans and Austria-Hungry. After war, it gave birth to the Nazi party and fascism, which led the horrors of WW-II and Holocaust.

World War-II: (1939-1945)

In WW-II USA, Britain, Soviet Union and other 21 countries were in Allied side and Germany, Italy, Japan and other 04 countries were in Axis Powers.

Threats:

WW-I and WW-II is the history of the destruction and devastation of modern century. After war, the people around the world expected peace and tranquility from League of Nations and UNO. But fail to meet the expectations. After hundred years of WW-I, the world again is at the risk of war and security threat.

• The major threats are mainly:
  • Terrorism: Presently, terrorism is a great threat for global peace, security and human existence. Many researchers have found out that economic disparity, autocracy, hunger, ethnic conflict and lack of proper education etc. are the main causes of growing terrorism. These are also threat for security, democracy and good governance.
  • Technological Advancement: The big powers, even the developing countries are now involved in the invention of modern technological weapon like nuclear weapon, chemical weapon, biological weapon, which may cause another global war.

Peace for Humanity:

From the inception of the civilization, every men and community is running after peace. But in every step, peace for humanity faces impediment, because of conflict. The young generations do not want any more war. They want peace. The international community should find out some way so that humanity can survive with peace.

Recommendations:

• The Records & information related to WW-I and WW-II can be shared within all the National Archives, so that other countries can learn.
• A research forum and a awareness program can be undertaken among the member countries of ICA and other countries.

With this few words, I conclude my speech with hope that we all, will work together for peace and humanity.

Thank you very much all.
THE RIGHT TO REMEMBER: THE BELGIAN STATE ARCHIVES AND THE COMMEMORATION OF THE FIRST WORLD WAR

Prof. Dr. Karel VELLE*

In many countries, the commemorations around the First World War are among the most important events of recent history. Belgium has a tradition of historical commemorations that dates back to the 19th century. Already shortly after the end of WWI, various forms of commemorations around the war were organised. Commemorative rituals, among which remembrance services for the dead soldiers and civil victims, helped to keep the memory of the war alive. The development of so-called war tourism (memorial tourism) around places with high symbolical character became a major new phenomenon. The 50th anniversary of the war – in 1964-1968 – raised a lot of interest among the population, politicians, academics and documentary film makers and the media, and the same happened in 2008 at the 90th anniversary of the end of the war. However, all this media attention is completely overshadowed by the commemoration hype that we witness since 2014. There are no indications that this memory boom and the interest of society for the world war of 14-18 will decrease in the coming years, although 2018 will certainly mark a new high point.

The current commemoration period, which officially started on 28 July 2014, is characterised by several factors:

- Firstly, by mass mobilisation of vast public means put together by different governments to aid and finance the WWI commemoration programme. The Flemish government took the first steps as early as 2006 and was followed, although a couple of years later (in 2010-2011), by the federal government and the government of the other regions (Wallonia and Brussels) and by a number of cities and municipalities, among which the so-called martyr cities (Dinant, Tamines, Visé, Louvain, Dendermonde) that had to endure great suffering during the first weeks after the invasion. I spare you the political discourses that were held in the different political panels about the commemoration policy, and the justified criticism from historians about the inflation in the number of initiatives, and the political, commercial and economic logic behind some of the publicly funded projects and programmes.

- Secondly, the commemoration period is also characterised by the organisation of hundreds of events, of official moments of remembrance and cultural events, the organisation of colloquia and permanent and temporary exhibitions, both in the area of the battle fields around Ypres and in the occupied zones of former Belgium;

* General Director - State Archives in Belgium
Thirdly, we witnessed a mass mobilisation of historians: academics and specialists in the history of the conflicts of the 20th century, various associations and local researchers responsible for much new and renewing research about various aspects of the war: the battles of August 1914, the violence against civilians, the survival strategies of the population during the occupation, the immigration of Belgians to other countries, the experiences of deported people, the resistance against the occupant, the aftermath of the war, etc.

Fourthly, by massive attention from both audio-visual and written media and press.

The commemorations around WWI are important for all actors of society, not least for the institutions that preserve and manage the material heritage about this world conflict: libraries, musea and archives, but also the institutions that take care of the commemoration monuments, cemeteries and battle fields.

Speaking to you today, I would like to briefly address the question: which contribution has the Belgian State Archives already made to improving our insight into the history of WWI and which are the results of our policy for the time being.

Our European colleagues certainly remember, at least those who were in active duty at the time, that during the Belgian presidency of the Council of the European Union in the second half of 2010, one of the sessions of the gathering of the European Board of National Archivists addressed the subject World War I Archives and historical research: hype or cornerstone? And we gave the floor to a number of colleagues of the national archives of Austria, the United Kingdom and Belgium who reported about the numerous initiatives in which archivists and archives services were involved. So I largely base this contribution on the insights that were presented at the time – in November 2010 – by our colleague Dr. Pierre-Alain Tallier.

The Belgian State Archives has defined several points of action around WWI.

1 Making up for the backlog regarding the appraisal of archives that were gathered after the war by the so-called Commission for War Archives. These 4 km of archives originate from both Belgian and foreign public authorities, but also from numerous private individuals and associations. The inventorying of this disparate but very rich archive material was started in the 1990s and accelerated afterwards. The archives were fully described by 2008. They bear on all sorts of aspects except military matters, as the military archives from this period are conserved by the Royal Museum of the Armed Forces and of Military History. In the past two decades, other archives were also appraised and described, such as:

* the hundreds of metres of archives of German businesses that were active in the banking and insurance industry and that were seized by the Belgian authorities after the war, the so-called sequestration archives;
* the archives of the provincial Help and Food Committees,
* the archives of prisons and courts including those for war damages,
* the archives of the cabinet and the secretariat of King Albert I,
* the archives of municipalities, churches, families containing important documents about WWI.

Since the archival sources about WWI were still largely unknown or even completely unknown among many researchers, all available information about both the archives kept by State Archives as well as those kept elsewhere was gathered in a two-volume archives guide published in 2010, within the framework of the Belgian presidency. The guide gives an overview of archival holdings and their creators, of central, provincial and local administrations, universities, churches, businesses, charities and persons, and provides references to complementary archives, photo and film collections, collections of posters and journals, etc. An index of research subjects is added at the end of this two-volume guide. Since the guide is also available as e-book, browsing through this guide is very easy and rewarding!

Ever since its publication, the archives guide proved more than useful. For example, in 2014 an interdisciplinary research project entitled The Great War from below was started with the aim of studying the impact of the war on society, based on detailed analyses of the courses of life of three groups of people:

* war veterans,
* members of the resistance and collaborators, and
* finally those who had to do forced labour (deported and non-deported people).

2 A second point of action is the actual physical management and the enrichment of a topical library about WWI that the State Archives inherited from the Commission for War Archives. This collection of printed matters contains many unique works. The online catalogue on our website gives access to 30,000 works, mainly books and brochures.

3 Thirdly, the State Archives has been investing for 15 years now in various sorts of publications about WWI. Dozens of inventories were published both in print and in digital format (accessible via the search engine on our website and downloadable as PDF file). Text editions about WWI are included since 2001 in a separate series entitled “Études sur la Première Guerre mondiale” (Studies on the First World War) that now counts 19 volumes. In 2014 they were also published as e-books at reasonable prices. Indeed, the State Archives launched its own e-bookshop (www.arch.be/ebookshop).

4 Fourthly, our institution tries, if possible, to actively participate in colloquia and exhibitions that are organised in collaboration with partner institutions whenever this is
possible. Hereby our goals are: improving the knowledge and historical insight about the history of WWI, exploring new research instruments, drawing attention to sources that were scarcely used so far, presenting the results of ongoing research, etc.

Due to the severe crisis in public finances in Belgium, the State Archives is no longer capable to fund large-scale exhibitions by its own. We therefore chose to create virtual exhibitions or to organise exhibitions together with partners. Virtual exhibitions become expensive when many interactive tools are provided. This is not the case, however, with the rather static website “Archives 14-18 and Wallonia” for example. This website is hosted by the State Archives and offers a representative sample of relevant sources: letters, posters, photographs, minutes, etc. Our intention is to further enrich the corpus of images already available… until 2018.

The second alternative for organising exhibitions is to cooperate with partner institutions. A good example of such a collaboration is the exhibition SHOCK! 1914. What if war broke out tomorrow? This superb exhibition was opened on 11 September 2014 at the Royal Library in Brussels and showed the chaotic weeks of summer and fall 1914. The exhibition was the fruit of the excellent collaboration between the Royal Library, the State Archives and the Centre for Historical Research and Documentation on War and Contemporary Society CEGESOMA – the centre of excellence for the history of 20th century conflicts. The exhibition scenario is intriguing: Summer 1914: the war breaks out, German troops invade Belgium, citizens flee, terror lurks around, cities are reduced to rubbles … How was the population informed about what was going on in the war? How was information ‘produced’ at the time? War posters, journals, official notes, printed maps, … were on display in the exhibition. How the Belgian population reacted to these shocking information at the time was likewise illustrated, by displaying witness accounts, dairy excerpts, photographs, caricatures, newspaper pages and war posters.

A more modest exhibition was organised in early 2014 at the State Archives in Saint-Hubert around the subject “la grande guerre pour les culottes courtes” – the great war for ‘short pants’ – with the aim of illustrating and explaining WWI to pupils with the help of images. An exhibition around war posters called ‘Medeburgers! Weest bedaard en hebt betrouwen!’ – Citizens! Be calm and have faith! opened recently at the State Archives in Bruges. The occupant used posters to show the citizens what was demanded from them, which were the prices of goods, what had to be handed over to the occupying authorities, and which limitations of their freedom were imposed on them. In other words: the posters shown in this exhibition shed light on the harsh living conditions of the people of Bruges and the surrounding area.

But we do not only work together with partner institutions for exhibitions, we also do so for conferences. For example, together with the Royal Museum of the Armed Forces
and of Military History we organised a three-day international congress in 2008 entitled *When the Guns fall Silent*, the Proceedings of which were published in 2010. In March 2015, with the universities of Namur, Ghent and Leuven, and – again – with the Centre for Historical Research and Documentation on War and Contemporary Society, we organised the international colloquium ‘The Great War from Below: Between individual life courses and collective experiences. New sources, new perspectives’.

5 A number of colleagues have also put together educational workpackages for primary schools about various aspects of the war, and short research guides about the history of WWI in a particular region. The archives guide published in 2011 in collaboration with the cultural heritage associations of Sint-Truiden and Tongeren was sold out in no time – and there is a reason for this, namely that people are interested in pertinent questions such as: How was the daily life of the population during the First World War? Was there enough food? To which extent could famers benefit from the war and the high food prices it caused? At which pace were the war-ravaged areas rehabilitated?

6 Finally, with the sixth point of action of the State Archives with regard to WWI, I would like to draw your attention to a number of digitisation projects that raise much interest – among other things thanks to our monthly Newsletter and the Facebook page of the State Archives:

– the digitisation of the so-called ‘carnets’ of the orderly officers of King Albert I (1914-1918), which is a barely known source.

– the digitisation of the so-called parish reports. In December 1918, Cardinal Mercier set up an inter-diocesan commission charged with a threefold mission: establishing a truthful report about what happened in Belgium during the war years, grafting the events of the war in the collective memory of the people, and highlighting the role of the Belgian church in the resistance against the German aggressor. In their reports, the pastors had to give account of:

* the German invasion in 1914,
* the impact of the occupation regime on religious life,
* forced labour,
* the deportation of workers to Germany and
* the fate of the political prisoners. The report is rounded off with accounts of the end of the war, the withdrawal of the German troops and the return of the war prisoners and the political prisoners.
The parish reports about the First World War are sources well known to local historians, but the commemorations have led to an exponential demand for access to them. In order to meet this increased demand, the Belgian dioceses and the State Archives joined forces, digitised the reports and made them available online. The project started in 2013 and if everything goes according to plan, the digitised reports of all dioceses (except one) will be accessible via the website of the State Archives at the end of 2015.

And finally, the digitisation of printed archives. With the support of the German-speaking Community of Belgium, our institution digitised a very unique and complete historical source in 2013, namely the St.Vither Volks-Zeitung, a local newspaper of the so-called East Cantons from 1866 to 1964, that forms an important resource for the study of the local history.

2015 and the coming years will be all about further digitisation of our collections, of our iconographical material, photographs, maps and plans, posters and other sources that are particularly important for the local history of WWI, because the major part of our virtual visitors and users are above all people interested in local history and family history.
The Austro-Hungarian rule in Bosnia-Herzegovina (1878 to 1918) in Bosnian historiography is considered as one of well explored period. This is explained by the facts that Bosnia-Herzegovina, in addition to the occupation (1878) and annexation (1908) have been in the centre of attention after assassination of archduke Franz Ferdinand in 1914. Significant fact for scientific research of this period is establishing of Archives of Bosnia-Herzegovina. Its collected archival records were the backbone for many researchers orientated to this period. In fact, all studies of Austro-Hungarian period of this period after World War II, as well as any publication of archival sources, were inseparable of Archives of Bosnia-Herzegovina.

In terms of the First World War, it may be noted that the dominant theme in the research for decades was the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand. Publishing activities of Archives of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which generally presents the results of scientific research work, had started publishing transcripts from the main hearing in the trial of the assassins, and particular reason was the fiftieth anniversary of the assassination. Simultaneously, with the publication of official documents, there was also the idea to publish private letters of assassins and to undertake a pioneering effort to collect and archive the private documents of witnesses and participants of historical events from 1914. In the late eighties, the collection was enriched with valuable resources collected in the form of copies and microfilm images from Austrian archives.

In first decades after establishing of Archives of Bosnia-Herzegovina, working conditions and practices in archival institutions, as well as arrangement of records, were far of accessibility that we know nowadays. We would like to remind on always actual conclusions of one working group of american historians and archivists that archivists, due to their knowledge of contents of archival fonds, can encourage new researches and discover new themes.

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1 Archives of Bosnia and Herzegovina was established in accordance to the Regulation of the State Archives of People's Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina which has been declared in December 12th 1947, and since its beginnings this institution have been guardian and protector of archival materials from our region, including those related to WWI.

On the eve of the centenary of the outbreak of The Great War, in 2014, Archives of Bosnia-Herzegovina had made efforts in various ways to draw attention to its archival sources. Sarajevo was a host of International Archival Conference on documents relevant for the First World War, and Archives participated in organization of exhibition on First World War and publishing of photographs related to Franz Ferdinand visit to Sarajevo. Unfortunately, owing to the circumstances, we found ourselves in the position that the centenary of the assassination was spent in repairing damage from the fire in our repository which was burnt on 7th February 2014. In devastated repository some fonds regarding to First World War were stored; some of them were seriously damaged, some were disorganized. After fire, access to archival fonds were impossible for at least two months. But not even this catastrophy has not change a view on role of archives in society.

When we talk about sources relevant to the First World War, Archives of Bosnia and Herzegovina possesses archive material of military provenance only fragmentary. Fonds created through the function of the supreme administrative authority (Landesregierung) are much more complete, widely used and thoroughly researched. Also, there are well preserved fonds created through the function of judicial institutions (District and Supreme Court, the State Attorney’s Office, Military Advocate) but unlike the previous, they are almost completely unexplored when it comes to World War I.

We believe that the fonds in our Archives held the real and vivid picture of the situation in Bosnia and Herzegovina during the First World War. This is certainly an image that differs from image that may be created, for example, from the survey of press of the time, which in classical propaganda machinery glorifies successes of “our” troops, while the enemy is in despair and suffers huge losses on daily bases. From a modest selection of preserved posters, which do not have much esthetic as informative value, one can learn more about the mobilization and war loans, hygiene and control of infectious diseases, saving and humanitarian work. Almost everywhere in Bosnia and Herzegovina, various societies for the families of the soldiers and for the care of the wounded have been established. The Land Government received a multitude of applications for the release of men, because in their absence there is no one to take care of livestock and crops. In the absence of the labor force due to mobilization, students perform agricultural work; in the absence of teachers, pupils are employed on various humanitarian actions.

Late foundation of archival institutions in our country caused a lower level of conservation of archival sources, as well as their arrangement. A variety of sources for understanding the situation in Bosnia and Herzegovina during the First World War are still waiting for their researchers. Our mission will be to make available those resources in the most efficient way as soon as possible.
Illustrations:

Welcoming of Franz Ferdinand and Archduchess Sophia, June 28th 1914

The car in which Franz Ferdinand and his wife Sofia were shot
Official call for mobilization in Bosnia and Herzegovina in three languages

Archives of Bosnia-Herzegovina
Holloware donated by citizens of Sarajevo to be used in war industry as raw materials

Archives of Bosnia-Herzegovina
Units from Bosnia and Herzegovina on Italian frontline

Archives of Bosnia-Herzegovina
BULGARİSTAN / BULGARIA

BULGARIA AND WORLD WAR I:
RECORDS OF HISTORY–IMAGES OF HISTORY

Dr. Milena PETKOVA-ENCEHEVA *

Speaking about war in general it is always a question of power and influence and seizure of territory – in military, administrative and demographic context. When it is world war then it refers to thousands of militaries, administrative representatives, and of course civil population engaged in fields and events of victory or defeated, depending on the interpretation.

The archives are those institutions which preserve documents and images of the events attracting public interest, especially speaking of historians, politicians, journalist, students, general public and etc. The Archives State Agency of Bulgaria is the institution responsible for the preservation of the archival heritage of the country. At the same time its main task as an archival institution is to provide facilities and face the necessities of the users of archival material referring to public access to the documentary heritage.

In the past years till present days the Archives State Agency of Bulgaria provides public access to the preserved documental heritage. The documentary collection of the World War 1 refers to thousands of records and images organized in archival Fonds of different institutions such as the records of the Bulgarian diplomatic agencies at that time in different cities like Budapest, Sweden, etc; the private collections of generals and other militaries participated in the World war 1, evidences of journalists and etc. The World War 1 records are preserved mostly at the State Military Historical Archives and the Central State Archives which are directorates under the jurisdiction of the Archives State Agency.

Part of these archival records are already published in different documentary editions, historical books and numerous articles. Just recently in liue to the World War 1 centenary was reprinted the documentary edition of Documents on the Bulgarian-Turkish Relations during the World War 1 and a book containing lists of Turkish militaries participated in the area of Dobrudzha (parts of North-East Bulgaria and Romania).

Aiming to keep its “traditional” users on one hand, and to attract new users, facing the challenges of the new information environment from another, in 2012 the Archives State Agency created an archival platform. The platform, named “The Archives are Speaking”, carries out one of the strategic goals of the Bulgarian archival institution. This platform

* Chief Expert- Archives State Agency of Bulgaria
conception was created referring to: domain www.archives.bg, common architecture and functions giving the opportunity to publish documents about important periods of the history of the country or key institutions. The tendency is to add a new thematic collection on the platform each year, i.e. to enrich the platform with new thematic sites and increase the number of the published on-line documents part of the documentary heritage. The necessity of creating an internet platform is unconditionally shown by the numbers on the on-line users of archival information compared to the number of the “traditional” users at the archives’ reading rooms. On the archival platform we have created so far several thematic sites providing on-line access to documents on: Proceedings of the Political Bureau of the Communist Party, Militaries died in the Balkan Wars 1912-1913, The Jewish Community of Bulgaria, Police files of Public figures before 1944, Photoarchives.bg, The People’s Court (1944-1945).

The site “Bulgaria in the First World War” will be developed in two stages: the first one refers to the preparation for the on-line release of lists of awarded Bulgarian officers, soldiers and officials who had participated in the war. The lists are part of the documentary collection of the State Military Historical Archives – Veliko Tarnovo. On the site will be published other documents on the topic, preserved at the Central State Archives as well as part of the archival collections of the State Archives. The documents provide information on the Bulgarian participation in the war conflicts, the idea on the fulfillment of the national ideal – the union of the Bulgarian nation within the Bulgarian boundaries, as well as data on the consequences lead to the national catastrophe. The second stage refers to the release of the lists of died militaries and public access at the end of 2015. This new site on our archival platform will provide on-line access not only to archival records but to photos of the time of the World War 1. Users of the site have the opportunity to add comments to the suggested descriptions, identify persons from the photos and etc. All their comments and suggestions referring the published on-line information are forwarded to archivists of the State Agency who check the data and after a professional research if applicable correct the information.

Secondly, I would like to point out that all the photos and records have a special stamp which shows that they are part of the Bulgarian archival collections. This stamp could not be removed. And thirdly there is no option to download records from the on-line collections. If a user although all the protections successfully manages to download documents or photoes he/she receives a copy with low resolution. All these protections and measures are intended not to give opportunity to publish or use archival records without the official permission of the archival institution. All the archival materials of the archives can be published ore reprinted under the terms of the national legislation framework.

To summarize I would like to say that publishing documents on the internet is one of the activities to achieve the long-term strategic goals of the Archives State Agency. The on-line
access to digital images of archival records part of the digital archive of our national archival institution guarantee the popularization and the use of documents out of the reading rooms.

To publish an enormous number of documents comprising the archival heritage of the Archives State Agency is of interest of scientists and specialists as well as of the general public interested in a certain degree in the Bulgarian history. The number of the Agency’s site visitors vastly exceeds the number of the so-called “traditional” users of the reading rooms. The data analysis on the number of visitors shows that an important part of the archival activities in the field of providing services is to give on-line access to archival records and the involve the users in the archivists activities such as identification of persons, places and etc. The observations show that even at this starting point the site of the archival platform are used as a supplementary instrument in History lessons where the possibility to visualize the near past makes the “story” easier to comprehend and interesting for the students.
Declaration (manifesto) of 1st October 1915 by Tsar Ferdinand declaring war on Serbia and Bulgaria entered the World War I.

Central State Archives of Bulgaria
ENDONEZYA / INDONESIA

DOCUMENTS OF THE FIRST WORLD WAR

Senja Kala YAHYA *

Preface

Arsip Nasional Republik Indonesia (ANRI) as a national institution, assumes responsibility to perform the national archival management, as it is determined in Article 19 verse (2) the Law Number 43 year 2009. Archives preserved by ANRI were collected from states institutions, companies, political organizations, and individuals. This management of archives is aimed to guarantee the security of archives as the evidences of the national responsibility for the nation.

ANRI has been conserving and preserving archives from the era of the Dutch United East India Company (Verenigde Oostindische Compagnie or VOC), which was created in 1602, to present time. Therefore, ANRI has done archives management including acquisition, arrangement, description, preservation and utilization of archives. Thus, the collective memory of the nation is well-preserved and able to be utilized.

Archives of Dutch Colonial Government (1800-1811, 1817-1948), depict wide and detailed information on the activity of the Dutch colonial government. Archives of the Algemeene Secretarie, contain with archives from administrative activities in the central government secretariat that assisted the Governor General of the Dutch East Indies. These archives are rich of data about policies taken by the central government completed with supporting information derived from regions, including aspects about government, agrarian, economy, industry, transportation, demography, tax and financial, local governments, defense, military, and etc.

Archive preserved in ANRI can be accessed by public in accordance to the prevailing law. The access to archives is available for the purpose to utilize, use, and serve the public by considering the completeness, safety and security. The convenience in accessing archives is guaranteed by ANRI. It is accordance with one of the missions of ANRI – providing public with access to archives for supporting governmental activities, development, research, and science for the good of people in accordance toe the prevailing laws and common archival practices, and for the good of the nation.

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Abstract

Local Islamic Unions

In 1909 an organization with the name of Sarekat Dagang Islamiyah (Islamic Commercial Union) was founded amongst Indonesian traders in Batavia. The man who took the initiative to establish this organization was RM Tirtoadisuryo, a journalist from Surakarta, who was the editor-in-chief of “Medan Priyayi” in Bandung. In 1911 he also established a similar kind of organization in Bogor with the name of Sarekat Dagang Islam (Islamic Commercial Union).

Those two organizations were a kind of trade-cooperative. Their members consisted of Indonesian traders, who joined together in order to compete with, and to free themselves from the grip of the Chinese traders, who dominated the middle-class trade.

Due to rapid expansion in membership of the Sarekat Dagang Islam which has included many social groups, the word “Dagang” (traders) had no more meaning. So its statutes, which were legalized by a public notary in Surakarta on September 10, 1912, changed the word “Dagang” and henceforth the organization was called Sarekat Islam (Islamic Union). According to the statutes, the Sarekat Islam’s aim was not only limited to business enterprise, but also the encourage the development of the economic life of the Indonesian people as well as to renew and develop social and cultural life and the Muslim religion.

Period Movement (de Inlandsche Beweging) in Java started by local high school students (Boedi Oetomo on 1908), Sarekat Islam (1912) and vocational school such as association Muhammadiyah, established in the year 1912.

On June 30, 1913 the Netherland’s government issued a decision to recognize Sarekat Islam as a corporate body, but not as whole.

Muhammadiyah is an association that aims to develop the religion of Islam, according to the conditions and demands of the modern era. This society was founded and led by Kyai H.Achmad Dahlan. The organization Muhammadiyah as regular as the Sarekat Islam.

The Netherlands Indies in Great War (1914 -1918)

Related to the First World War (28 July 1914 to 11 November 1918) in Europe, Nederland did not participate in the war, war affects the Netherlands, but not until devastated the entire country. Radical political changes occurred in the Netherlands, which resulted in affecting political change also in the colonies in East Indies. The changes developed what is called political ethics. This development is very favorable, the organization Muhammadiyah as a modern organization greatly benefit from this change.

After the outbreak of the First World War in 1914, in East Indies (Indonesia) talked about and written about the formation of the Indigenous militia.

When the campaign on the need for a defense militia took place, Sarekat Islam, which gave rise to the demands of the other Bumiputera to be their representative in the Dutch
East Indies. In 1915, Sampoerna Utomo supports the view of the Sarekat Islam, so that the campaign “Indie Weerbaar” quickly turned into an issue of Representatives or Volksraad.

Summer 1916, established the association defence of Indies “Indie Weerbaar” where Indigenous groups, reacted positively. Then corporate Boedi Oetomo, Sarekat Islam, Society Regent and Sultans of the Kingdom of Java. Peoples see it as the National Association of civil and military, that in order to assert the Nation about the importance of military and economic capabilities.

As a continuation of “Indie Weerbaar” campaign, is a decision that sent a delegation to the Netherlands to submit a motion to the Queen Wilhelmina, Minister of Colonies, and the Dutch Parliament. Envoy consists of six members, namely Prince Ario Koesoemodiningrat (representing Prinsen Bond), Raden Magelang Regent Hero Member Soegondo Danoe represent Regenten Bond, Mas Ngabehi Dwidjosewojo represent Sampoerna Utomo, Abdul Muis represent Sarekat Islam, F.Laoh representing the Minahasa, and WV Rhemrev. In addition, there is a companion that is Dirk van Hinloopen Labberton, a prominent supporter of Ethical Policy The delegation left for Holland in January 1917 and arrived there in early March 1917.

The desire to establish a Technical College in the Dutch East Indies, in fact already be thinking elite and temporary Bumiputera businessmen and industrialists in the Dutch East Indies before 1917. Soewardi Soerjaningrat that when it (1917) is still in the Netherlands aggressively once supported the establishment of the Technical High School.
Finally, with the arrival of delegates “Indie Weerbaar,” particularly Abdul Muis attempt to negotiate successfully with the approval of the commission for technical education in the Dutch East Indies by the Queen of the Netherlands and 14 employers who provide full support financially. In 1920, the school who dreamed it stood in Bandung with name Technische Hogeschool (THS).

Jakarta, February 2015
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DOCUMENTS OF THE FIRST WORLD WAR CENTENARY

“Indie Weerbaar”, Nieuwe Rotterdamsche Courant
18 May 1917

“A Voice from Minahasa” Colonial Weekly, Labour and Information Office East and West
The Hague, 19 July 1917

National Archives of Indonesia
In 1914 when the First World War broke out, Estonia did not exist as independent state. There were two separate provinces at the shore of Baltic Sea, Estonian and Livonian, that were part of the Russian Empire. In 1917 after the February Revolution in Russia, autonomous Estonian national province was established from Estonian and Northern part of Livonian province. Only on 24th February 1918 the independent Republic of Estonia was declared. Thus Estonia as a state never took part in the War.

However the Baltic region was strategically important to Russia, especially in defending the capital Petrograd. Shortly before the war, various military objects had been established in Estonia. During the war extensive work went on for building the Peter the Great’s Naval Fortress. Tallinn, that is Estonian capital today, became the base for Russian Baltic Sea fleet, with a newly established harbour and warship factories. In 1915 when front reached to Latvia, Estonia became the nearest rear of front, where more than 100 000 Russian soldiers had been gathered by early in 1917 and also thousands of war refugees who mostly were Latvians but also Poles, Russians and Lithuanians. And of course tens of thousands of Estonians were mobilised to fight in the Russian Army.

The main purpose of my presentation is to give an overview of some groups of records from the period of war in the collection of National Archives of Estonia and of topics they cover. And also to show how our archive is trying to bring the documents of this war closer and more available to possible users.

To give some context it has to be said that we hold 8,8 millions records from 13th century until today. That includes photos, maps, sounds, films, text and digital documents. We have tens of thousands documents from period 1914-1918 but of course not all of these do not reflect the war or its influences.

Among the documents that do relate to the war, most widely interesting are the ones that contain personal data about the men who fought in the war. As almost everywhere in the Russian Empire, also in Estonian and Livonian provinces the first mobilisation was carried out in late summer 1914. This was followed by several others. In addition there were regular yearly enlistments each autumn. In the course of war, about 100,000 men were recruited to

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the Russian Army from the Estonian territory, not only Estonians but also Baltic Germans and Russians. One tenth of them were killed in action or reported missing. But it also has to be said that the exact number is actually not known because the information has not been easy to gather and some documents are not even preserved.

Archival sources contain more information about officers, especially of those who also fought in following Estonian Independence War (1918-1920). Information about the ordinary soldiers who were mobilised as reservists or militiamen from Estonian or Northern-Livonian province is quite scarce and can be found only by chance in the local communities and towns records because communities needed to keep an account on the families of soldiers who were mobilised.

Fortunately there is more information about yearly conscriptions. We have archival fonds of province and county level Conscription Committees that reveal personal data about all men at age 21 when they became age of military service, but also show which ones of them were actually taken into service. Still the information about a certain conscript is difficult to find because you should know the community where conscript was in tax payers list and exact year of enlistment. It is unreasonably time consuming to work with these materials. At the same time there is interest in society to know more about predecessors who fought in First World War or to know more about the topic Estonians in the war.

To overcome the problem that information is scattered, we launched in the end of November 2014 our first crowdsourcing project “Estonians in First World War” (http://www.ra.ee/ilmasoda/). We developed web environment and database, made available in digitized form first 186 records and designed input form. All voluntary citizens are welcomed to enter the conscripts’ and soldiers’ names from digitised documents into database to make them easily searchable. Feedback has been positive. Today, by mid-March 2015 already more than 19 000 names are entered by 68 volunteers. It does not mean though that we have discovered almost fifth of soldiers who participated in the war from Estonian territory. Some men are entered twice because they occur in different documents or some have been conscripts but not taken into army.

We are sure this is only beginning and hope that by 2018 we have full list of Estonians who fought in this war. To achieve this goal and overcome the problem that not all records have been preserved or available in our archives, we also invite everyone to add information they have about some relative who participated and also share with archives diaries and letters so that we could help to make these available to everyone interested. Of course we will also add new documents to be indexed – service records that have been sent to local Conscription Committees in relation to illness or death of the soldier and others.

One group of documents that will be added to crowdsourcing project are service lists of
soldiers that were assembled into Estonian national units in 1917. Until the war Estonians, as also representatives of other national minorities in Russian Empire, were distributed between different regiments. After the February Revolution in 1917 it was allowed to form national regiments which gave opportunity to assemble Estonian soldiers home from Russia. By the end of the year four infantry regiments, a rear battalion, an engineer company and an artillery brigade had been formed. Records of national units are preserved in National Archives of Estonia as several separate fonds.

Among them is fond of 1st Estonian regiment that includes also information about German landing at Saaremaa island in autumn 1917. The operation Albion, as it was called, began on 12 October. This was the moment when actual war activities reached Estonian soil. German troops invaded West-Estonian islands. About 22,000 men from Russian army were gathered on the islands by then, including two battalions of the 1st Estonian regiment. For example there is a list of German troops based on information gathered from POWs.

Our collection also includes about 2500 photos depicting actual war activities – action on the front, battles, war technology, soldiers, generals etc.; but also everyday life in Estonia during the war. Photo collection is almost entirely made available on the website of European Film Gateway (http://www.europeanfilmgateway.eu/) but also in our own photo database FOTIS (www.ra.ee/fotis).

Everyday life in Estonia, as in everywhere else, was considerably changed by the war. Prices rose, money gradually lost its value and the black market bloomed. In addition there was a shortage of the most important commodities like salt, sugar, flour for which end a ration card system was introduced. Also raw material and fuel crisis was remarkable. Many different governmental and local committees were formed to cope with shortages in industry and food supply. A considerable portion of working-age men were mobilised and therefore farmlands remained untilled. Thus refugees and soldiers were organized to work in farms and manors for small wages. Men not suitable for active service in army were obliged to work for the army – to secure fortifications and dig trenches. The requisition of horses and cattle was a serious blow to agriculture.

Many interesting documents on mentioned topics can be found in local communities’ and towns’ archival fonds, in records of police agencies or in separate archival fonds of special committees.

To encourage historians and genealogists to be engaged with documents from the period of war we have digitised ca 3000 records from this period. Materials can be found via Archives Information System AIS (ais.ra.ee). So it is possible to research topics related to First World War even without visiting the reading room on site.
Soldiers of Imperial Russian Army on Eastern Front (Russian-German Front) of First World War backing bread outdoors

Photo: Estonian volunteer soldier A. Funk.

National Archives of Estonia
EFA, 231.0.58380

Production of shrapnel plant of Russian-Baltic Shipyard in Tallinn

29 July 1916

National Archives of Estonia
EFA, 285.0.60608
In contrast with other European powers such as the United Kingdom, France, or Spain, Germany did start showing interest in Morocco until quite lately. It was only in 1873 that Germany, under the impulse of local businesses, opened a diplomatic representation in Tangiers. Since then, Germany’s interest in Morocco continuously grew. This was demonstrated by the emergence of many German companies in the country, both in coastal cities as well as inland. Business interests being intimately connected with politics, Kaiser Wilhelm II made a vibrant visit to Tangiers on March 31st, 1905. This highly symbolic diplomatic move resulted in the signature of the Algeciras Act in 1906 which attributed to Morocco the status of “Open Door” and gave to signatory powers equal chances to access the Moroccan market while preserving the country’s political independence.

Nonetheless, Morocco’s political independence was not to last very long. On March 1912, the Treaty of Fez turned the country into a French Protectorate – France shortly after ceded part of the country to Spain. These developments did not receive Germany’s blessings. Until the Great War, the latter constantly attempted to undermine French interests in Morocco through diverse means. To illustrate, it is worth recalling the Agadir Crisis in 1911 and the support that Germans provided to El Hiba’s rebellion against France in south of Morocco.

Therefore, with the outbreak of the Great War in August 1914, the French quickly worked on undermining German and their Austro-Hungarian allies’ interests in Morocco. Since September 1914, the French Résidence Générale (French Colonial Government) issued a dahir (royal decree) enabling to seize all the goods belonging to German and Austro-Hungarian nationals. On November 10, 1914, another dahir prohibited any form of business with Germany and Austro-Hungary. Other dahirs followed the same spirit. However, the most important one was that of September 29, 1914, which stated the following:

“Considering that the interests of many revendiquants and potential creditors will be prejudiced as a result of legal effects caused by the state of war between France on the one hand, Germany and Austria-Hungary on the other hand; should elements of value found in the possession of nationals of those two powers were not taken:

* Director- Archives of Morocco
Article One: Will be immediately sequestered the real and personal property of
any kind, including mines and quarries owned by German and Austro-Hungarian subjects
in effect from the day that the capitulations enjoyed by their respective governments were
abolished”2.

It is worth mentioning that in order to seize German and Austro-Hungarian goods, the
French preferred to proceed through a Sultanic *dahir* – of which they were the actual authors-
in order to pretend to be respectful of the Treaty establishing the Moroccan Protectorate,
as the latter did not abolish some of the Sultan’s and the Makhzen’s prerogatives. This also
allowed the *Résidence Générale* to avoid seizing goods through a decision of Justice.

Yet, is there any better evidence other than archives to attack the interests of enemy
powers? Thus Protectorate authorities seized large quantities of archives of different kind,
owned by German and Austro-Hungarian nationals as well as their Moroccan *protégés*.

It would take much more than the draft I am sketching here to accurately assess the
volume, nature, and importance of these archives. Unfortunately, I could only say few words
about what is left today in the stores of *Archives du Maroc*. I say “what is left” because,
according to the French expert in Moroccan-German relations Pierre Guillen, “as the detailed
inventory preserved in the Archives of Rabat reveals, these archives were of great affluence.
Unfortunately, a large part of these documents were lost. Some were given back after the First
World War to the former owners of the businesses to their heirs, but many were destroyed.
What remains in the shelves of the Archives of Rabat is a vulnerable collection: the documents
are not categorized; they were left between the two World Wars in a shed and suffered from
bad weather and various forms of degradation. Many pieces today are almost impossible to
read.”

Pierre Guillen’s remarks, which he made on the basis of a survey conducted in the
mid-sixties - before writing his doctoral thesis on the Moroccan-German relations from 1870
to 1905 - is fairly accurate. But I would add that the situation has actually worsened during
the period ranging from the mid-1960s till this collection was taken care of by *Archives du
Maroc* in 2011. The physical state of some of these archives is very bad. Some documents
were probably lost in addition to those referred by Pierre Guillen. Even the inventory he
mentioned is impossible to find -- which would have been of great help to know what is left
and what is lost.

In order to put an end to this troubling situation, we have taken the opportunity of the
celebration of the Great War Centenary to start an inventory of approximately 170 linear
meters of “sequesters of the War” available in *Archives du Maroc*. We have already taken
some elements for an exhibition to make these archives known to researchers and the general

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2 Official Bulletin of the Protectorate, Rabat, October 5, 1914.
GERMAN ARCHIVES UNDER SEQUESTRATION IN MOROCCO DURING WWI (1914-1918)

The inventory and exhibition constitute means to promote transparency and ensure their sustainability.

If the volume of these archives is no more than 170 linear meters, their content is quite varied and is in several languages: German, French, Arabic and Hebrew. Basically, these are traders and German business’ archives that operated in Morocco until 1914. They include 649 accounting records, 291 books of correspondence copies, inventories, etc. These documents belonged to various traders and businesses: Mannesmann Cie, Richter, Carl Ficke, Paul Schiller, Zimmerman, Heinrich Brandt Und Toel, Carl Kalkoff, etc. These are nearly fifty companies whose records reflect a shared history between Germany and Morocco. The areas of activities of these businesses include mining, import / export of all kinds of goods, etc. and cover a period spanning from 1885 to 1914. As for the geographical area of their activities, it essentially covers: Rabat, Casablanca, Mazagan, Mogador, Safi, Marrakech, Tangiers and Ceuta.

Besides the sequestered archives, there is also an additional collection constituted of the archives of the General Gérance of the German and Austro-Hungarian sequester, of about 968 bundles covering the period 1914-1931. Their management was categorized by cities from the sequestered archives: Tangiers, Casablanca, etc.

Thus, the story of the Great War in Morocco generated an important collection of archives that reflects not only the French occupation authorities’ management of this war in newly conquered Morocco, but it also enables to reconstruct the history of an intense German activity from 1885 to 1914, in a country that was the subject of much envy.

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3 Carl Ficke has been executed in Casablanca by French Army on January 28, 1915.
Dahir on the sequestration of the properties of German and Austrian subjects
30 September 1914
Archives of Morocco
FROM AUTONOMOUS GRAND DUCHY TO A SOVEREIGN STATE
FINLAND GAINS INDEPENDENCE IN THE SHADOW OF
THE FIRST WORLD WAR AND RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

Dr. Jussi NUORTEVA *

Excellencies, dear colleagues, invited guests, ladies and gentlemen

Finland is quite an odd exception in the history of the First World War. It was part of a
the Russian Empire, which was heavily involved in the warfare against Central Powers from
1914 until the Peace Treaty with Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey at Brest-
Litovsk on March 3 1918. The Russian casualties counted around 3 million dead and almost
5 million wounded militaries. However the number of casualties in Finland during the years
1914 to 1917 counted a total of only 1350 people with an annual loss of less than 400 people.
How was this possible in a war-faring empire? The explanation lies in the exceptional legal
and political status of the Grand Duchy.

Finland had been an integral part of the Kingdom of Sweden for more than six centuries
before it was conquered by Russian troops in a war in 1808 – 1809. Finland was then
incorporated in Russia as a Grand Duchy with wide ranging autonomy. The Swedish laws
remained as did also the Swedish language in administration. In the middle of 19th Century
also Finnish language was acknowledged an official status. Finland had its own legislative
body consisting of four Estates –Nobility, Burghers, Clergy – including also university and
school teachers – and Peasants. The country was governed by a Senate where the Russian
Governor-General was chairman but all the important and principal decisions on Finland were
however presented directly to the Emperor by a Finnish Minister State Secretary stationed in
St Petersburg.

Finland had institutions of its own. The currency used in the Grand Duchy since 1860
was Finnish mark and the state economy was controlled by an independent Bank of Finland.
Finland had its own legal system and administration. All the tax incomes came to the benefit
of the Grand Duchy and were allocated by the Senate. There was even a customs border
between Finland and Russia since 1812. A Russian Governor General represented the Empire
in Helsinki and was in charge of the Russian military forces in Finland. But there were only
very few Finnish military units. The strength of the Finnish military reached its peak in the

* General Director- National Archives of Finland
1880’s, when it was around 5 600 at highest. Only in a few cases Finnish troops were used in action during the period of autonomy.

Russian troops stationed in the Grand Duchy were responsible for the defense of the area. Their number was also quite low without exceptional times like the Crimean War when the British-French fleet operated at the coast of Finland. At the end of the 19th century the number of Russian troops was around 10 000. The atmosphere in the Grand Duchy was calm and the economy boosted thanks to the nearby capital of Russia, St Petersburg. Its population was almost the same as in the whole Grand Duchy and the Finnish border was only 40 kilometers away from the Center of the City.

The privileged position of Finland raised a lot of discussion in Russia. Since 1870’s there was a growing tendency to reduce the special rights and privileges of Finland. The tension grew especially in the 1890’s during a period that in Finnish political history is called the time of Russification. The changes were strongly opposed in Finland and the legal battle of Finland gained support also from Western European lawyers and intellectuals. In 1899 a Pan-European manifesto Pro Finlandia was addressed to the Emperor Nicholas II. It was signed by hundreds of representatives of culture and politics from all over Europe.

As the tensions grew in Finland the actions of the Russian administration grew accordingly. The political unrest led to abolishment of all the Finnish Army units. The well-known Finnish Military Academy was closed in 1903 and the last units lower their flags in 1905. When the First World War started nine years later, there were no Finnish troops left in the Russian Empire any more.

The poor defense capability in Finland caused a considerable threat to Russia. The Russian troops that were stationed in Finland were urgently needed on the battlegrounds against Germany. Unfortunately for the Russian Empire, the fresh troops did not reach in time the battles of Tannenberg and Mazuria in September 1914 where the Russian forces were badly defeated.

The German success on the Eastern front started intensive fortification works in the Grand Duchy of Finland already during autumn 1914. New artillery positions were built along the coastline and troops were moved from Russia to Finland. The number of Russian troops grew slowly but steadily and reached its peak in 1916, when the number was 52 000. However these troops were never used in action. Finland stayed out of war until the Russian October revolution and Finnish independence that was declared on 6th December 1917.

The stand by-situation in warfare gave Finland a possibility to strengthen its military capacity. More than two thousand Finnish volunteers joined the German army and fought since 1915 against Russian troops on the Baltic front. But on the other hand hundreds of Finnish volunteers had joined the Russian army and were fighting against the Central Power.
It should be mentioned that between the years 1812 and 1917 many Finnish officers made a career in the Imperial Russian Army. Out of them almost 500 reached the rank of General or Admiral. First World War was in this respect a war where a Finn was fighting against a Finn.

The independence of Finland was acknowledged by the Russian Bolshevik government on January 4th 1918 and by Swedish, French and German governments the same day. But the new sovereign state was internally divided. At the end of January a war broke out between the reds, supporting the Russian revolutionaries, and the whites fighting for the newly gained independence. The 27th Jägerbatallion that had been trained in Germany and had experience from the front – returned to Finland in February. Finnish government was also supported by Germany and the Baltic Division landed on the southern coast in April 1918 and conquered Helsinki within a couple of weeks.

The only war that was fought on the Finnish soil during the time of the First World War was a civil war. The number of casualties grew up to almost 40,000, out of whom 93% had died during the year 1918. But what was most important – the independence of the new Republic of Finland was generally acknowledged in the Peace Treaties of Versailles in 1919 and Tartu in 1920.

Ladies and Gentlemen, thank you for your kind attention!
Hetman Skoropadsky, Head of the briefly independent Ukrainian state, inspecting Ukrainian troops in Kiev in 1918.

Carl Gustaf Emil Mannerheim’s Archives in the National Archives of Finland [0036]
François Hollande, the President of the French Republic, has officially launched at the Elysée Palace the World War One commemoration program in November 2013.

Among the announced actions, the French President referred to the Great Memorial, created by the French Archives on their director Hervé Lemoine’s initiative. The French Archives have decided to respond to the memorial need of the French citizens by publishing online the military history of their nine millions ancestors who fought during the Great War.

This project is intended to touch most of the population, the millions of French people who want to know, beyond the great diplomatic and military History, the particular story of their ancestors on the battle field, in the barrack buildings or in the hospitals. Were they harmed or decorated? And, when it’s relevant, where did they die and where are they buried?

This way, the French Archives project is the less elitist and the most popular initiative among all th projects of the centenary in France.

This project can be achieved thanks to the remarkable richness of a particular type of military records, called « registres matricules ». In these big records each page gives information on one particular soldier: vital records, physical description, education, regiments, fights he was involved in, decorations, injuries, diseases and possible convictions. It’s a very important source to get to know one’s ancestors, far richer than what you can find at the registry office.

These records can’t be found at the national Archives in Paris. They are split in the one hundred departmental archives depositories. In order to find the records of one particular soldier, you have to go to the archives depository of the department where he used to live when he was recruited by the army when he was twenty years old. This means that you have to know where he was living when he was twenty and it’s not always easy hundred years later. And, if members of your family come from different parts of France, you have to search in several places.

Therefore, the Great Memorial was created in order to offer to the French citizens a centralized research tool that gives access to the records online. Furthermore, the original documents will be better preserved because people won’t touch them anymore. To achieved that, we have to digitize all the nine millions of personal pages and index them to create a massive database.

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The Great memorial was launched by the French President on the eleventh of November 2014 and already gives access to the records of twenty departments (www.culture.fr/Genealogie/Grand-Memorial). All the records will be online in 2018.

The indexation is very precise: you can use several criteria to make your research, like name and surname, place of birth, job or education. This tool gives the opportunity to make genealogical researches and also sociological and anthropological studies. The Great Memorial is very useful for teaching history of World War One at school. For example, pupils can study the story of all the soldiers of their village or city.

The Great Memorial is a part of a larger memorial program initiated by the French Archives and all the French archives depositories: this program is composed of hundreds of exhibitions, colloquia, conferences and publications. The central services of the French Archives have published a research guidebook on World War One. They also coordinated a massive operation of private archives gathering with the National Library. This program, called « la Grande Collecte » (the great gathering), has also been given a website (www.lagrandecollecte.fr). The same day, all across France, the archives depositories welcome people who want to give their family archives on World War One: photographs, letters, not books or drawings. These archives will be therefore forever preserved. This operation has already been made two times before. Each time it was a huge success.

French Archives have created a long term commemorative program that goes beyond the simple cultural event. Besides, this program is really made for everybody. The Great Gatherin is enriching public archives depositories with records of everyday life of common people. The Great Memorial gives access in three clicks to the military history of our ancestors and, thanks to digitization, the fragile documents are preserved forever.
ARCHIVES IN FRANCE IN 2015

Odile Welfelé *

Organization of French Public Archives: a strong and ancient tradition

Archives and French Revolution

The National Archives were born in 1790, during the French Revolution.

At first considered as the archive of the new National constituent assembly, they become by the law of the 25th June 1794 the warehouse of all the state archives and have in charge all the documents, seized as public goods, produced by the administrations and organizations of the former monarchy.

This law sets three new principles: centralizing the Nation’s archives; establishing their publicity, as opposed to the former practice of State secret; creating a national network of archives.

In 1808, National archives set up in the hôtel de Soubise, a former aristocratic town house, in the historical heart of Paris, where they are still located.

The unification in the 19th and XXth centuries: creation of a single direction; legislative and reglementary measures

In 1897 the Department of Archives is created and becomes in 1936 Direction des archives de France, which heads all the departmental, regional, municipal and hospital archives of the country. In 1959 the Ministry of Culture is created, to which are linked the Archives of France.

After the Second World War, the archives have a period of expansion: construction of numerous buildings of archives; production of an extensive reglementation about working, selection, norms of classifying; organization of a preliminary archiving for administrative archives, whose mass is exploding.

A new and fundamental law on archives, the 3rd January 1979, is promulgated:

This law, and the application decrees, give an official definition of archives and their three ages: current, intermediate (still useful but not on an everyday basis) and definitive/historical archives.

The law organizes the cooperation with administrations producing documents. It establishes new rules of communicability: 30, 60, 100, 120 years according to the typology of documents, with a possible access through a procedure of special dispensation, subject to the agreement of the producer.

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*Policy Officer for International Cooperation- Archives of France
The law on archives of 2008

So as to take the changes of society into account, a new law on archives, promulgated the 15th July 2008, gives an important reform to the system of archives: a significant reduction of delays of communicability of archives; an reinforcement of sanctions in case of non-observance of the legislation; the possibility, subject to conditions, of outsourcing public archives with private service providers; the pooling of archives of associated collectivities.

Increased Interministerial Management

The Archives in France now include:

The Interdepartmental Service of Archives of France (Service Interministériel des Archives de France/SIAF), which conceives, supports, harmonizes and controls the national policy for archives, within the General Direction of Heritages (direction générale des patrimoines) of the Ministry of Culture. It runs the meetings and workshops of the Interdepartmental Committee on Archives of France (comité interministériel aux archives de France), linked to the Prime Minister.

The three services of National Archives (420 linear kilometres/kml of archives, 11500 readers and 1320 000 online connections per year): in Paris, National Archives (Paris, Pierrefitte-sur-Seine and Fontainebleau), for archives of organisations whose purpose is national; in Aix-en-Provence, National Overseas Archives (archives nationales d’Outre-Mer), for the archives of the former French colonial Empire; in Roubaix, National Archives of the World of Work (archives nationales du monde du travail), for collections related to industries, trades, federations of employers and of workers, associations etc.

A network of archives in 22 regions, 103 départements, and numerous cities, universities and hospitals, which are run by local authorities (4200 trained professional Archivists, of which 270 State Public Archivists). 3400 kml of records are kept in all those different centers.

The interdepartmental service of Archives of France keeps a mission of scientific and technical monitoring towards these territorial services and the way they gather, select, eliminate current and intermediate archives, just as classifying, preserving and communicating archives. It can also fulfil this mission towards some administrations running their archives by themselves: hospitals, chambers of commerce and industry, public administrative establishments, public scientific and technical establishments.

New Buildings By famous Architects

Follow-up to constructions

The Interdepartmental Service of Archives of France supports territorial archives so as to help, with subsidies, local authorities when they acquire private archives, when they digitize or restore documents, and above all when they build or extend archives buildings.
The buildings projects are followed closely: validating preliminary studies and choice of site, taking part in the jury of naming of the architect, technical advice all along the building, with visits on the spot. Recent buildings were designed by famous architects, Massimiliano Fuksas for Pierrefitte-sur-Seine, Zaha Hadid for the Hérault Departemental Archives Center, Rudi Ricciotti for the Seine-Maritime Departemental Archives Center.

The archives body of the Heritage Inspectorate Service provides some of the exchanges with the local network and inspects regularly the archives, and meets on these occasions the persons in charge.

**Electronic Records Management Systems**

**Electronic Records Management Systems for State Central Administrations**

**VITAM Project** (*Valeurs Immatérielles Transférées aux Archives pour Mémoire/Intangible Values Transfered to Archives for Memory*) is an Interministerial Project coordinated by the Ministry of the Culture and the Foreign Affairs Ministry with the scientific collaboration of the Ministry of Defence (Direction for History, Heritage and Archives).

Its purpose is to develop an open-source software to take charge of the data and files created and received by State Administration, to secure their preservation and communication.

The **DiAMAN** (*Dispositif d’accompagnement des missions pour l’archivage numérique*) project is a Follow-up Device for Archivists working in State Administrations on digitized archival systems in connection with the VITAM Project.

The **ADAMANT project** (*Administration des Archives et de leurs Métadonnées aux Archives Nationales dans le Temps/Overtime Management of Archives and Metadata of the National Archives*) is an equivalent Follow-up Device for the National Archives.

**Electronic records management systems for Territorial Authorities**

The **AD-ESSOR project** (*Archives départementales/Departemental Archives*) aims to boost and ensure a systematic implementation of electronic archiving system in territorial authorities archives. AD-Essor offers support by launching calls for national projects. The first one at the beginning of 2014 has accepted 24 projects from Departemental Archives IT Departements and municipalities. AD-Essor Team organizes regular meetings with these projects teams.

**Norms and Standards developed by the The Interdepartmental Service of Archives of France**

From SEDA (*Standard d’échange de données pour l’archivage/Standardized Data Exchange for Archiving*) to the Norm MEDONA (*Modélisation des Echanges de DONnées pour l’archivage*) NF Z44-02, we are now developing an ISO norm.
The Norm NF Z40-350 is about outsourced records management.

Archives and social media

Public’s new expectations

New practices and new expectations are increasing in users: the public wants to take action to the full without moving around: they want extremely fast answers to their questions and don’t want to pass through complex formalities and procedures any more to get what they want.

Archivists must adapt because the job they practise is deeply evolving. Implementing web sites, digitizing archives and research instruments, developing didactic and cultural activities online are the first answers given by the archives, but we must go further, in future, so as to fit the mutations brought by the constant technological progresses.

Maintenance of traditional devices

Historical research: The interdepartmental service of archives develop research and exploitation activities, based on resources in départements and in regions, so as to present and highlight research projects and actions, at national, european and international level.

Educational services: They offer free to young pupils visits of Archives, thematic sessions on the use of documents, calligraphy, molding, cultural routes, open doors days (often on the occasion of European Days for patrimony, yearly). Meeting pupils can also take place in schools thanks to mobile exhibitions in « archivobus » (Buses presenting archives).

Exhibitions: The number of exhibitions increased five-fold since 1980s. It stabilized since the beginning of the 2000s with 450 exhibitions yearly organized by the archives services.

Visits, conferences, colloquia, training courses and work sessions related to archivistic activity supplement this offer. New activities as archives readings, artists’ workshops and residences, shows, are organized, in collaboration with other cultural and artistic disciplines.

Services make a particular effort to come nearer to new publics, not much concerned by culture, specially disabled, incarcerated, hospitalized, old people, or people being in social or economical troubles.

Internet, a real priority

The public services of archives have, for most of them, a website in which they can put on line informations (useful informations, virtual exhibitions, cultural and didactic activities). They all consider as a priority objective to give research instruments and documents on line.

Several Archives Services use Facebook, Twitter, Pinterest, Flickr, Storify to document and promote their work.
**Digitizing and putting documents on line**

Digitizing keeps the most frequently consulted series from degradation due to readers and makes access and consultation easier.

The operations of digitization mainly concern images (photographs, postcards, etc.); cadastral maps; registers (parish registers, register of births, marriages and deaths, ten-years tables; population census, notary records, military rolls, registers of proceedings of town council) ; local press.

At central level just as local level, priority goes to images and to the documents which match with a great social request (files of Legion of Honour, registry office). These projects are very various and can concern up to sound recordings (accounts of former deportees, accounts about the beginnings of welfare system, about football clubs, traditional musics, proceedings of general council, local radio broadcast, etc.).

With Web 2.0, the internet user becomes not only a consumer but also a creator of resources. Therefore, archives get involved into a new way, offering more interaction with digitized documents, for example collaborative indexing: voluntary readers finely index digitized documents by themselves, so as to make them more accessible.

**Putting research instruments on line**

They are on line in an electronic format, generally XML, structured and searchable, following DTD EAD (Encoded Archival Description).

The website National archives of Pierrefitte-sur-Seine offers virtual inventories room. All the research instrument are searchable on ligne, with a system which will allow the researcher to access directly to reservation of documents, from the research instrument.

**International cooperation**

Archives of France lead an international action on scientific and technical cooperation which is part of the international policy of the Culture and Communication Ministry. This policy is proactive (launching projects) and reactive (meeting needs).

The key aspects of this cooperation are: training sessions for foreign professionals: cultural expertise abroad; internet portals and websites for everyone; Shared Memory Programs of common historical pasts by digitization of documents. Francophony is a major axis of this action.

Within the framework of international cooperation, Archives of France organize two programs of professional formation, intended for archivists from the entire world.

The first one (*Stage technique international d’archives*) is addressed to young or beginner archivists and is in French only. During five weeks, the participants will discover
the French Archival methods, visit some institutions and exchange with their colleagues. This International Training Course is conducted with the team of the International Archivistic Francophone Portal (the PIAF/Portail International Archivistique Francophone) which offers free archival training on the web for French-speaking or French-learning Archivists.

The second one is an International Masterclass on Archives (Conférence internationale supérieure des archives/CISA) welcomes qualified colleagues, who hold in their countries management positions.

From 2011, Archives of France, with the Direction of scientific and technical formation of the General Direction of Heritages and the House of World Culture (UNESCO), presents a new offer to exchange experiences and views. During five days in Paris, they will speak and learn about currents subjects of interest, meet French and Foreign speakers and visit Archives centers. This Conference is ruled by two principles: a common geographical area and two languages (French translated to Spanish, English, Russian, etc).

In conclusion, since they were established and organized the Archives of France are permanently adapting rules and regulations, adjusting preservation technics, creating and developing norms and tools for the benefit of the professionals, the historians and the citizens and to ensure the best access to this essential heritage.
GÜNEY AFRIKA / SOUTH AFRICA

THE LEGACIES OF DELVILLE WOOD: CHANGING PERCEPTIONS OF SOUTH AFRICA’S ROLE IN THE BATTLE AND ITS IMPACT ON SOUTH AFRICA’S IMAGE INTERNATIONALLY OVER THE PAST CENTURY

Lufuno Jean Pierre MULAUDZI *

This paper aims to unpack the legacies of the Delville Wood and also look at the changing perceptions it gave to South Africa’s role in the battle. It will also interrogate the impact of Delville Wood on South Africa’s image internationally over the past century. Delville Wood was viewed by many in apartheid South Africa as the supreme symbol of South Africa’s sacrifice, courage, resilience and it presented an opportunity for unity in the Union of South Africa which has only been in existence for only four years before the outbreak of the First World War. The Great War as the First World War was widely known started in 1914 and it came only twelve years after the Anglo – Boer War of 1899 – 1902.

The Anglo – Boer war was a war in which the British fought the Boers,¹ in essence it was a South African war. The war brought economic and political problems on South Africa and it was eventually ended with the signing of the Peace Treaty of Vereeniging. The Treaty did not resolve all outstanding problems in South Africa. In contrast it presented more problems than solutions to the country social, political and economic problems. It failed to end the animosity which existed before the war between the Dutch² and the British.³ The black population in South Africa which forms majority of the country population remained marginalized and therefore they were left out of the Treaty of Vereeniging settlement. The exclusion of blacks in the settlement led to the formation of ANC in 1912 and PAC and AZAPO in the later years to take on the white supremacy.

The animosity of South Africans towards the British was understandable because the Boers lost 22 000 women, children and elderly and the blacks lost an equivalent number in British Concentration Camps. It was not a surprise that some section of the South African population more so the Afrikaans speakers wanted to join the first World War on the side of Germany and while the English speakers were in favour of fighting under their country of origin Britain. The blacks’ choice was regarded as peripherals as they did not have much say

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¹ Principal Archivist - National Archives and Records Service of South Africa
² Boer is another name for white South Africans who speaks Afrikaans language.
³ Dutch refer to white South Africans of Dutch descent.
in their own country. A consensus was reached by former sworn enemies in the South African war to fight along each other on the side of the Allied forces under the British.

Going into the First World War, South African forces had experience of being in war situations in the Anglo – Boer War, South West Africa war with the Germans and the war in Egypt against the Senusit tribe. It is imperative to highlight that all those wars were nothing compared to the Great War in the world and the experience attained there cannot come close to the looming experience come up against the world best. More so the prospect of facing the might of the Germans who were regarded as the Allied forces enemy number one. One cannot dispute the fact that these wars did prepare South African forces well for the Great War. Victories in South West Africa and Egypt granted the South Africans hope that they can hold their own against the world best.

**South Africa Prepares for the Great War in 1915**

The first step taken by South Africa to prepare for war was done at Potchefstroom and Transvaal in August and September 1915. The brigade which was made of four battalions was recruited for service in the First World War. The intention was to make the battalions as representative as possible and they were divided into four battalions namely: 1st SAI made of soldiers from the Cape of Good Hope; 2nd SAI made of soldiers from Natal, Border and the Orange Free State; 3rd SAI made of soldiers from Transvaal and Rhodesia; lastly but not the least the 4th SAI made of soldiers from the South African Scottish. The first three battalions were a true representative of all South African provinces. The fourth was a combination of the Transvaal Scottish, the Cape Highlanders and the various Caledonian societies in the country. Notable by their absent in the four battalions were the black South Africans. As stated earlier in this paragraph the aim of the South African Union was to make the battalions as representative as possible. However the omission of the black South Africans in the battalions painted a different picture of a country which was still divided on racial grounds. Therefore it will be factual to argue that the four battalions were not a true reflection of South Africa as a country.

The man assigned to command the 1st South African Infantry Brigade was Brigadier-General Henry Timson Lukin CMG DSO who was aged 55 when the brigade was formed. Brigadier-General Lukin was alleged to be a seasoned war veteran who had been in service for South Africa in past battles in a career that has gone for the past 35 years. All the four battalions were under the command of English men and it cannot be a surprise that no Afrikaans speaker was appointed as a commander of one of the four battalions. The only assumption one can make about the choices of commanders could be the earlier reluctance by the Boers to fight on the side of the British. Another reason cited was that the all English Commanders was due to the fact that there were few Boers in the battalions. The Afrikaans
proportion had increased before the end of the war from 15 to 30 percent.\textsuperscript{5}

\textbf{1\textsuperscript{st} South African Infantry Brigade in Egypt}

For South Africa the First World War presented the first opportunity of the Infantry to get involved in a combat outside the African soil. The only challenge of note that came to South Africa before the First World War came in Egypt where the 1\textsuperscript{st} SAI, 2\textsuperscript{nd} SAI and 3\textsuperscript{rd} SAI were sent to Mex Camp, Alexandria on 11 January 1916. This was after the British withdrew their regular army regiments to fight on the Western Front and to keep the Suez Canal safe after threats from Turkey; they had to replace their army with the Indian Army units. The threats came after the Sultan of Turkey, the religious head of most of the Moslem world declared a holy war or Jihad against France and Britain on 11 November 1914. Egypt was theoretically a province of Turkish Ottoman Empire, this was despite the presence of British troops there since the 1880s.\textsuperscript{6}

The call by the Sultan was only heeded by the Senussi in the Western Desert, this was a religious order founded in 1837. Initially it was not clear whether the Senussi would side with Britain or Turkey, however by April 2015 the influence of Turkey became massive in the area with more money and arms being sent to the Senussi. The Senussi force numbered around 5000 by autumn armed with machine-guns and ten-pounder mountain artillery pieces and they were trained by Turkish officers. The South African forces were asked to leave their training base in Britain to go and fight the Senussi tribe in Egypt. This happened after the Grand Senussi, Sayyid Ahmed was persuaded by Turkey to invade Egypt because there was starvation in the Senussi land as a result of crop failure and the British blockade. The British were launching attacks at the Sayyid’s forces from Mersa Matruh.\textsuperscript{7}

After some futile attacks on the Senussi tribe the British realized that reinforcement is needed to defeat the resilient Senussi forces. It was on 21 January 1916 when the 2\textsuperscript{nd} SAI arrived in Marsa Matruth under Lt-Col. W E Tanner. This was to heed the call by the British to assist in war against the Senussi. On the arrival at Mersa Matruth the 2\textsuperscript{nd} SAI was forced to make immediate move against the enemy. This information came out of the letter of the Rev H. Harries, chaplain of the 2\textsuperscript{nd} SAI.

The 2\textsuperscript{nd} SAI had no period of formal desert training in the hills and sand dunes west

of Alexandria. However this did not serve as a deterrent to the 2nd SAI because they were a brigade of determined men who possess quality which cannot be matched by many forces around the world. They aquatinted themselves well to the conditions in the desert. The brigade which includes the 2nd SAI was divided into two groups and it represented the whole of British Empire. The 2nd SAI reinforced the first group and they were under the command of Lt-Col JLR Gordon.

2nd SAI fought in difficult desert conditions and despite the odds stake highly against them they were able to defeat the enemy. In every war there are casualties and the dead on both sides of the warring parties. In this case South African forces main victim of the war was Capt J Walsh and others like Frank Mariller had the baptism of fire in the desert. The war with the Senussi brought a lot of shocking experience for the South Africans in the war. Some of the things they encountered in the desert, they had never seen in their past combats in South Africa and other parts of the Africa like German South-West Africa. The Senussi stripped dead soldiers of the British Empire naked and loot everything they had with them and some of the dead soldiers were cut to pieces. This was the most horrible and cruel thing ever seen by South Africans. The war in the desert was finally ended when the Senussi General and Turkish Commander Gaafer Pasha and his staff were taken prisoners of war by Colonel Souter who was with the 1st SAI and 3rd SAI.

The war against the Senussi tribe backed by Turkey was not only a war against the Arabs and Turkey but it was war against Germany as well. This is true in the sense that Germany had aspiration of using Arabs and Bedouins to secure a foothold in Egypt. Germany aspirations were completely dashed when South African Brigade had within days of the capture of Gaafer Pasha went on to occupy Sidi Barrani and Sollum without any resistance. South Africa lost 14 men and 103 men were wounded by the end of the desert war.

The war at Halazin in Egypt against the Senussi tribe will be remembered in the history books as the baptism of fire for South African forces and it will also be remembered as a dress rehearsal for the First World War for the 1st South African Infantry Brigade. The war at Halazin demonstrated that South African forces were ready to take their place in the world stage of combat and it also highlighted the strength and courage of the South African forces. It also shows the whole world that South Africa was ready to take on the world best in the First World War.

After the mission in Egypt was successful and complete, Brigadier Lukin and his South

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10 Ibid
11 Ibid.
African Infantry Brigade were transferred to France for the real war. All men in the 1st South African Infantry Brigade were all ready for the combat in France. All that was in the minds of South Africans was to represent their country and the British Empire King with pride. They were ready to fight to death for their mother land. The spirit and courage possessed by South African was amazing taking into consideration that the France adventure was the first by South Africans on the Western Front. Their dreams of fighting in the First World War were nearly dashed immediately after the assignment in Egypt. There were speculations that negotiations were going on to send the 1st South African Infantry Brigade to East Africa for service in the theatre of war. It came as a relief to South African men when it never happened and they were finally sent to France to be confronted by what turns out to be war of their lives at Delville Wood.

1st South African Infantry Brigade in France

The South African Brigade arrived in Marseilles in France and they were attached to 9th (Scottish) Division and they replaced the 28th Brigade which suffered heavy losses at the battle of Loos in September 1915. At first 28th Brigade men felt aggrieved by the decision to replace them with South African Brigade. The Scots attitude soon changed when they realized that many Afrikaners in the Brigade didn’t speak English well and they were outstanding marksmen, they soon welcomed and accepted them as true Scotsmen. This was very ironic in the sense that the Scots cannot understand a word in Afrikaans but yet they managed to embrace the Afrikaners as one of their own.

They were more important reasons to the easy integration of South African Brigade in the 9th (Scottish) Brigade than their failure to express themselves well in English. The main reason cited were the high state of efficiency and discipline of the 1st South African Infantry. This is the account of the former officer in the Brigade giving the reasons why they were soon welcomed. The discipline and efficiency of the 1st South African Infantry Brigade soon become well known throughout the British Front, and in trenches and billets. Their conduct and bearing were equal to any of the famous line regiments. South African Brigade was confronted with a different warfare to the one they were used to. They were used to mobile warfare in open country but on the Western Front they were confronted with static conditions, totally foreign to their fighting strategy. They were not used to fighting in trenches and underground warfare. Despite the alien conditions in the war in France, South African Brigades were ready after some orientations on the mode of fighting in the Western Front.

13 Ibid.
14 Ibid.
15 Ibid.
Hell in the Wood

South Africa Brigade adventure in Delville Wood was a continuation of the other combats they had since their arrival in France. To many in the 1st South African Infantry Brigade, Delville Wood was going to be like Somme, Bernafay Wood, Trones Wood and Longueval. However they soon realized that Delville Wood would be a very difficult proposition for them. Private Eddie Fitz who was with 2nd SAI in Bernafay Wood wrote that, Bernafay Wood was the Brigade first experience of really terrific bombardment.\textsuperscript{16}

Going to Delville Wood, SA Brigade had already suffered nearly 1000 casualties and this was regarded as a failure by 22 000 men who were about to venture into the unknown in Delville Wood. When the attack on Delville Wood started on 14 July 1916, the South African Brigade was left out. The reason given was that the Brigade had less experience of fighting in trenches and it was an accepted norm not to put unseasoned troops in the forefront in a war. The initial plan of the British force for 14 July was to have the 26th and 27th Brigades of the 9th Division which the 1st South African Infantry Brigade forms part of, to seize Longueval and then Delville Wood. The S.A Brigade was on standby for mopping up operations. The attack on Longueval at the dawn on 14 July was a success but it was met with some stiff resistance from the captured Germans.

The resistance was to follow the instructions to the letter from their Commander-in-Chief General Erich Von Falkenhayn. They were told not to yield an inch and the enemy must not be allowed to advance except over their dead bodies. The definite instruction from Von Falkenhayn was being followed to the letter as a small German detachment captured by Highlanders of the 9th Division declined the offer to surrender. Their senior officer told the Highlanders that they have orders to defend their position with their own lives.\textsuperscript{17}

It is very rare to find people ready to die in defense of their country. The Germans appreciated the offer to surrender but they told the Highlanders that they die where they stand and they did exactly that. They know that if they had surrendered, they were going to be shot in their back by their fellow Germans. The fact of the matter is the Germans had no choice but to follow the instructions of the Commander in Chief. The prospect of being killed by the enemy in cages was not what they can live with. It is not that had they surrendered they would have been killed after being captured as prisoners of war. The German obedience shocked privates JA Lawson and Breytenbach of 3rd SAI.


The Longueval battle moved from hand to hand fighting to house to house fighting. By afternoon of the first day, 14 July Longueval still remained untaken in its entirety and this development delayed the attack on Delville Wood. This was making it difficult for the British Forces because unless Longueval is captured there won’t be any attack at Delville Wood. Heavy defeats suffered by the Highlanders of the 26th and 27th Brigades of the 9th Division in the street fighting called for reinforcement within the village. This brought the South African Brigade into the fray because as a reserve for the 9th Division they were likely reinforcement from outside the village. Later on the South African Brigade after some short period in Longueval was called upon, first to take and then hold the Delville Wood at all cost. This instruction was clear that the Brigade must capture and defend the area with their lives.

Delville was to turn out to be a test of character and a symbol of courage and tenacity for South African Brigade. This was in contrast to the perception by many in the British forces that South Africa Brigade is inexperienced. It sounded like a real baptism of fire for the Brigade who was about to face what was known as the German flower, Delville Wood presented South Africa with the most difficult experience in the battle front. South Africa Brigade was confronted with intense shelling when they arrived at Delville Wood. By midday on 15th July 1916 the Brigade had cleared Delville Wood and reached the perimeter in every sector, except the North-West corner of the Wood. The South Africans were given instructions to dig themselves in. This was easier said than done but the reality was it was not going to be easy. The soil there was very chalky matted with roots and tangled with branches and the spade found it hard to penetrate. What also complicated the situation was the machine gun and rifle fire less than seventy yards away coming from the German intermediate trenches, continued counter attacks from the German at the battalion halted the digging of trenches.

This was difficult conditions for the Brigade and they were left with no choice but to find cover in the abandoned German trenches. This action was tantamount to committing suicide because the German artillery knows the exact location of those trenches. On 16 July 1916 the Brigade was able to dig their trenches successfully. South Africa Brigade had suffered a number of casualties a night before after the German attacked them. Many young men died and there were many wounded amongst the Germans.

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19 Ibid.
The Germans determination to keep Delville Wood was apparent with their intentions to blast the South Africans out of Delville Wood. To South Africans it was like the Germans have brought all the available guns from the whole Western Front. The Germans attacked Delville Wood three times with great determination and each attack was proceeded by artillery fire coming from different direction. South Africans fought back with rifles and machine guns fire. The Germany shells were problematic for the South Africans. Below is the account of one of the SA Brigade member who wrote that:

*Before attacking they sent over tear shells, which blind your eyes with tears, tears streaming down your face. The pain is awful. One can hardly breathe, and there is a terrible burning in the nose, throat and lungs. The idea is to interfere with one's shooting, since one cannot see the sights on the rifle in front of one's face.*

This account by a South African soldier about their ordeal in Delville Wood showed that it was real hell for the 1st SA Infantry Brigade. Fighting the enemy with your vision totally restricted by the continuous shelling was not something the South African soldiers expected when they were so determined to choose war in the Western Front than an easy combat in East Africa. The German shelling of Delville Wood continued in earnest on 6 July 1916. It coincided with the morning the ‘B’ and ‘C’ Companies of the 4th SAI moved into the Wood commanded by Major Hunt. The war became too intense as the bombardment from the Germans increased and the ground behind and before the South Africans became littered with shell holes. The shells uprooted large trees and bushes and small trees were torn. With twenty four hours of shelling, hundreds of trees in Delville Wood were reduced to a tangle of greenery and stumps and not a single tree remain standing.

Trees were not the only victims of the German shells but men were also falling fast like the trees which had been uprooted and the wounded could not be evacuated for hours. The nearest first aid post which was set up in a house on the outskirts of Longueval and the nearby dressing secure and sandbagged dressing station in nearby Bernafay Wood was frequently shelled by the Germans. On the same day, 16 July 1916, the South African Brigade tried in vain to seize the illusive North-West corner of Delville Wood from the Germans. The attack was very suicidal as it was met with heavy attack from the Germans machine-guns. The South African Brigade suffered heavy losses and they were forced to retreat. The combat between the Germans and South Africans became one of the bloodiest encounters South Africa has ever had in the history a country.

The situation reached a boiling point on 17 July 1917 when the Germans made another attempt to dislodge the South Africans. The timing of the attack was good for the Germans as it was raining every minute and then there will be a parching heat on the day. The conditions were very bad for the South Africans and sleeping was very impossible. No one was safe as those who were awake and those who were sleeping were both vulnerable to the danger posed by the Germans strippers. The same night garrison commander, Lt-Col Tanner, OC of the 2nd SAI became one of the major casualties of the night for the South Africans. The reaction of Lt-Col Tanner to his severe injury and his determination not to quit the battle was a true demonstration that South Africans had the same war attitude like that of the Germans. They too were willing to leave Delville Wood dead or alive, for South Africa it was about protecting the respect they got in France and to safeguard the reputation they build up throughout their arrival on the Western Front. Equally important was to fight for their country South Africa and to honour the call of duty from King Edward II.

Lt-Col Tanner was eventually replaced by Lt-Col E F Thackery, OC of the 3rd SAI in controlling operations in the wood. Thackeray was a very courageous man and he was also a good leader in the 1st SA Infantry Brigade. His courage and leadership was soon demonstrated soon after replacing Lt-Col Tanner. He took over at time when South African Brigade was under heavy shelling and machine-gun bombardment from the Germans. The first decision he made was to instruct four soldiers to carry the wounded Lt E J Phillips with a stretcher to the next first aid point. However their mission was derailed by heavy shells from the Germans who were few yards away the South Africans. One stretcher bearer was shot by the Germans and the guys dropped Lt Phillips down and take cover. The Germans did not stop shooting at the wounded Phillips who was lying down. Thackeray was watching the whole incident and he had to make quick decisive action to save the life of Lt Phillips. He crept out of his place and went to the scene were one of his man was lying under a hail of shells and managed to pull Phillip out to safety despite facing danger himself.

The experience of coming face to face with death did not hinder Lt-Col Thackeray to be a source of inspiration for his men who were on the verge of losing their endurance in the Delville Wood. He told his men to hang on until the very end and he promised to be with them through the ordeal. It was at the time when the Germans had intensified their attack on South Africans. They were firing and bombing at the SA Brigade from both sides of

the trench. Thackeray was himself a causality of Delville Wood, he survived being hit six times by bullets and had been knocked down three times, twice by shells and once by a bomb.

The battle for the control of Delville Wood continued until 20 July 1916 and few remaining men in the South African Brigade fought to the end. South Africans could not have achieved what they did in Delville Wood if it was not for the leadership and bravery of Lt-Col Thackeray. Thackeray resilient and bravery despite grenades attack from the Germans illustrate that he was a seasoned war veteran. During South Africa desperate days of the 19 and 20 July 1916, Thackeray took on the Germans by himself. He was thrown to the trenches by the enemy grenades but Thackeray will immediately got up and continue throwing counter grenades until the enemy attacks were repelled. His actions gave courage and hope where there was none left and he inspired few men with him to do their best.

On 20 July 1916 after fighting the enemy for two days without food and water, Lt-Col Thackeray made a call to Brigadier-General Henry Timson Lukin to relieve them. He was left only with Lt EJ Phillips who was wounded and a few Sgts. They only survived on rations of those who were killed in the bloodiest war of six days and five nights. Thackeray realized that their endurance was running out and if they were not relieved it was going to be difficult to survive another day in those conditions. In the end Lukin acceded to Thackeray request. Thackeray and two officers left, 2/Lt EJ Phillips and 2/Lt Garnet G Green, both of them wounded, and 120 men left the wood alive.

Many men who fought gallantly amongst these brave men had perished in the war after six weeks but the bravery of South Africans was never forgotten on the Western Front. Within six weeks the whole of Delville Wood was recaptured by the British force from the Germans. This success was attributed to the efforts of South Africans. The aftermath of the Delville Wood was the burial of the dead but only 151 bodies of the fallen South Africans of the many who died there were found and only 81 could be identified. The Delville Wood became known as the Devils Wood by both sides in the bloody war. South Africa was able to hold their own against all odds and their inexperienced troops stood their ground against the flower of the German army.

It is almost a century since the South African troops who were volunteers from four battalions showed the world at Delville Wood that they were not just there to make numbers but to be remembered as the best amongst the best for generations to come. Indeed Delville Wood left lasting legacies on South Africa abroad and at home. This remains the only war on the Western Front which South Africa is remembered for. To honour the bravery and heroism of South African men a Memorial Museum was erected and unveiled by the widow of General Louis Botha in Delville Wood, France on 10 October 1926 in commemoration of the bravery and courage of South Africans there. In South Africa the names of those who fought in the Delville Wood are inscribed in the Wall of Remembrance at Freedom Park Heritage Site and there is also a commemorative statue about Delville Wood in front of the Union Building which is the Administrative Offices in Pretoria.

Delville Wood is seen by many South Africans more so white South Africans as a symbol of pride and reverence because it was the first major action for SA Brigade on the Western Front. Delville Wood touched many white South Africans both the English and Afrikaners because it unite them in their grief, sorrow and it let them share their pride of the achievement of their sons, fathers and grandfathers in a combat. It was the first war where both the English and Afrikaners were able to fight and died together on one side against one common enemy. What makes the Delville Wood so special to South Africans was the endurance of South African Brigade for incredibly long time, six days and five nights, standing firm against all odds without relief or reinforcement. Delville Wood has been written more than any other battle that South Africa was involved in over a century and has been commemorated in more than two countries around the world because of its impact on the history of Britain, France, Germany and South Africa. Delville Wood will remain in the uppermost, for it was there that the horror and stark reality of the Western Front experience was brought home to South Africa.

Delville Wood was not a war of white South Africans but it was a war for all South Africans both black and white. When South Africa entered the First World War on 8 September 1914, there were 146 000 white volunteers for the service in the war. 83 000 blacks and 2000 coloureds did service in a non-combatant capacity. Delville Wood is still remembered today in a new South Africa as a symbol of bravery, heroism, patriotism and more importantly as a symbol of one nation. After 1994 the new South African government post-apartheid continued with the tradition long held for almost a century; that of remembering and honouring those who died and wounded in Delville Wood when duty calls. To show that Delville will remain at the uppermost in South African history, the government sent Deputy President Mr Cyril

Ramaphosa and Minister of Arts and Culture, Honourable Mr Nathi Mthethwa to France on 4 July 2014 for the commemoration of 98th anniversary of the Delville Wood.

The Presidency issued a statement on the 98th anniversary commemoration of Delville Wood saying: this year’s commemoration service is of particular significance taking place against the background of the planned re-interment of the mortal remains of Private Myyengwa Beleza, one of the first South Africans and a member of the African Native Labour Corps to perish during the World War1. Beleza’s remains will be exhumed from the civilian cemetery of Seine-Maritime near Le Havre for reburial at the Delville Wood Memorial to honour all South Africans, black and white, who contributed to the demise of Nazism. The Government of South Africa is committed to integrate the parallel South Africa history and legacies on the First World War in one shared history of bravery, heroism and patriotism by all South Africans who made a great sacrifice in the war and die for their country as one nation and one people.

The reburial of Beleza at the Delville Wood Memorial was the first step by the government to address the inequalities brought by segregation policy in South Africa. Due to segregation blacks who died in the First World War were buried in various civilian cemeteries across France while their white counterparts were buried at the Delville Wood Memorial. The story of Delville Wood is preserved in the South African National Defence Force Archives to remind the younger generation of the sacrifices made by our brave heroes of the war. There will never be another Delville Wood to South Africa but lessons learned from there will help to inspire young South Africans to always put their country first ahead of themselves and their families. In conclusion I hold a view that going to 100 years anniversary of the Delville Wood next year, the National Archives and Records Service of South Africa has a huge responsibility of making sure that they keep and preserve the history of the First World War in a very integrated way and have records that clearly define the role of every South African who participated in the First World War. It is unfortunate that the National Archives and Records Service of South Africa have no records on the WW1 at the moment.

Bibliography


3. Sanews.gov.za


31 Quote from sanews.gov.za
The National Archives of Georgia represents one of the biggest archival institutions. It was and still remains the main center of preservation and research of old documents, manuscripts, archival materials, audio and visual documents, sketches, drawings, cartographical materials, costumes, nomenclature of modern institutions, etc.

The most part of the depositories of the National Archives of Georgia are occupied by the archival materials of the 19th-20th centuries. Conditionally, this material is divided into four main chronological blocs: a. the period of Tsardom of Russia; b. the period of the Democratic Georgia; c. the period of the Soviet Union; d. independent Georgia.

The subject of our report concerns the first bloc. The National Archives of Georgia can present the multi-picture of the period of the Russian Empire. While the main part of our archives was carried out at the time, our depositories hold the valuable part anyway. Frequently, it is this part that is less explored and known to the wide society. Specially the different layers of the Russian-Turkish War is widely opened, practically all the events taking place in the Caucasus, different stages of strengthening of the Russian Empire in Caucasus, emigration and migration of the population here. In 1914, at the beginning of the World War I Georgia was the peripheral, but the most important part of the Russian Empire. The main center of the Caucasus represented Tbilisi. As it is known, the governor of the Caucasus was sitting here and the military headquarters of the Caucasus was here as well.

Mainly the materials connected with the World War I are written documents, as well as the maps, the photos and the video material. Among the documents are: orders, reports, descriptions of the hostilities. The maps depict the local battles, as well as narrow thematic events and the general information. The photos and the video materials depict the Georgian, as well as partly the Ottoman side data: battles, positions, conquered geographical points, captives, buildings, soldiers, main or the local governorship, etc. So, mainly the military subject is prevailing and consist the chronological frames from the beginning of the World War I (since 1912) till its end (1918).

Mainly it is connected with the Caucasus front. The course of the separate battles is described in details in the written or photo documents.
The secret-service, the summaries of the various military operations, magazines of the hostilities and the descriptions of the concrete battles are especially interesting. These documentary materials are strengthened with the audio and video documents that are preserved at the National Archives of Georgia.

There were plenty of reasons why Georgia was involved in the World War I. For this period Georgia was the part of the Russian Empire, the part that bordered the East or the Caucasus front directly. Here was the general staff of the Caucasus and the military headquarters of the Russian army.

It’s well known how important the capture of the Caucasus and especially of the South Caucasus was. After the famous events that were finished with the temporal siege of Batumi district by the Ottoman side, it was vastly feasible that the Ottoman forces managed to enter in the Caucasus more deeply. It was proofed by the decision made in the back of the front. In particular, the Russian authorities decided to hide the archival materials, preserved in Tbilisi in North Caucasus. Mainly they were the management fonds. This decision was made in 1915 and together with the archival materials, the oldest Georgian historical documents were also sent in the North Caucasus. Lately, this journey was ended sadly, though this isn’t the subject of the report this time.

Even among the very few materials, sent by us, it’s clearly presents that the maps, preserved at the National Archives of Georgia, show the conditions of the European fronts, as well as the part of the Caucasus. There also are the maps that convey the dynamics of the hostilities more reliably. The most part of the documents are the originals. There are plenty of documents with the signature of the General Yudenich, as well as other military leaders, who headed the Caucasus forces. Among the noteworthy commands the most distinguished are the Declaration of the King Nicholas and the command about the creation of the aviation. A big amount of weapon that was located on the territory of Caucasus and Ottoman Empire can be seen in the written documents, as well as in the photo materials. The types of the weapons, used during the hostilities, are depicted in details on the hundreds of photos.

Noteworthy is the so called “PR Company”: How the Russian troops make the photo and video shooting in all directions. The soldiers, military leaders, loot, weapons, environment, forests or local population were depicted after each battle. The famous movie “Besieged Erzurum” is presented with the photo materials in the depositories of the archive, but the largest amount of the photos concern the toughest events of Kars, observing positions, destroyed towns, Russian soldiers walking on the Eastern streets and the peaceful population on the backstage. A lot of special documents about holding film shows of “Besieged Erzurum” for Russian soldiers are preserved in the archive.
The most interesting are the documentary materials concerning the bringing of the loot weapon. In the letter of Esadze it’s clearly shown that that part of these weapons was transferred to the Museum of Caucasus in Tbilisi. There is also a note that in case of necessity they have a right to take them away. These documents are strengthened with the photo materials depicting the weapons located in the Caucasus Museum.

The participation of the Georgians in the war besides the hostilities covers several other aspects: in various cities of Georgia the war-affected refugees were placed, the part of the Georgians is the member of the Red Cross Society; others are involved in depicting the military actions and the separate aspects of these actions. One of the photos that is preserved at the National Archives of Georgia presents the news about an inventor from Kutaisi, who had invented emergency stretchers for the wounded and these stretches were specially designed for the wounded to move in the mountains.

There is a note in the annotation of the photo that the inventor had patented the stretches after the war was finished. Though he wasn’t able to use them, because the war was finished and the revolution in Russia changed all the existing plans. But the photos, preserved in the fonds, depict that this bed was actively used during the hostilities.

Thus, the material, preserved at the National Archives of Georgia still needs to be studied. The thematic of the World War I is presented with the enviable sequence. The versatility of the material shows all the small and the huge victories and defeats of the big or small forces on the Caucasus front of the World War I.
Russian troops at Kars military temple
January, 1915
National Archives of Georgia

Episode from the World War I
1914-1918
National Archives of Georgia
THE ROLE OF THE ARCHIVES IN THE COMMEMORATION OF THE FIRST WORLD WAR IN CROATIA

Dr. Vlatka LEMIC*

Archival service in Croatia consists of state archives, other heritage institutions (libraries, museums, institutes, documentation centers and other institutions) in which archival material is kept (which can be considered as “archives outside state archives system”), creators and owners of the archival records and archival service management. Through the state archives' network, consisting of the Croatian State Archives and 18 regional state archives, the archival service takes care of national archival heritage and ensures its protection and information integrity.

The Croatian State Archives in Zagreb (CSA) is national archive and performs archival services relating to archival and current records created by state bodies, state and public institutions and enterprises, by corporate bodies, and by families and individuals whose activity covers the whole or a greater part of Croatia, or is of national interest. Its beginnings are symbolically linked to the year 1643, when, according to a decision made by the Croatian parliament, state treasurer Ivan Zakmardi de Diankovec ordered the making of a special Chest of Privileges of the Kingdom for keeping the state's charters, privileges and legal regulations. The tasks of the Croatian State Archives (CSA) as the central archival institution include planning of archival activities, coordination of the professional work of the archives and managing archival records information-documentation service on national level.

In accordance with a number of national and international initiatives dedicated to the celebration of the centenary of the First World, Croatian State Archives is also actively...
involved in various activities and programs related to research, processing, digitization and presentation of archival sources about the Great War at the level of institutions, archival services and national and international projects. International cooperation across national borders is also an important factor for the remembrance of the First World War, as well as professional activities of the archives, representation of the common European values as well as their acquisition & synergic usage based on the past.

In collaboration with various institutions and associations, in the last two years CSA was publishing a variety of sources, organizing lectures and exhibitions on this topic and preparing a program of appropriate activities in the period 2014-2018; within the archive service CSA coordinates the activities of the network of state archives, and is also one of the main holders of the national project "Centenary of the Great War" which is led by Commission for the Coordination of marking the centenary of First World War and Ministry of Culture of Republic of Croatia.

All planned activities of CSA and other Croatian archives aim to facilitate the availability of so far unknown sources from that time, to promote the importance of historical sources for the study and understanding of history as well as their use in the educational process. Most attractive for general population are exhibitions because they provoke people’s interest in archival institutions. In order to provide elaborated micro & macro viewpoints on the First World War the exhibition are prepared through individual, personal stories & objects as to make the extend of the horrors of war graspable and mirror the larger picture, and planned to be also available through the websites.

Regarding this, following is the list of some of Croatian archives activities relating the First World War realized in period 2014-2015:

• Exhibitions „Field Marshall Svetozar Borojević“ & „Sarajevo assassination in 1914 and the First World War in the documents of Monastery in Fojnica archives“ (CSA)
  • Exhibition „Bjelovar’s hospitals in the Great War 1914-1918 (State Archives in Bjelovar)
  • Exhibition on the reflections of the war in Korčula district „Disremembered war“ (State Archives in Dubrovnik)
  • Exhibitions „General Milan Emil Uzelac "father" of the Air Force of the Austro-Hungarian Empire“ & „In the wake of the First World War“ (State Archives in Dubrovnik)
  • Exhibitions „Međimurje in the First World War“ & „The First World War in the archival material of the District Court of Maribor / Military stories from the court archives“ (State Archives for Dubrovnik)
  • Exhibition „Lika in the Great War“ (State Archives in Gospić)
  • Exhibition „Šibenik in the First World War“ & Project „Šibenik Harbour in the First World War“ (State Archives in Šibenik)
THE ROLE OF THE ARCHIVES IN THE COMMEMORATION OF
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- Exhibition „Margraviate Istria in the Great War“ (State Archives in Pazin and State Archives in Rijeka)
- Exhibition “Brod na Savi and the First World War” (State Archives in Slavonski Brod)
- Exhibition „The Lion of Soča“ about field marshal Svetozar Boroević (State Archives in Sisak)
- Exhibition „Tracing the forgotten war through Virovitica 1914th - 1918th“ (State Archives in Virovitica)
- Exhibition „A.D. 1914. – Records of war“ (State Archives in Varaždin)
- Exhibition of photographic and documentary material „WORLD WAR - from the assassination in Sarajevo until the entrance of Italian army in Zadar“ (State Archives in Zadar)

CSA posters and invitations for International Archival Day 2014 dedicated to the subject „The First World War in Croatian archives“

- Exhibition of war postcards „Boys, go ahead!/Vorwärts Croatische Brüder!” from the legacy of Ivan Medved & Project „Croatian generals in Austro-Hungarian Army“ (State Archives in Osijek)
- Exhibition „Zagreb and Zagreb people in the First World War. The situation, events, reflections” (State Archives in Zagreb)

Among its regular tasks and activities in the period 2014-2018 CSA is engaged in two major programs dedicated to the First World War: „Marking the centennial of the First World War“ and „Digitalization of archival sources from the First World War“ aim to achieve following results:

- Register of causalities’ of soldiers and officers from the Croatian territories in World War – creation of the date base of casualties from original lists and other available
sources from Croatia and other countries, production of a review of war path of military formations in connections with records and data base and his data and data base, enabling users to add data and to research available digitized records;

- Digital collections & Web portal “Centenary of the First World War - the view from the archive” - digitization of CSA and other archives material, description of holdings and documents and their availability of Internet and on thematic portals on the Great War (Europeana, CENDARI et al.);

- Exhibitions - preparation of exhibitions dedicated to the Great war and everyday life during the war, and made traveling exhibition which will be traveling in other public places;

- Educational material - making of educational material for the use of general and local history teaching in public and high schools

- Scientific contribution - participation in the organization of scientific and professional meetings and by collecting, processing and publishing of new resources contribute to the scientific research of the First World War.

In the framework of Ministry of Culture’s national project "Centenary of the Great War" CSA in May 2014 hosted the EUNIC-CROATIA international symposium “Commemorating 1914- Exploring the War’s Legacy” that brought together historians across Europe and was the central place of Central National Commemoration of the First World War Centenary for which the booklet “First World War - A hundred years latter” is prepared comprises of historical overview and list of various programs commemorating the First World War centenary supported by Ministry of Culture, which also can be found at the Ministry’s website.

With other cultural institutions CSA also participated in the project Europeana 1914-1918 by organization of “Days of collecting memorabilia” in which occasion citizens brought they family memories from the First World War to Archives to be digitized and described under the instructions of archivist and historians and posted on the website of the project Europeana 1914-1918. Through its international cooperation actives in June 2014 in the framework
of EU project ENArC (European Network on Archival Cooperation) CSA in Sarajevo in cooperation with Archives of Bosnia and Herzegovina organized the international archival conference "WWI: Reflections from behind the frontlines" and also started participation in project CENDARI (Collaborative European Digital Archive Infrastructure) by publishing material from Stjepan Sertić’s Photo album from Italian battlefield in their First World War Digital Collection.

CSA also published several paper and electronic publications related to the First World War sources and organized various thematic lectures and presentations, and among other activities helped the Austrian Cultural Forum project “The First World War: Traces in my surroundings” in which interested students of gymnasium researched historical clues to their families in times of war in CSA holdings, explored the theme "War and the Media" and prepared its own exhibition and film material.

The CSA holds more than 2,100 fonds and collections, or more than 25,000 shelf meters of records, created since the 10th century, mostly records of central state authorities, various public and other institutions of national importance, as well as records created by distinguished individuals, families and private organizations that were of significance in particular periods of time and events in public life. Archival material related to the First World War is kept in various fonds and collections organized in:

- Archival Division for Documents until 1945 from the period 1914-1918 - cca. 215,000 documents (records and books, maps, cartographic material, posters, reports, maps, etc.);
- Archival Division for Contemporary Family and Personal Records relevant for the First World War - cca. 17,500 documents (handwritten diaries, studies, papers, applications, reports, official records, maps, notebooks, personal
documents, cartographic material, prints, clippings, notes, memoirs, commands, correspondence, letters, handwritten articles, flyers, drawings, transcripts, telegrams, postcards, etc);

- Archival Division for Old and Military Records - cca. 12,000 documents (records and books, maps, cartographic material, applications, reports, maps, personal documents, cartographic material, prints, clippings, notes, commands, correspondence, letters, etc.);

- Archival Division for Records of Political Parties and Organizations - cca. 2,000 documents (records and books, elaborates, files, reports, etc.).

CSA also have largest Photograph collections from the First World War in Croatia – cca. 5,000 photos and CSA Library keeps bulletins, newspapers, journals, official gazettes and other published official publications and reports from the period 1914-1918 relevant for the First World War - approximately 250,000 pages. Among most important material are records of State Government Presidency and Offices, records of National Council of Slovenians, Croats and Serbs, records of historiacaal counties and regions, personal legacies of generals and politicians like Stjepan Sarkotić, Maksimilijan Čičerić, Ivan Urlik Salis-Seewis, Vladimir Maruševski, August Marić, and various military units like Vojni građevinski odsjek 16. zbora (K.k. Militärbauabtheilung des 16. Korpscommandos, Belag und Ubikationsübersicht für das militär Objekte), Gericht des Militärkommandos Mostar. Expositur in Sebenico), Marine-Gericht Sebenico, Gericht des Künstabschnittskommando in Spalato, 5. Armeeocomando, Feldpost 305, K.u.k. Militärkommando in Zagreb, Feldpost 68 i 365 and many others.

Besides make all this material available on the web portals, CSA is also preparing thematic archival guide “The First World War in CSA fonds and collections”.

From Croatian State Archives holdings
When a tourist visits New Delhi’s the imposing official buildings in what is commonly known as the ‘Lutyens Delhi’, a red sandstone building majestically standing not very far from the Rashtrapati Bhawan or the President’s House, and the Parliament House, invariably catches his/her attention. This is indeed the National Archives of India (Fig. 1), which celebrated its 125th Foundation Day on 11 March 2015.

Established in 1891 as the Imperial Records Department in Calcutta (now Kolkata), it was rechristened as the National Archives of India soon after the country attained independence on 15 August 1947. Today it has one of the finest archival collections in the world.

A little further from the building of the National Archives of India, at a distance of just 700 meters, is a triumphant Arch, which is today popularly known as the India Gate (Fig. 2).

* Deputy Director-National Archives of India
This magnificent monument stands as a tribute to thousands of “known and unknown” Indian soldiers who laid down their lives fighting for the British during the First World War (and also the Third Anglo-Afghan War, May-August 1919). The names of 13,300 soldiers are inscribed on its stone blocks. Built between 1921 and 1931, and originally called ‘All India War Memorial’, this imposing structure is a sad reminder of the heavy price that India paid during the First World War, also known as the ‘Great War’.

India made the largest contribution to the war effort out of all of Britain’s colonies and dominions. As a part of her Imperial service commitment India sent seven ‘Indian Expeditionary Forces’ to the various theatres of the First World War between 1914 and 1918. India’s total contribution to the War in terms of men – both combatants and non-combatants – is the same as the strength of the Indian army a hundred years later, in 2015 – 1.5 million. In these four years [1914-1918 of the War] it lost 74,000 men killed in action and 67,000 wounded – many were to die later of wounds. (Singh 2014: vi).

It was not the men alone; in monetary terms, India contributed £100 million outright in 1914 (approximately £8 billion in today’s value) and another £20 to £30 million (roughly £1.6 to 2.4 billion today) each year in cash thereafter for the war. India also provided over 170,000 animals and 3,700,000 tons of supplies and stores to support the war effort. (Kant 2014: 15).

(See more at: http://amitavghosh.com/blog/?p=3752#sthash.nuEbOpaQ.dpuf)
In the war games that were played across continents, Turkey, or rather the Ottoman empire with its Sultan revered as the Caliph of the Muslim world, held a place of great significance for India – not just due to India’s military campaigns in Mesopotamia, but also, in fact more significantly, due to its political ramifications on India’s freedom struggle.

As the premier archives in South Asia, the National Archives of India holds large number of records on the Great War, which have a direct bearing on India’s relations with Turkey. This paper proposes to present a short glimpse into the nature of some of these documents and discuss their importance in the light of the historical relations between India and Turkey.

II

To have a perspective view of the place of reverence that the Sultan of Turkey commanded amongst the Muslim populace of India, we will have to go a couple of years back from the outbreak of the First World War – to the Balkan Wars in which the Ottoman Empire lost nearly all of its holdings in Europe. However, much against the common perception that the Turco-Balkan Wars were essentially an European affair and, as a result, its original sources are only to be found in the European archives, the National Archives of India holds a number of files that provide a rare insight into this and various other events leading up to the outbreak of the First World War.

One such file deals with the working of the Turco-Persian Frontier Commission and contains several drafts and maps of the final Protocol – known as the Constantinople Protocol – which was signed on 17 November 1913 by the Grand Vizier of Turkey, and the Ambassadors of Persia, Russia and Great Britain (Fig. 3).

The Indian Muslims had already pledged their
allegiance to the Sultan of Turkey during the Turco-Balkan Wars and had been organizing themselves with a view to offer resistance against any aggression to their holy places that were then located within the dominions of the Sultan of Turkey. Thus, an ‘Anjuman-e Khuddam-e Kaaba, or Society of Servants of the Kaaba was established in May 1913 with the ostensible object of protecting Mecca and other Holy Places of Islam from non-Muslim aggression.” The support that this Society lent to Turkey is expressed in a letter published in an Arabic newspaper – Al Shaab (Cairo, 22 January 1914), which states that: “The greatest desire of Muhammadans and of the people of the East in general is to see Turkey powerful, educated and prosperous.” It also underscored that the Society has “…sole object of coming to the aid of Turkey, at the cost of the greatest sacrifices to protect the Holy Places of Islam. [NAI, Foreign & Political Department, Secret Branch, 1916, PART I, Progs., Nos. 1-28, June 1916: 2. Orders directing Local Govt. and Political Officers to keep a careful watch on the correspondence and to submit lists of names of persons residing in native states suspected of Pan-Islamic tendencies or likely to become centres of disaffection in consequence of the outbreak of war with Turkey.]

Likewise, the District Moslem League of Gaya (in eastern India), passed a Resolution at a Special Meeting held on 19 August 1913, and urged the Viceroy of India to protect Turkish interests “in deference to the feelings and sentiments of 70 millions of his Majesty’s Moslem subjects.” [NAI, Foreign Department, External-B Branch, March-1914, Nos. 132-140: Indian Muhammadan Representations in connection with the Turco-Balkan war]

Such sentiments pervaded across India and are reflected in the official correspondence preserved in the National Archives of India. Apprehensions of hostile action against Turkey also spread through the Indian Muslims living abroad. The Vice President of the London All India Moslem League wrote to the Secretary of State for India on 28 July 1913, warning him against “any hostile action against a country in whose existence and welfare the Musalmans of India take the keenest interest.” (Fig. 4)

In India, support for the Sultan of Turkey was mounting and offers of material help to him were pouring in from all quarters. An interesting case study in this regard can be seen in a rather unusual offer made by the Muslim inhabitants of Madras [now Chennai]. Through a telegram sent to the Viceroy of India on 25 April 1914, the Islamic Society of Madras (established in 1912) offered to present an aircraft to Turkey for the protection of the holy shrines in Arabia. The British government, however, not very keen to oblige, informed the Society that “…it is not usual for the Government of India officially to countenance gifts by Indian subjects to any Foreign Power, unless these are of a purely complimentary character or for the purpose of charity or for the furtherance of art or learning.” [NAI, Legislative Department, Unofficial, 1914, Progs., No. 284: Proposed presentation by the Indian Muslims of an Aeroplane to Turkey for the protection of Arabia].
On 29 October 1914, Turkey decided to join the War on the side of Germany and Austria-Hungary. On 1 November 1914, the Government of India issued a Communiqué “...in order that the Princes and people of India may be aware of the true facts of the case [Turkey joining the War] and may realise that the British Government have done their best to avoid war with Turkey and to convince the Turkish Government of the futility and folly of being inveigled into conflict by the conflict by the enemies of the Great Britain.” [Letter dated 1st November 1914, Central India Agency, Indore, from Major H.A.K. Gough, First Assistant to the Governor General in Central India, to Political Agent in Bundelkhand]. The Communiqué gave a sequence of events starting from the 29 October 1914, and hailed Great Britain as “the greatest Muhammadan Power in the world and the faithful and consistent friend of Turkey whom she has steadfastly helped to maintain her position in Europe and recover her stability which was shaken in the Balkan wars....

On 2 November 1914 Russia declared war on Turkey and on the same day, the Government of India issued a Public Announcement in the official gazette, reassuring the Indian Muslims that “the Holy Places of Arabia including the Holy Shrines of Mesopotamia and the Port
of Jeddah ... ... will be immune from attack or molestation by the British Naval and Military Forces so long as there is no interference with pilgrims from India to the Holy Shrines in question.” The announcement went on to assure the Indian Muslims that “At the request of the His Majesty’s Government, the Governments of France and Russia have given them similar assurances.” (Fig. 5) Translations of the above-mentioned Communiqué and the Public Announcement in the official gazette in Urdu – the lingua-franca of the North and Central India, were also issued. [NAI, Bundelkhand Agency, Political Branch, 1914, Progs., Nos. 54-D, 1914: War between Great Britain and Turkey].

Interestingly, these communications and public announcement came days ahead of 5 November 1914, when Britain and France officially declared war on Turkey. A formal Proclamation issued by the King George (1911-36) from the Buckingham Palace, declared
the state of war between Britain and the Sultan of Turkey ‘...as from this 5th day of November 1914’, and ‘...the dominions of His Imperial Majesty the Sultan of Turkey...’ as ‘enemy country.’ [NAI, Legislative Department, Prize Court Branch, 1914, Part B, Progs., Nos. 1, November 1914: Publication in Gazette of India Extraordinary of a Proclamation on the outbreak of War with Turkey.]

The Government of India made all-out efforts to garner public support, especially of the Muslim rulers and the Muslim populace by assuaging their apprehension about safety of their holy places. Special envoys were dispatched by the Viceroy to enlist the support of some important Muslim Princely States. Many of these, like the Nizam of Hyderabad in South India, the Begum of Bhopal and the Nawab of Jaora in Central India, the Nawab of Tonk in the Rajputana, the Nawab of Rampur in Rohilkhand, Khan of Kalat, Nawab of Bagannapalle and the Nawab of Maler Kotla in the Punjab, fell in line and were unanimous in their opinion that the duty of Indian Muslims “lies in showing complete loyalty and devotion to the British Crown during a war enforced upon it...”.

The newly established political party of the Muslims – the All-India Muslim League (estb. 1906) – also threw its weight behind the British government and expressed “the deep-rooted loyalty and sincere devotion of Musalmans of India to the British Crown” and assured the government that the “…participation of Turkey in the present war does not and cannot affect that loyalty in the least degree...” [NAI, Foreign & Political Department, Secret Branch, 1916, Part I, Progs., Nos. 13-34, October 1916: Declarations of Loyalty by the Leading Musalman Princes in India on the Outbreak of War with Turkey].

Similar support was also expressed by Muslim public bodies and individuals across India. These included: students’ bodies, local Anjumans (or Muslim societies), bar councils, religious institutions, rulers, chiefs, nobles, clerics, statesmen, and Muslim commoners. These expressions of support were widely reported in the press, and present vouch for the success of the war propaganda launched by the British Government in India. [NAI, Home, Political, 1915, February, PART A, [Progs.] 446-88: Resolution of loyalty received from Muhamadan public bodies and individuals in connection with the War with Turkey].

Turkey, on the other hand, tried to enflame the religious sentiments of the Muslims across the world by declaring a Holy War against the Allies. One of the files in the collection of the National Archives of India deals with Turkish Proclamation of a Jehad or a Holy War against Great Britain, France and Russia. Turkish emissaries were tasked with issuing these proclamations in India and Afghanistan, and also in Egypt, Algeria and Morocco. In India (and in Afghanistan) this task was undertaken by clerics commissioned by the Turkish Government, who contacted the Muslim clerics in different parts of India and convinced them “of the applicability of jehad to Indian Moslems.” Also available in these records is an intelligence report by Delhi Police, dated 2 January 2015 and a letter from Sir R. Rodd (British
Envoy in Rome) to Sir E. Grey (Secretary of State for India), dated 4 December 1914, listing the names of the Turkish emissaries sent to India. The Turkish Embassy in Persia was quick to react to the British Viceroy’s Announcement published in India. It issued a Communiqué asserting that the “Great Britain has willfully misrepresented case against Turkey” and that “British Government has always been enemy of Khilafate of Islam.” A translation of the full text of 3½ pages strongly worded rebuttal by the Turkish authorities is available in one of the files in the collection of the National Archives of India. It contains copies of several other propaganda materials, one of which is titled, “To remove misunderstanding or to defend a great Islamic Empire.” [NAI, Foreign & Political Department, War-B Branch, March 1915, Nos. 1-4: Communiqué issued by the Turkish embassy at Tehran and a proclamation issued at Isfahan in answer to the British statement published on the outbreak of hostilities between Great Britain and Turkey].

The British Government of India responded by detaining Turkish nationals living in India whom the British officers termed as “dangerous Asiatic Turks”. One such person was Basri Bey, ex Consul-General for Turkey, who was detained at Bombay. A file in the collection of the National Archives of India describes in detail the policy of the British authorities in India on actions taken “with regard to Turks in India”. [NAI, Foreign & Political Department, Secret-War Branch, August 1915, Nos. 26-90: Internment of Turkish subjects in India. Detention at Bombay of Basri Bey, ex-Consul-General for Turkey, and grant to him of a daily allowance].

On 21 August 1915 Italy declared War on Turkey and this news was communicated by the Secretary of State for India to the Viceroy of India through a telegram dated 23 August 1915 written in cipher code. [NAI, Foreign & Political Department, War (Secret) Branch, December 1915, Part B, Progs. Nos. 87-92].

The official correspondence between Austin Chamberlin, Member of the Parliament of the Conservative Party who assumed the office of the Secretary of State for India during the course of the War, (25 May 1915) and Lord Hardinge, the Viceroy of India (Nov. 1910-Apr. 1916) shed light on a very interesting proposal made by the former – that of exploring the ‘possibility of introducing prayer for the King Emperor with the Friday service’. In Islamic statecraft, the recitation of the ruler’s name in Khutba (or Friday prayers) is considered to be a prerogative of the sovereign. However, as the Sultan of Turkey was also recognized as the caliph or the religious and temporal head of the Islamic world by a large segment of the Muslim populace of India, at many places the Friday prayers included his name instead. In a letter dated 16 September 1916 addressed to the Viceroy of India, Chamberlin writes: “...the Moslem community of India is, I think, the only community under the British flag which habitually prays for a foreign Sovereign and does not offer prayers for the [British] King”
and then urges the Viceroy “...to consider whether it might not be possible to approach some of the great Mohamedan authorities, such, for instance, as the Begum [of Bhopal] or the Nizam [of Hyderabad], to see whether they would not lead a movement among Mohamedans for the introduction into the Friday services of prayers for the King-Emperor.” The opinion of the C.R. Cleaveland, Director of Criminal Intelligence, was sought in the matter who dissuaded the government from making any such attempt and added that “...sentimentally and religiously Indian Mahomedans are more Ottoman than the Turks.” The proposal was unceremoniously buried in the government files. [NAI, Home Department, Political Branch, December 1916, Deposit, 20 & K.W.: Discussion in regard to the allegiance of Mohamadan to the Sultan of Turkey possibility of introducing prayer for the King Emperor with the Friday service].

I would like to conclude with a short mention about a very interesting file in the collection of the National Archives of India that contains a copy of a propaganda pamphlet entitled, “The Turkish and Pan-Turkish Ideal” by Tekin Alp. This pamphlet was originally published in 1915 in Constantinople, but later, in 1917, the British Government in India got it reprinted in Calcutta as a “Secret” document which was considered to be “of considerable potential interest and importance to British Political Officers” in Mesopotamia, and in Persian Gulf Residency (Fig. 6).
The pamphlet deals with Ottomanism and Pan-Islamism and gives a rare insight into the historical development of the Turkish National movement that resulted in the creation and shaping of the modern Republic of Turkey (See Box 1).

**The Turkish and Pan-Turkish Ideal**

*by Tekin Alp*

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**Box 1: List of Contents of the Pamphlet “The Turkish and Pan-Turkish ideal by Tekin Alp, Constantinople” printed at the Government Press, Calcutta, 1917.**

Only 140 copies of this 34-page Pamphlet were printed in India, and I believe that like numerous other archival sources, it would also be of immense interest to the scholars working on the history of Modern Turkey.

IV

The First World War had tremendous impact on the nationalist aspirations of the people, both in India and Turkey. At the time of the outbreak of the War, Indian national movement was gaining ground, and it received a fresh impetus with the arrival of Mahatma Gandhi on the political scene of India in January 1915. An Indian Home Rule League was formed in 1916. To enlist the support of India in Britain’s war efforts, Edwin Samuel Montagu, the Secretary of State for India, made a declaration on 20th August 1916 that the goal of the British
government in India is introduction of Responsible Government. The aim of the nationalist leaders too, at that time, was the attainment of a Dominion Status for India, within the British Empire, and for this they thought that India should also share the burden of Imperial defence. The resultant support that the British could garner from cross-section of the Indian society – political leadership, royalty, nobility, clerics, and the general masses – was unprecedented. With the conclusion of the War in 1918, however, the truth behind the false promises made by the British to grant increasing political autonomy to Indians was unmasked. In 1919, the Anarchical and Revolutionary Crimes Act, popularly known as the Rowlatt Act, was passed by the Government of India with an aim to suppressing the voice of dissent. The Act extended till an indefinite period of time the emergency measures of preventive indefinite detention, incarceration without trial and judicial review that were provided for under the Defence of India Act 1915, during the War. The British government in India unleashed a reign of terror on the protesters. Their atrocities were epitomized in the infamous Jallianwala Bagh Massacre on 13 April 1919, in which over 1,000 people were killed. The ineffective inquiry and the initial accolades for General Dyer, the perpetrator of the massacre, by the House of Lords fuelled widespread anger, leading to the Non-cooperation Movement of 1920–22 under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi.

With the fear of abolition of the caliphate of Turkey in the post-War arrangements looming large, the Indian Muslims decided to put up a show of solidarity for their Turkish brethren. As a result, in 1920, an All India Khilafat Committee was constituted. The manifesto of the Committee called upon the British to protect the caliphate and for Indian Muslims to unite and hold the British accountable for this purpose. The Khilafat Movement soon assumed a political character when it joined hands with the Indian National Congress, the largest political party in India which was spearheading the nationalist movement. Mahatma Gandhi and the Khilafat leaders promised to work and fight together for the causes of Khilafat and Swaraj (or the Self Rule). After a long struggle, India finally attained independence in 1947 under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi.

In Turkey too, the post-War development of the national movement were rapid, far-reaching and almost simultaneous with India. Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, who led the Turkish national movement, launched a nation-wide protest against the partitioning of the Ottoman Empire after the War. It led to the formation of a new Grand National Assembly of Turkey, abolition of the Ottoman Sultanate on 1 November 1922, and ushering of a new era in Turkish history.

This paper is an attempt to highlight some of the rich archival material held in the National Archives of India that bear testimony to the historical relations that existed between the two nations – India and Turkey – during one of the defining moments in their respective histories. It also underscores the need for a much extensive exploitation of this unique archival
resource so as to shed new light on some obscure chapters of history.

**Acknowledgement**

I thank the State Archives of Turkish for giving me an opportunity to present this paper at the International Conference on ’Documents of the First World War Centenary’, (Istanbul, 19-21 March 2015). I am also grateful to Mrs. Sreya Guha, Director General of Archives, National Archives of India, for her support and inspiration.

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THE NON-ALIGNED NETHERLANDS AND TURKEY IN THE FIRST WORLD WAR

Dr. Paul BROOD *

How important can be the relation between a small country at the North Sea coast and the large country of Turkey? Or, more than hundred years ago, between an even smaller country and the Ottoman Empire, with Turkey as its most important part?

The answer is surprising: more than four centuries already, there is a special connection between the two countries, which was celebrated in the Netherlands in 2012.

Trade interest

Four hundred years ago, Sultan Ahmed I granted the Dutch the right to trade within the Ottoman Empire. This privilege had its foundation in the correspondence between the Turkish Admiral of the Fleet Halil Pasha and Maurice of Nassau, Prince of Orange. There has been an almost unbroken representation of the Netherlands in Turkey by an ambassador since 1612.

The agreement signed by the Turkish Sultan and sent with the Dutch consul under the western name of ‘capitulation’ is known as an ahidnâme in Turkish. An ahidnâme was a unilateral declaration by the Sultan of Turkey which granted Dutch subjects free trade and permission to settle in the Empire. These privileges were only granted to non-Muslim countries who maintained friendly relations with the Sultan. This put the Netherlands in the select company of three other countries enjoying these privileges: France, England and Venice.

Above all, the diplomatic relations between the Republic and the Ottoman Empire were aimed at establishing economic and trade interests. Friendly relations were carefully cultivated: a new sultan ascending the throne or the appointment of a new grand vizier would invariably prompt the Dutch consul to convey the felicitations from the States General.

Established in Aleppo (1612), Smyrna (1618), Candia (Crete, 1619), Egypt (1633) and Morea (The Peloponnese, 1651), the consulates were better able to represent the interests of the merchants there than the distant envoy in Istanbul or Constantinople.

The consulate of Izmir was possibly the most important Dutch station in the Ottoman Empire. The city was host to a large Dutch settlement which survived until the outbreak of World War I.

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Almost the entire archive of the Dutch consulate in Izmir has been preserved. This enables a detailed examination of the day to day business in the Dutch colony.

There was the ‘old and most genuine friendship that so fortunately existed between both Governments’, as the words were spoken in Dutch parliament in the 19th century. That is why King Willem I and the Sultan decided to agree that the Dutch trade with the Turkish Empire would be conducted in the same manner as trade with Britain or France. That is how the 1840 Trade Agreement with Turkey came about. More treaties followed in the course of the 19th century and both parties continued to observe the articles of the trade agreements until the World War I.

**The Dutch Legation in Turkey, the Palais de Hollande in Constantinople**

The Dutch legation in Constantinople was housed in the *Palais de Hollande*. It was renovated in 1860. The location in Pera was wonderful, the best place. Foreigners have lived in this neighbourhood since ancient times. There were other embassies and legations and the first modern facilities and services such as street lighting, were then being installed.

There is an exceptional photograph of the new legation building, the *Palais de Hollande*, an early gelatin silver print, dated around 1860.

Under the authority of the Dutch legation there were in 1903 more than twenty consulates in the Ottoman Empire, from Izmir to Tripoli. The Dutch diplomatic posting remained in Istanbul until 1944 and then moved to Ankara.

**Escalating international tension**

At the end of the nineteenth century there was an increasing armament of several countries and the escalating international tension caused by rising nationalism. In 1899 The Hague hosts the first International Peace Conference called for at the initiative of tsar Nicholas II of Russia. A follow up conference took place in the same city in 1907. A growing pacifist movement resisted these developments. Turkey also sent a delegation to The Hague.

The picture shows the Turkish delegation at the First Peace Conference in 1899.

On July 28, 1914, the Austro-Hungarians declared war on Serbia and subsequently invaded. As Russia mobilized in support of Serbia, Germany invaded neutral Belgium and Luxembourg before moving towards France, leading Britain to declare war on Germany. After the German march on Paris was halted, the Western Front settled into a battle of attrition, with a trench line that would change little until 1917.

The Netherlands succeeded in staying neutral. My country was neither invaded nor necessary for the Germans. But economically, the war made normal life and normal trade very difficult.

**A special role**

Nevertheless, the Netherlands played a special role in the world. Why were the small Netherlands interesting for so many countries? The archives give the answer.
Although the Netherlands are just a very small country compared to the huge Ottoman Empire, the Dutch legation was one of the few that was operating during the war. Therefore, the political briefings the Dutch ambassador gave to the Dutch government, did a very good job in describing how the information was gathered, but also what happened in Turkey in these days. Almost every week the ambassador sent his briefings, personally signed, to the minister of Foreign Affairs in The Hague.

The political briefings of all Dutch ambassadors are nowadays stored in the National Archives and are free accessible. If official documents got lost, we still can use the handwritten documents, which the ambassadors kept in the archives of their legations. They are also stored in the National Archives.

Besides, the ministry of Foreign Affairs made files on important and present-day issues, the so called A-files. The most substantial files relate pan-Islamism. The Dutch government was especially anxious about the rich colony, the Dutch East Indies, nowadays Indonesia. The majority of the population was Muslim. There was a serious concern at the beginning of the war, in 1914, because Sultan Mehmed V as a Caliphe declared the holy war. When this would lead to a war between Muslims and Christians, the Dutch East Indies would suffer as well. Fortunately, the cooperation between Turkey, Germany and Austria made the risk of such a war very small.

One could ask the question: how is life in the embassy district during the war? Until 1914, the district is a reliable, almost domestic world, everyone is familiar. But this situation radically changes in 1914. The mood of harmony and constructivism disappears. Is it war in the embassy district?

The representatives of several countries are not anymore allowed to talk with each other officially. The representation of interests is entrusted to other countries. The Netherlands were non-aligned, and therefore very popular! For instance: Germany and Austria-Hungary asked the Netherlands to protect their interests in China.

In Constantinople the situation was the same. The Dutch ambassador Van der Does de Willebois played an important role. He took office in 1908 and stayed until his disease in 1919. He succeeded in collecting a lot of information, particularly thanks to his good relation with the German ambassador. One can follow the progress of the war in his political briefings, but also learn about the economic situation in Turkey. And of course he characterizes the key players on the Turkish stage: Talat Pasha, Enver Pasha, Ismail Hakki Pasha etc. But Mustafa Kemal Pasha is not yet mentioned in the briefings.

**Representation of interests**

Foreign interests were dealt with by the Dutch ambassador in Constantinople, such as Russian and French funds, as well as other Russian, French and British interests. He also took care of foreign concerns in Romania. The Dutch legation in Bucharest represented the interests of the inhabitants of Austria-Hungary, as well as the interests of Belgian, Bulgarian, French, Greek, Russian and Spanish inhabitants.
He also dealt with foreign affairs in Bulgaria. In his archives one can find documents concerning the Bulgarian declaration of war to Serbia, documents on the starving people and hostages in Serbia in 1915-1916, on French hostages in Bulgaria in 1916, on Russian interests in Bulgaria in 1915-1921.

**Private documents**

The history of a country is not only to be found in official sources, but also in private archives. Two journals of a trip to Constantinople in 1891 and 1914 are wonderful examples.

In 1891, a 19 year old student of a Polytechnic School, cruised across the Mediterranean Sea. He visited Constantinople and was profoundly impressed by this city. During his visit to Constantinople he purchases a photograph of the Galata Bridge. The bridge spanning the Golden Horn connects the ancient city with the Galata quarters located in the suburb of Pera, now called Beyoğlu. This is the ‘modern Constantinople’ according to the student.

Louis Constant Westenenk had passed his civil service examination already in 1892 and was immediately given a posting in the Dutch East Indies. When he is on leave back the Netherlands in 1913, the Government appoints him to the post of Inspector-General of Anatolia in order to implement a number of reforms. That was the reason why he and his family travelled to Constantinople in 1914.

**The German emperor became asylum in the Netherlands, 1918-1920**

The conclusion of my presentation is that a non-aligned country, as the Netherlands were in the First World War, played a special role in mediation and gathering information.

And to give asylum to whom has lost the right to live in his fatherland. On November 10th, 1918 a picture was made on a small railway station at the border of the Netherlands. It shows the German emperor Wilhelm II. The Dutch government gave him permission to buy an estate in the neighbourhood of Utrecht. He declared to our queen that he would live as a private person and abstain from political activities. So, he lived there as a peace-loving landowner until he died in 1941.

**Treaty of Friendship between the Netherlands and the new Republic of Turkey, 1925**

After the revolution, the recognition of Mustafa Kemal Atatürk as the new leader of Turkey, the Treaty of Lausanne of 1923, which many Turks viewed as an acceptable solution, followed the new peace negotiations with the allies. The Treaty of Friendship between the Netherlands and the new Republic of Turkey was signed in 1925.
In the United Kingdom as in all the countries represented here today, the First World War was one of the most traumatic events of the twentieth century, with about 908,371 men from the British Empire losing their lives in the conflict, while millions of others were wounded, taken prisoners, or went missing in action. It is therefore not surprising that the whole of The National Archives is mobilised to mark the Centenary through First World War 100, an extensive programme spanning a five-year period between 2014 and 2019.

As all the Departments and Ministries were involved in the war effort, our First World War collections are extremely rich and varied. We have, for instance, medal cards and service records, War Office correspondence, maps and plans, colonial photographs and despatches, diplomatic documents and treaties, Admiralty charts, sketches and photographs…

We have therefore decided to break the programme down into ten different workstreams which allow us to cover the main aspects of the conflict as disclosed by the records we hold. There are five thematic workstreams: ‘Diplomacy’ (2014), ‘Technology’ (2015), ‘Home Front’ (2016), ‘Air and Sea’ (2017) and ‘Peace’ (2018-2019); and, because we are particularly interested in the global aspect of the conflict, five geographical workstreams: ‘India’ (2014-2015), ‘Australasia’ (2015), ‘Middle East’ (2016), ‘The Americas’ (2017), and ‘Africa and Asia’ (2018). We also have decided upon two overarching themes, ‘Medicine and health’ and ‘Bravery and Courage’, which are interwoven into each of the above-mentioned workstreams.

With historical records at its heart, First World War 100 at The National Archives aims to engage new audiences with our collections as well as offering historians and regular archive users fresh insights into this landmark conflict. Our programme offers many ways to get involved – at our Kew site, online and through partnerships.

The main goals of our programme are public engagement: we aim at opening-up our collections and making them more accessible and at prompting all our audiences to engage with the records; developing education tools and services: we are partnering with Anglia Tours to provide teachers and students with an unrivalled opportunity to investigate every aspect of the conflict using original sources and trips to First World War battlefields, and we

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will be running more of our hugely successful education sessions throughout the centenary period; supporting the wider archives sector to participate in the centenary by raising the profile of archives and involving other archives in our activities; and building relationships across the cultural sector.

First World War 100 was launched in November 2013 with a new portal devoted to the First World War. The first big project conducted within the frame of First World War 100 was Operation War Diary, a joint project between The National Archives, Imperial War Museums and Zooniverse launched in January 2014. It involves crowdsourcing data from the unit war diaries in series WO 95 using thousands of volunteers; the data inputted by volunteers will be collected and used to enrich The National Archives’ catalogue descriptions for the unit war diaries, enabling family historians around the world to trace their army ancestors and providing academics and researchers with a better understanding of how the war was fought. In the first 8 weeks, over 10,000 people across the globe have volunteered to tag names, places and other details in the diaries. Initial reports show that there have been 260,096 tags relating to named individuals, 332,484 tags relating to places and nearly 300,000 tags relating to activities. This is the equivalent of two years work or someone working 40 hours a week for four years. This innovative crowdsourcing project goes one step further than traditional transcription by using the data to digitally map and analyse patterns and trends in the unit war diaries offering new perspectives on the First World War.

The first thematic strand of the programme, focusing on diplomacy, encompassed a wide range of activities. We have notably released First World War: A Global View in August 2014. This is an interactive map which highlights key events and figures in countries from Aden to Zanzibar. Drawn directly from our records at The National Archives, the map aims to go beyond the trenches of the Western Front and shows how the war affected different parts of the world. We first focused on the contributions of countries and territories from the British Empire in 1914, and we will continue to develop the map over the next four years, to show more countries and territories across Europe, the Middle East, the Americas, Africa and Asia.

Users can select a country or territory by clicking on a marker on the map or select a name from the list on the left. They can then navigate through the tabs to read about battles, life on the Home Front and much more, and click on the references to find key documents in Discovery, our catalogue, or images in our image library. Each country or territory is illustrated with images, maps and other documents from our collections.

We also held a conference on ‘War and Peace: Diplomacy, Espionage and the First World War’ with internal and external speakers, which was well attended and received excellent feedback, and published a number of blogs on our website.
At the same time, the India workstream focused on outreached and community events and published podcasts on our website.

Now that we are half-way though the second year of our programme, we are thinking of doing more. We will digitize more files to make our collections more easily accessible; for instance, the Unit War Diaries will keep being released online, and the Foreign Office Card Index for 1906-1919 (series FO 1111) is now available through Discovery, our catalogue.

We will further develop existing resources: the ‘First World War: A Global view map’ will be expanded, the web portal will be redesigned to encompass the whole of our centenary activities, we will publish more blogs and continue to work with social media, notably through the @UnitWarDiaries twitter feed.

We will organise more talks, conferences and evening events to highlight our First World War material and engage with a wide range of audiences. We will develop more research projects, historical research, of course, but also scientific research – Operation War Diary is a good example, as researchers who had not engaged with our records before are now applying data science methodology to the Unit War Diaries to support historical research.

We will also endeavour to develop more partnerships, within the UK with other archives, academic and cultural institutions, but also abroad.
The siege of Kut el Amara, in modern day Iraq, began on 7 December 1915, and lasted 147 days, until the 6th (Poona) division, commanded by Sir Charles Townsend, finally surrendered to the Turkish troops led by Nureddin bey on 29 April 1916.

One of the Turkish officers fighting during the siege of Kut, Muhammad Amin Bey, wrote a day-to-day account of the siege from the Turkish point of view. Muhammad Amin Bey left the Turkish army in 1924 and, in 1926, as he had been appointed as Minister of Communications and Works in Iraq, he presented his manuscript to the Historical Section of the Committee of Imperial Defence. This photograph features among those illustrating his account.
The First World War, August 1914 to November 1918, was apparently begun by the assassination of Frants Ferdinand, Austria’s Crown Prince and his wife in June 28th 1914 and was fought across Europe, Russia, Middle East, parts of Africa, America and Far East. However, one could see the covert rivalries and serious conflicts between the European states over their national interests.

On November First, 1914, only three days after the First World War, the then King, Ahmad Shah Qajar issued a statement and declared Iran's neutrality in the war and appointed neutral, peace-loving Mostowfi ul-Mamalek as the Prime Minister. However, Russia, Britain and the Ottoman Empire occupied Iran’s soil from various angles of North, South and West. Therefore, Iran was struggling with political interventions, famine, arms smuggling and occupation, which automatically pushed the country into political anarchy. As Iranian scholar, Dr. Ghani says: Comparing to Belgium, who was occupied by the Germans and French forces, Iran was severely damaged by these bloody occupations.

War in Iran has dividing into three periods: Firstly, beginning of the WW1 up until Baghdad’s capture, which ended Germany and Ottoman Empire’s activities in Iran. Secondly, from Baghdad’s invasion towards the Russian Revolution and its forces' drawdown from Iran. And thirdly, from the deployment of British forces at the end of the war, up until their withdrawal from Iran.

On October First 1914, Ottoman forces invaded western parts of Iran, and captured Ghootoor and Mahabad, under the guise of Russian troops' deployment in Iran. Almost one month after the attack, Iran’s National Parliament resumed its third term, with ardent orations on Iran’s neutrality in the War. Democratic MPs were for the Iran’s entrance to war against Britain and Russia, and in favor of other parties, and moderate MPs were in favor of maintaining Iran’s neutrality in the war, which took effect through the vote of the National Parliament at last. There have been messages from religious authorities in Najaf to Ahmad Shah Qajar, encouraging him to defend Ottoman Empire. However, as the Empire invaded Iran, the religious and political authorities lost steam and impetus to do so.

On November First 1914, a British-Indian regiment occupied oil-rich southern parts of Iran to block Germans and Ottomans access to these oil fields. Hence, as you see, all warmongering states invaded Iran. Five months later, on May 1915, German’s and Austria’s chancellors arrived in Iran with large amount of money and gold to allure heads of tribes.

* Head - National Archives of the I.R. of Iran
Germans were after rivalry with Britain and Russia in Iran; They attempted to smooth the way for her ally, the Ottoman Empire and use geo-strategic Iran and its routes to expand its influence in Afghanistan and India. Germany was trying to destroy Iran’s southern oil fields and set up an uprising against Britain and Russia in the Islamic States through inciting religious sentiments.

Soon after Britain’s progress in the Mesopotamia front, the Ottoman Empire was coerced to realign its forces in this front. Also, Germans were forced to evacuate Iran due to logistical obstacles. Therefore, Britain and Russia replaced Germans instantly. Moscow added up to its occupation and London launched a mop-up operation to cleanse South and Central parts of Iran from German agents. Pro-Germany Iranian Gendarmes were disrupted in clashes with British forces and the commanders were expelled from Iran.

On October 1915, as Russian army advanced towards Tehran, some of the Iranian officials, encouraged by Germans, said they would transfer Iran’s capital from Tehran to Isfahan. They also formed a National Defense Committee. The British opposed the idea. However, the Committee, consisted of democrats, nationalists, pro-Germans and those who were against Russia and Britain, primarily went to Qom city and formed an interim government headed by Nezam Ul-Saltane Maafi, governor of Loristan. Maafi, allied with Iranian nationalists committee in Berlin and heads of tribes tried to form a resistance army.

After the formation of immigrants government, cooperated with nationalist committees, a small army was formed and Nezam Ul-Saltane and Field Marshal Goelts, whose forces were stationed in Ottoman Empire’s soil, signed a treaty and started to train Iranian soldiers in Kermanshah city by the German officers. Aided by Germans and Ottomans, immigrants government appointed governors for some of the regions, established order, made rules to collect tax, re-organized gendarmerie, equipped defense forces and established relations with heads of tribes and those Swedish commanders of gendarmerie who were supporting Germany. However, as the Ottomans were defeated and Germans withdrawal from Iran, rifts began to appear among the autocratic Nezam Ul-Saltane and his peers and finally, the resistance force was disrupted.

As Bolsheviks assumed the helm in Russia in 1917, the remains of the Russia army in Iran were disrupted and Russian troops fled to Russia. Iran instantly recognized new government in Russia and on January First 1918, an agreement was signed between Iran and Russian and Moscow withdrew its troops from Iran.

As Russia pulled out of war, Britain was increasingly concerned about German army’s penetration into India through Caucasus and Iran. Therefore, General Dunsterville was appointed to make a defense line against Germans and advance towards Baku. Allied forces were worried about the spread of communists’ thoughts and movements and other nations’ being inspired by such thoughts. Now, Iran had gotten rid of Russians’ tenure, but caught in the talons of the British, who were simply afraid of Germans’ and Bolsheviks’
IMPACTS OF WWI ON IRAN

influence. During the time, anti-Britain movements clearly burgeoned such as nationwide nationalization of oil in Iran between 1951 to 1953 and its repercussions even continued up until 1979 Revolution in Iran.

Later in 1918, almost the entire Iranian soil was occupied by the British forces and despite the truce in 1918, the army stayed in Iran by 1921 and their deployment was an obstacle for the natural development of the country. There were important uprising against the British occupation in Iran, including „Warriors of Tangistan“ on August 1915 in Bushehr city and Khuzestan tribes war on British colonialism in 1914 and 1915, which were symbols of Iranians resistance.

After four years of war and the defeat of the Central Powers, Paris Peace Conference, on January 1919, and the Treaty of Versailles on 28th of June 1919 ended the conflicts in the world. Iran was hopeful to revive its lost rights with the participation in the peace conference. Tehran’s requests were mainly rotated around three axes of political, economic and judicial sections including: Withdrawal of all foreign forces from Iran; abolition of 1907 treaty; elimination of 1911 ultimatum; payback of Iran’s claims; compensation of damages from Iran; ceding of south police authority to Iran; revising former treaties, as well as inviting Iran to Peace Conference.

Headed by the then foreign minister, Ali-Qoli Ansari, or Moshaver Ul-Mamalek, Iran sent a delegation to the peace conference in Versailles to revive Iran’s downtrodden rights. However, the British opposed the participation and obstructed the way.

In a book on the Great Famine and Ethnic Cleansing of 1917-19, based on the records of the US National Archives and Records Administration, Mohammad Qoli Majd says that during the World War One, a great famine was occurred in Iran, during which 8 and 10 million out of 20-million Iranian people fell victim. In other words, 40% of the population fell prey to the famine and malnutrition. The author, Majd, hold British government responsible for the calamities, saying that the British government used ethnic cleansing and massacre as the tools to dominate over Iran. At the time, large amounts of popular food were designated to feed the British army, depleting the food reserves for the nation. Majd continued that the British army prevented the import of food from Mesopotamia, India and even the United States. Therefore, the Iranian society was disrupted. The author came to this conclusion that „with no doubt, the British used the famine and ethnic cleansing as the major tools to rule over Iran“. Majd comments are also challenged by other scholars such as Abbas Milani. Milani says that Majd was after selected records to prove his pre-judgements. However, historical records prove the occurrence of a massive famine and massacres in Iran during the WWI, in a way that Iran turned out to be ruins. Famine forced the people to eat grass and contagious diseases like typhoid and typhus killed many others. Heavy traffic of soldiers destroyed villages and routes, and bandits ransacked people’s properties. Nightmare of Bolshevism, impotent government, secessionist movements and rift among various segments inside the country paved the way for the collapse of the Qajar Dynasty and the emergence of Pahlavi dictatorship.
Majd alluded to telegraphs and messages as well as the articles of the then papers, saying that the famine was rampant in the entire country. Majd says:

Ra’ad Newspaper writes on January 11th 1918: According to the police report, 51 residents died of hunger and cold weather on the streets last week. On 20th of the same year Ra’ad says: In the past couple of days, many people in Baar-Foroush city and other towns near the Caspian Sea died of cholera. On 28th of January, Ra’ad writes on the situation in Qom city: In Qom there is no food whatsoever. In the past week, more than 50 people died of hunger and cold weather and some of them have not been buried yet. On February 5th 1918, Ra’ad writes about the death toll across the city of Tehran: „Governor of Tehran has reported to the minister of interior that in the past 20 days, the number of casualties from the famine has risen to 520. On the average, 36 people daily.

In the spring of 1918, the famine intensified and on March 1st 1918, Caldol sent the following telegraph: „Due to meager political situation and famine, the cabinet would resign.“

On 16th of March 1918, Sholer, Secretary of US Aid Committee in Iran sent a telegraph to Charles Vickery in New York saying that the „Worrisome situation continues. Hundreds of people have died. Food for 20-thousand Tehran residents has been procured and relief operation for Mashad, Hamedan, Qazvin, Kermanshah, and Sultan Abad is underway.“ On 17th of April Caldol sent another telegraph saying that „famine has become widespread and unrest is increasing in the northwest.

Majd believes that comparison of Iran’s population between the years of 1914 and 1918 reveals that almost 10 million people have died from famine and diseases during these years. On the contrary to some authors’ claims about Iran’s population to be only 10 million before the WWI and despite allegations of some British papers in 1960s and 1970s, Iran’s population was almost 20 million at the time. However, in 1919, the number reduced to 11 million. Indeed, it took 4 years for Iran to reach this 11 million. In 1956, the Iranian population was not 20 million. Famine during the 1917-19 was surely a massive disaster in the history of Iran and possibly a horrendous massacre in the 20th Century.

In fall 1917, due to Tehran election, 75 thousand votes were given in Tehran and its suburbia. According to Iran Newspaper, 12 elected representatives gained 55 thousand votes and regarding the fact that only over 21-year-old men had the right to vote, and with respect to 6 member in a family, one could estimate that Tehran population was almost 500 thousand in 1917. Schuster’s estimate is also around the same number. He has estimated that Iran’s population in the year 1900 was between 13-15 million which is near the estimate of Russel in 1914. However, in 1917, as cited Tehran’s residents in 1917 and based on the results of the election stood at 400-500 thousand. Also, in 1924, Robert W Ambry, US Consul in Tehran had estimated the population between 150-200 thousand people.
THE OFFICE OF EUROPEAN WAR: SPANISH HUMANITARIAN AID DURING THE FIRST WORLD WAR

Juan José ALONSO *

A few days after the outbreak of the Great War, a Royal Decree issued by the Spanish government declared “the strictest neutrality of Spanish citizens, having regard to prevailing statutes and the principles of international public law.” And yet Spain was not entirely untouched by the conflict. But as a neutral country it had various rights and obligations under The Hague Convention of 1907.

The Convention prescribed that a neutral State was barred from taking part in armed conflict and from providing military support to any of the belligerents. However, during the First World War, though neutral, Spain took an active role in humanitarian aid, both through government bodies and the personal efforts of Alfonso XIII.

1. Archive holdings in the Archivo General de Palacio relating to the First World War

The Archivo General de Palacio is a state-owned public archive containing archive holdings directly relating to the Head of State since the twelfth century.

The holdings of the Archivo include records that are closely related to the First World War – chiefly to do with humanitarian aid, given by Spain as a State but also, and to an even greater extent, by the monarch himself, both during and after the conflict.

The records held at the Archivo General de Palacio constitute the fullest existing testimony in Spanish archives of the First World War. They provide an intimate history of that conflict – the story of millions of European families who suffered through it.

The documents have two main provenances:

• the Spanish embassies in Paris and Berlin;
• the Private Secretary of HM Alfonso XIII.

The archive group from the Spanish embassies in Paris and Berlin collect the series that reveal the steps taken by the Ministerio de Estado through its diplomatic legations in the belligerent countries.

As a neutral country, Spain protected the interests of both sides. Every Spanish Embassy,

* Director - Archives of the Royal Palace of the State Archives of Spain
legation and consulate made efforts to improve the living conditions of prisoners of war and of civilian victims of war.

The embassies’ documents were kept in the *Archivo General de Palacio* together with eleven conventional index card containing an alphabetical index of names of soldiers and civilians associated to the files. This material takes up 1,017 bundles and is now in the process of being analysed and identified.

2. The Office of European War

The second archive group relating to the First World War comes from the private Secretary of HM Alfonso XIII.¹ These documents show the Spanish monarch’s own efforts of humanitarian aid, managed through his own Office.

Alfonso XIII, as the king of a neutral country, was related through dynastic ties to the other royal families of Europe. His mother, Maria Christina von Habsburg-Lothringen, was the Archduchess of Austria and a Princess of Hungary. As the daughter of Archduke Charles Ferdinand of Austria, she was the second cousin of the Emperor of Austria. His wife, Queen Victoria Eugenia of Battenberg, was British-born, a grand-daughter of Queen Victoria of United Kingdom of Great Britain. So it was not entirely surprising that many Europeans placed their hopes in a neutral king who could pull strings through his embassies to gather news about their loved ones.

The beginnings of the *Office of European War* are to be found in a letter from a washerwoman from the Gironde, in France. She wrote to the King of Spain asking him to do anything he could to find her husband, who had been reported missing after the Battle of Charleroi. Through his embassies in Paris and Berlin, Alfonso XIII managed to locate the washerwoman’s husband, who was a prisoner of war in Germany. News of this event was published in the French daily *La Petite Gironde* on 18 June 1915. From then on, the Royal Palace received a flood of petitions – first from France, but soon from many other countries of Europe and beyond.

From the outbreak of the war, information requests were handled by the King’s personal secretary, Emilio María de Torres. But the sheer volume of requests soon became overwhelming. Additional premises and staff were accordingly allocated to this task. The original staff of one secretary (Emilio María de Torres) and three diplomats (the Duke of Miranda, Enrique de Liniers y Muguiro and Luis Muro y Navarro) grew to become a team of forty officials. The *Oficina de la Guerra Europea* had been born.

More than two hundred thousand requests for help came in from people in all walks of life, ranging from the working classes to the aristocracy, but all sharing the same concern: to find a loved one who had been missing to them. Some of the applicants were famous, as were a few of the people enquired about. Examples include the Russian ballet dancer Vaslav
Nijinsky, the Italian composer Giacomo Puccini, the French painter Jean-Paul Laurens, the English writer Rudyard Kipling, the Belgian historians Henri Pirenne and Paul Fredericq, the French performer Maurice Chevalier, and the future statesman Charles De Gaulle.

To speed things up, a specific procedure was created and templates were drawn up with the aim of replying promptly to the mass of correspondence which was piling up at the King’s office. A filing system was devised which eventually encompassed more than 200,000 indexed names. Small flags were pinned to the files to represent the respective belligerent nations.

Most of the files generated in the course of this humanitarian aid work are now stored at the Archivo General de Palacio, and take up more than 660 archive boxes. So far, name-based files were located using alphabetically indexed cards kept at the Office of European War.

The 660 boxes have the following contents:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Number of files</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>France and Belgian forces</td>
<td>111,870</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German forces</td>
<td>12,210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British forces</td>
<td>6,951</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italian forces</td>
<td>5,421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria-Hungarian forces</td>
<td>4,970</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portuguese forces</td>
<td>306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian forces</td>
<td>245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romanian forces</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States forces</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serbian forces</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgarian forces</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civilians (of all countries)</td>
<td>63,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repatriation of the wounded and sick</td>
<td>16,560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain (soldiers and civilians)</td>
<td>404</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total number of files</strong></td>
<td><strong>222,431</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A file-type contains the following documents:

- **Letter applying for information, repatriation, etc.** Applications mostly came from family members of the person after whom the file was named (parents, siblings, wives, etc), although occasionally families made their request through a go-between or sponsor (usually a socially prestigious person: members of the aristocracy or the haute bourgeoisie, university professors or senior government officials).

- **Information cards drawn up by the relevant section of the Office.** In these cards, all identifying data were filled out, including military rank, purpose of the application and
circumstances of the person’s disappearance. The procedures followed are traceable by the various stamps affixed by the King’s office itself and Spain’s embassies in various European capitals, particularly Berlin, Vienna and Paris.

- Some files also contain other documents recording inquiries made through embassies or photographs of the missing person provided by his family.

- Most of the files are written in the vernacular language of the applicant; many of them are in French, which was the diplomatic language of the time. The high proportion of French-language documents is of course related also to the total number of files relating to French and Belgian nationals.

The King’s Office started out as a mechanism to search for people who had gone missing in the course of the war. However, it soon took on many other roles. Procedures were channelled through the following sections, forming the following series:

- **Wounded soldiers and prisoners of war.** This section aimed to locate missing soldiers or report on their state of health at prisoner-of-war camps. And Interventions were often made to improve camp living conditions.

- **Prisoner repatriation and exchange.** During the First World War there were more than seven million prisoners confined in labour camps, hospitals and lazarets. The Office of European War set up a section specifically dealing with more than 16,000 applications for repatriation or exchange of prisoners of war and wounded soldiers.

- **Information in occupied countries.** This section was in charge of providing information and protection to the civilian population:
  - News and information was supplied to people and families who had been cut off from one another by frontiers created by the war and who could not otherwise communicate. The King’s Office also helped by sending money or documents (birth and marriage certificates, powers of attorney, etc) to family members.
  - When a family member’s whereabouts were ascertained it was frequent for the King of Spain to intervene to achieve repatriation.
  - The King also mediated often to obtain pardons or milder prison sentences for civilian convicts.

Applications from France and Belgium came in far greater number than those from the British Empire, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Serbia, Russia, Portugal or Italy. This was partly due to geographical proximity and ease of communication. But it also reflected the fact that Spain, as a neutral State, had taken upon itself to protect the interests of those countries – and the interests of Russia – in their enemy states, the Central Powers. From the diplomatic standpoint it was more practical for the Spanish embassies in Germany and Austria-Hungary
to carry through the necessary formalities. As to applicants from other countries, whose interests were under the charge of non-belligerents other than Spain, the initial approach was to notify the applicant that his or her request could not be fulfilled. However, it soon became the case that Spain fulfilled those requests also, albeit indirectly.

According to the statistics drawn up by the King’s Office itself, 3.74% of missing-person search efforts were successful – that is to say, the missing person was located and found to be alive. 2.51% missing persons were found to be dead. The remaining missing persons were never found. These figures do not seem very high. However, it should be borne in mind that this was due to the very high mortality rate that Europe suffered during this conflict. No letter went unanswered, and all requested enquiries were pursued. The efforts of the King’s Office were duly acknowledged by its European contemporaries.

This fonds also includes 27 boxes containing 2,609 reports on the visits of Spanish delegates to German prisoner-of-war camps and a further 3 boxes with 206 of reports on visits to Austro-Hungarian camps, and 12 reports on visits to Italian camps with Austro-Hungarian prisoners.

The records of the King’s Office preserved at the Archivo General de Palacio further include close to 3,100 photographs from the German press agency Bild-und Film-Amt (BUFA) and, to a lesser extent, other sources (Militärische Film & Photostelle, Abteilung Inland, Lichtbildstelle K.K. Kriegspressequartier, Section Photographique de L’Armée, Associated Illustration Agencies Ltd, and the German Wolf agency), which make for a total 3,348 images. These have already been catalogued and digitised, together with a large collection of propaganda posters and maps.

Since 2010 the Archivo General de Palacio has undertaken several archival processing tasks, consisting of:

- identifying the various series that make up the fonds
- preventive storage of the documents to a better preservation
3. Project of describing and disseminating

In addition, we have drawn up a plan for cataloguing and disseminating the fonds of the Office of European War.

We would have liked to present the results of this project in 2015, the centenary year of the creation of the Office of European War. However, we have suffered various delays, chiefly caused by inadequate funding.

The scheduled milestones are slated for the period running from 2015 to 2017. The project comprises three phases.

The first phase focuses on describing files individually and recording them in a specific database for this archives group. Three types of data will be extracted from each file:

- First, the details identifying each person to which the file refers: name, age, nationality, occupation or military rank, address and case type.

- Secondly, the personal details of the applicant, including degree of consanguinity or affinity, application date, address, and whether or not the application is made through a go-between or sponsor.

- Finally the archival details on the location code and identification so as to relate the file to the documentary series and archive group of which it forms part.

Most of the data to be filled out in the cataloguing sheets are in fact already provided in the original card attached to the file itself. But it is also important to include any data in the application letter that might provide additional details of interest.

The second phase involves full digitisation of the holding, which comprises more than 220,000 files, some of which include photographs of the persons enquired after – generally portraits. We estimate that the overall process involves digitising more than 1,100,000 images.

Finally, the third phase consists of disseminating the fonds of the Office of European War. This involves two distinct but complementary approaches.

First, creating a website. The ultimate purpose of this project is of course to make available all the information provided by these documents to thousands of potential users.

The website content would revolve around the central core of this project:

- Introduction to the history and functioning of the Office of European War

- Database for searching the files within the project

- Image bank containing digital copies of the files and their attached graphical materials: photographs, postcards, posters, newspapers and magazines.
• Image gallery containing the more than 3,000 photographs kept by the *Archivo General de Palacio* in relation to the First World War

• Related documents: correspondence and files relating to the King’s Office: staff dossiers, diplomatic correspondence, management procedure files.

• Studies relating to the King’s Office and the First World War

• Interactive maps and graphics

Among potential users we would highlight two types, against a background that goes beyond the frontiers of Europe and might even embrace hundreds of thousands of people. First, professional researchers specialising in the First World War or other academic disciplines (military history, social history, humanitarian aid, demographics, genealogy, etc). Secondly, the descendants of combatants and military and civilian missing persons on both sides who take an interest in their ancestors’ role in the war. And of course the wider public can search for data or information for the sake of entertainment or in pursuit of their own interests.

Finally, the *Archivo General de Palacio* is at the early stages of designing the crowning-point of this dissemination phase. We shall mount an *exhibition* to raise awareness of the humanitarian aid efforts overseen by Alfonso XIII. Recognition is also due to the many officials at the King’s Office itself and at Spain’s embassies in the belligerent countries who took part in this work. It is, of course, just as important to remember the suffering and desolation caused by war, through the testimony preserved in the many files of the *Office of European War*. 
Centro Documental de la Memoria Histórica
(Salamanca)
Reference code: ES.37274.CDMH/PS-FOTOGRAFIAS.044_064

Title: France. Women of the Red Cross managing American aid for soldiers on the war front
First of all, I would sincerely like to thank you for your kind invitation to join this commemorative event. It is a great honor for me and for our organization, Japan Center for Asian Historical Records, to be here and to share our presentation with you all.

Almost one year ago, on April 25 of 2014, I was attending the ANZAC Day Commemorative Ceremony in honor of fallen soldiers and veterans from World War One at the Australian Embassy in Buenos Aires. I was there as deputy chief of the Japanese Embassy in Argentina. The ceremony was so solemn and significant that all the participants, including ambassadors from Australia, New Zealand and Turkey, showed their deepest condolences for the victims and their strong will for reconciliation and peace. I was deeply impressed and was very proud to be there sharing in the spirit of reconciliation and peace. There were only two participants from Asian countries, the Turkish ambassador and myself.

During the ceremony, I never imagined that one year later, I would visit Turkey and would have the opportunity to present on World War One as well as Turkey and Japan. This coincidence is truly surprising and it is a great honor for me personally to be here.
What is JACAR?

- Digital archive established in Nov. 2001
- Japan’s past relationship with various neighboring Asian countries and regions
- Digitize Asian historical documents and release online
- Spans from the beginning of the Meiji era to the end of the Pacific War (1868-1952)

Firstly, I would like to give you a brief introduction to our organization Japan Center for Asian Historical Records, which we abbreviate as JACAR.

JACAR is a digital archive established November 2001 as a subsidiary organization of the National Archives of Japan. The original idea for JACAR was revealed in a 1994 speech of the then Prime Minister Murayama.

JACAR offers scanned historical documents relating to the past relationships between Japan and mainly Asian countries and regions. Our digital images, from the Government of Japan, are released online and they are accessible with an internet connection for free all around the world.

Most of the documents online now for perusal were created between the Meiji Era and the end of World War Two—from roughly 1868 to 1952. These documents are provided to JACAR from three governmental organizations, the National Archives of Japan, the Diplomatic Archives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and the National Institute for Defense Studies of the Ministry of Defense.
Over 29 million document images are now available through internet.

This is the English version of JACAR’s website and you can search for documents in English using this search column. The JACAR website includes translated homepage versions also in Japanese, Chinese and Korean, but searches can be executed only in Japanese and English.

One of our documents relating to World War One and Turkey
Turkey and Japan were on opposite sides in World War One as well as in World War Two although the countries have never been in direct combat. In World War One Japan did not send its army to the European theater. In the World War Two Japanese military forces had no presence near Turkey.
Given this historical background, we do not possess many documents related to both Turkey and World War One, but with thorough research we found one Japanese army document mentioning Turkey in World War One—the “Gallipoli” Peninsula Landing Operation Report.” I suspect that this report was written by Japanese military officers sent to several nations of the Allied Forces in order to observe the development of the war.

This is the title page of the report on the Gallipoli Peninsula Landing Operation. There is no name of persons or a section responsible for the report.

This is a map page of the broader area of the operation. The title of the map is “the Map of Dardanelles” and it shows geographical names in Japanese including the Gallipoli Peninsula and Constantinople.
This is the beginning of Chapter 4, which describes the concentration and defenses of the Turkish army. The first section mentions that the Turkish army reinforced their forts and batteries to protect the Gallipoli Peninsula since German navy ships entered Turkish territorial waters.

This page explains the formation of the Allied landing forces. Sentences on the left part of the page enumerate the names and structure of each force. First is the British army corps. From right to left, there appear the 29th Division, District Army 42nd Division, Australian Army 1st and 2nd Division, Indian Army 29th Division and Marine Corps Division. The leftmost sentence indicates the French Army Colonial Army Division. In total, six and a half Allied divisions participated in this operation.
(Page 12) This detailed map shows the development of this landing operation. The letters such as “X,” “Y,” and “S” indicate the landing points of troops described on the upper left. The “Z” at the center indicates the ANZAC landing point. Some town names are given also.

(Page 13) This is the first page of Chapter 6, which describes the withdrawal of the Allied Forces from the Gallipoli Peninsula. In the very first sentence, it claims that Allied Forces on the Gallipoli Peninsula had not been provided with reinforcements of soldiers or sufficient munitions. The last two lines and the first line of next page mention that on January 9, 1916, Allied Forces retreated from the Gallipoli Peninsula and the campaigns were all terminated.

(Page 14) The fourth line declares that this landing operation had not achieved any positive results. After this section Chapter 7 goes over lessons learnt for the future of the Japanese military, however it seems that the lessons were not applied in the Pacific theater of World War Two.
Historical document relating to friendship fostered between Turkey and Japan.

As the final part of my presentation, I would like to discuss an episode concerning the beginning of friendship between our two countries as seen in historical documents.

These documents show the history of Turkish frigate Erutugrul, which was sent to Japan in July of 1889, after a visit of Japanese Prince Komatsu to Turkey in 1887. In response to goodwill from Emperor Meiji to the Emperor of Turkey, the Turkish ship reached Japan in June of 1890 and its crew was enthusiastically welcomed. However, on the return journey, September 16, 1890, there was a huge typhoon and the Erutugrul crashed into a reef off the coast of Japan and sank quickly. About 600 crew members, including the Commander Prince Osman Pasha, lost their lives. Only 69 survivors made it out.

First, I will show the photo of the Erutugrul taken in Japan.
(Page 17) This is a map of Japan and the red circle indicates Wakayama prefecture, where the Erutugrul met with tragedy. In the summer and early autumn, typhoons often pass through this area.

(Page 18) This is the first page of the report relating to this disaster. It is titled “Relief Activity for Turkish Warship which Met with Disaster at Sea.” The central part of this page mentions that the Turkish Warship Erutugrul had 650 crew members including the Commander Prince Osman Pasha. The left side of the page shows the time and place of the tragedy, which was a little past eight at night on September 16, 1890 nearby the Kashinozaki Lighthouse in Wakayama prefecture.

(Page 19) This is the second page of this report and the sentence sidelined mentions how the Turkish Warship Erutugrul was destroyed after crashing into a reef and it rapidly sank.
This is a map of Kashinozaki Point, the accident scene. The red circle at the middle shows the place of the disaster. The small red circle at the right indicates the Kashinozaki Lighthouse, whose two staff members were first to notice the accident. Survivors of the Erutugrul climbed up a cliff near the disaster scene and asked for help. Hearing the situation, one of the lighthouse guards ran out of the lighthouse in the middle of the typhoon to get assistance from nearby villages. The other lighthouse guard offered survivors food, clothes, sheets and other supplies from the lighthouse. The leftmost red circle indicates the burial place of victims who were recovered from the sea by local peoples during and after the typhoon.

This page explains rescue activities carried out by the nearby townspeople. It suggests that villagers of Kashino one by one gathered at the point of disaster in the typhoon and, cooperating with the policemen stationed at Koza (near Kashino), started rescue work as well as supplying drinks and foods for the survivors. The document also mentions that at first injured survivors were transferred to Kashino Primary School and Dairyu Temple for recuperation.

For the injured, doctors and nurses were quickly sent from Wakayama prefecture as well as from Tokyo and other cities. The Imperial family offered relief goods. The Japanese people began to donate to the survivors and the families of the victims on their own initiative. Aid was offered from both public and private sectors.
From this horrific tragedy in the ocean, warm and caring relations blossomed between people of our two countries and it became the beginning of a long friendship between Turkey and Japan.

This page is the Japanese navy order concerning the repatriation of survivors to Turkey. This order was issued by Navy Minister Kabayama Sukenori to both Captain Hidaka Sonojo of the warship Kongo and Captain Tanaka Tsunatsune of the warship Hiei. These two captains were ordered to sail to Turkey to train new Japanese navy crew members as well as to repatriate the Turkish survivors of the disaster. These two warships sailed out on October 5, 1890 with these survivors and safely arrived at Istanbul on January 2, 1891.

This is not the end of this episode, but there is much more.

The month after Japanese battleships brought Erutugrul survivors to Turkey, Japanese constructed a stone monument of condolence and memory at the place of the incident in February of 1891. Later in June of 1937, the monument was repaired and made larger, more splendid.

Every five years a memorial ceremony is held. In 2015, this year, the 125th anniversary of the incident will surely be solemnly observed by a gathering. (It was held on June 3, 2015, three month after my presentation, with the attendance of the Turkish ambassador. At the same time, the Turkish navy ship TCG GEDIZ visited Japan in commemoration of the Erutugrul.)

To conclude my presentation, I would like to mention one final episode.

In 1985, 95 years after the tragedy in the ocean off the coast of Japan, during the Iran Iraq War, Saddam Hussein abruptly announced he would soon order the indiscriminate shooting down of planes over the Iranian territory. Hussein gave a 48 hour warning and many countries swiftly responded with sending planes to repatriate their people. However, Japan somehow could not fly any planes and Japanese residents of Tehran lost their way to escape.

In response, Turkish Air sent two planes to Tehran and rescued the Turkish residents along with Japanese. After the rescue mission, in a newspaper article a Turkish ambassador was quoted as saying that Turkey sent two planes to rescue Japanese, because “We have not forget the Erutugrul. This is our turn”.

Page 22
These words deeply impressed the Japanese people. In 2006, when our then Prime Minister Koizumi visited Turkey, he decorated the crew members of that flight.

Real friendship is long lasting, isn’t it?

For further information, visit
http://www.jacar.go.jp/
or contact enquire@jacar.go.jp

Thank you for sharing your valuable time with me.
1914-1915 Royal Star Medal,
First World War
Ca. 1914-1915

Library and Archives Canada, Acc. No. 1996-90-31
**Introduction**

Good morning.

My name is Johanna Smith, and I am very pleased to be here today representing the Librarian and Archivist of Canada, Dr. Guy Berthiaume.

I know that he would have been pleased and honoured to be here, if his commitments in Canada had not prevented him from attending.

The theme of this event is especially important: by discussing the experience of war, we can contribute to a permanent peace.

This kind of discussion is at the heart of many centenary commemorations marking the anniversary of the Great War.

It ensures that we will never forget the contributions of those who went to war, or the documents which they left behind, and which tell their stories.

The Canadian writer Timothy Findley, in his classic novel about the First World War, *The Wars*, wrote that:

“*As the past moves under your fingertips, part of it crumbles. Other parts, you know you’ll never find. This is what you have.*”

And this is what we have, gatherings like this one, where we come together to remember the contributions of individual nations, in the hope of peace in the future.

**Canada’s role in the First World War**

Canada was one of the first countries to get involved in the First World War, and it altered forever the way we saw ourselves as a nation and as a people.

We were a relatively small nation, barely 8 million people at that time. Yet over 620,000 Canadians enlisted during the course of the war, and most of them were civilians.

They came from all professions, all regions, and all classes.

They served on the western front, in the hospitals behind the lines, in the air, and on the oceans.

They participated in the grim victories at Vimy and Passchendaele, and gave their lives

* Director-Library and Archives of Canada
in battles at the second Ypres and the Somme.

The cost was high, as in any war. Although hundreds of thousands of soldiers, nurses, airmen, and sailors returned to Canada at the end of the Great War, 60,000 never came home.

Thousands more died from their wounds and injuries in the years after armistice was declared.

The war continued to have an impact long after it ended, and it continues to have an impact today.

**Our records**

At Library and Archives Canada, we have the largest and most significant collection of original First World War records documenting Canada’s role in the conflict.

These include the official records, such as personnel files, attestation papers, medical records, battlefield maps, trench newspapers, orders-in-council, and more. Along with basic information such as a soldier’s age, occupation before the war, next of kin, date and place of birth, and the like, these kinds of records are often remarkable in the precision of details which they contain.

Maps describe the terrain of battle, war diaries outline the plans and strategies for impending campaigns, as well as the day to day life of a soldier. Orders in council and other government documents offer an insight into how critical decisions were made during the war, and how Canada was coping with issues such as conscription.

Additionally, our records include medals, photographs, journals, and letters, which tell the stories of war in other ways from the official accounts.

Collectively, these records are among the most widely used resources in LAC’s care. They document the daily experiences of those who went to war, from the mundane to the extreme.

I’d like to read you an extract from one journal, the words of a Canadian soldier who fought at the second battle at Ypres.

“For forty-eight hours we have been working without a stop, and still the fighting is going on, and the wounded are falling faster than we can pick them up. It has rained all week. The trenches are knee-deep – in some places waist-deep, with mud and water. The dead and wounded lie everywhere; in trenches, and shell pits, and along the sodden roads. Two thousand wounded have passed through our hands since the attack. Hundreds more are dying of exposure a mile away, and we cannot reach them.”

**FWW records online**

LAC is committed to making the records of this war available.

LAC has now made all of its FWW collections fully open to the public through a
process to review and remove any formal access restrictions. The last collection to be opened was the Courts Martial Records, which document trials and charges under the Army Act.

Exemplifying the conservation challenges inherent in these materials, the paper originals of the Courts Martial Records no longer exist at all. They only survive as microfilm copies. Other physical records would be lost as well, along with the history they represent, in the absence of comprehensive digitization efforts.

Digitization of the First World War records has national significance for Canada, not only in the context of the war’s centenary, but also as we approach the 150th anniversary of Canada’s confederation in 2017.

LAC’s current digitization effort includes:

- 640,000 soldiers’ service files,
- other First World War documents, such as memoirs and photographs,
- and the creation of a website that will tell the individual stories of 100 soldiers, officers and nurses, through the collections held at LAC.

I’d like to focus for a few minutes on the project to digitize the soldier’s service files, which began in 2013.

**CEF project**

Representing approximately 16 million pages, the plan to digitize these files constitutes one of the biggest and most ambitious historical preservation projects ever undertaken at LAC.

The service files contain several types of documents, including those related to enlistment, training, medical and dental history, hospitalization, discipline, pay, medal entitlements, discharges, notifications of death, and so on.

The process itself was specifically designed for these fragile and invaluable records, which up to now have been stored in 10,702 boxes and kept in our climate-controlled vaults.

The first step is to examine the contents of every box to identify any potential conservation needs, such as the treatment of records damaged by mold, and to photograph any personal items the boxes contain.

One of the most delicate tasks in the process is the removal of the fasteners which hold the papers together. Over 400 pounds of bindings, including tacks, staples, pins and paperclips, were removed from the first 7,500 boxes of files alone!

Depending on the condition and size of the records, a high speed scanner or a flatbed is used for digitization. Once the records are digitized, they are linked to LAC’s “Soldiers of the First World War” database, where clients can access the files through a range of search options.
Currently, over 119,000 complete soldiers’ files are now available online. We also link these with other web resources, including the database of the Imperial War Museum.

The service files join LAC’s growing list of fully digitized FWW collections. These include death registers, commonwealth war graves registers, diaries and letters from Canada’s nursing sisters, war artist collections, oral histories, and musical recordings from the FWW era available on iTunes through LAC’s Virtual Gramophone project.

All of the service files have also been released as open data, to ensure others can connect to and use them in meaningful ways. This will ensure their relevancy both now and in the future.

This open data approach points to the way this project is driving a number of related, spin-off projects. These include:

• A collaboration between LAC and The Muninn Project, using FWW medical case files as linked open data.

• 100 stories, an interpretation of Canada’s role in the war through the lives of 100 soldiers, officers, and nurses.

• Out of the Trenches, a linked open data project with Canadiana.org.

• Lest We Forget, which provides digitized service records to Canadian students so they can research the stories of soldiers in their communities.

**Conclusion**

As Canada and the world commemorate the 100th anniversary of the First World War, LAC is proud to be able to offer unprecedented access to these records, both now and in the future, and to inspire creative use and re-use of the information, images, and insights these records contain.

Many of our peer institutions around the globe are engaged in similar projects to digitize and provide access to First World War records.

Through archival memory, and through our collective effort to make this memory accessible, we discover common international ground emerging from one of the most important events of the twentieth century, one which had a profound effect on the individual histories of our nations. On that common ground, ideally we can advance a dialogue in support of lasting peace.

Thank you.
KAZAKISTAN / KAZAKHSTAN

MERKEZ DEVLET ARŞİVİ FONLARINDAN BİR PARÇA: BİRİNCİ DÜNYA SAVAŞI. KAZAKISTAN'DA 1916 YILINDA GERÇEKLEŞEN ULUSAL KURTULUŞ AYAKLANMASI

Lyazzat AKTAYEVA *

Kazakistan Cumhuriyeti Merkez Devlet Arşivi ülkenin en büyük arşivlerinden biridir. Buradaki eski belgeler 18. yüzyılın 30 yıllarına aittir ve toplam 1.5 milyondan fazla belge mevcuttur.


Gelecek sene Rus sömürgeciliği ve Rus zulümü karşısında Kazakistan’da meydana gelen ulusal kurtuluş ayaklanmasının 100. yıldönümüdür. Halk kitlesinin ayaklanmasının nedeni onların özgürlüğe kavuşmasından kaynaklanmaktadır, çünkü bu Kazaklara karşı yapılan milli baskıya, adaletsizliğe ve aşağılayıcı bir duruma karşı bir mücadeleydı.


Yönetim kurulu arşivleri fonunda Kazak bozkırında askeri bir durum meydana getirilmesi, alt rutbeliler dahil askerlikle görevlilerin askere alınması, ayrıca 2.dereceli gönlü askerlerin savaş durumuna getirilmesi ve onların tam listesinin hazırlanması, bununla birlikte Kazakların cephe gerisi çalışmaları seferberliğine dair belgeler bulunmaktadır [1].

Arşiv belgeleri harp esirlerinin getirildiğini ortaya koymaktadır. Bilgilere göre, ancak

* Genel Müdür - Kazakhstan Cumhuriyeti Merkez Devlet Arşivi
1915 yılında Türkistan’a yaklaşık 45.000 harp esirinin getirildiği bilinmektedir.

Savaş yıllarında Kazakistan topraklarında Taşkent demiryolu, daha doğrusu Yedisu demiryolu inşa edilmeye başlanmış ve orada çalışanların büyük kısmını yerli Kazaklar oluşturdu. Arşiv belgelerine göre bazı Kazaklar kendi çadırlarında yaşamış, bazıları ise ince ahşap sıralardan yapılmış barakalarda barınmak zorunda kalmışlardır [2].

Burada söylenmesi gereken diğer bir husus ta arşiv belgeleri arasında Yedisu demiryolu inşaatında çalışmasına izin verilen yabancı uyruklu harp esirlerinin mevcut olduğuna rastlamak mümkündür. Bu harp esirleri ayrıca Çimkent, Vanovka, Merki, Evliya Ata ve Pişpek vs. istasyonlarının inşaatında katılmışlardır.


Birincisi, orduda hizmet yapan Kazakların arazileri korunarak Rus göçmen köylülerine bahane olarak verilmemesi;


Yavaş yavaş kendiliğinden oluşan hareketler düzenli bir nitelik kazanmaya başladı. Bu düzenli hareketlerin arkasında büyük harp ocağları meydana gelmiştir: bu Amangeldi İmanov, Bekbolat Aşkeev ve U. Savurukov önderliğinde Turgay ve Yedisu merkezleriydi [7].

ilk Rusya Hükümeti tüm Türkistan Bölgesinde bir askeri durum ilan etti. İsyancılar aleyhine büyük tenkil müfrezeleri göndermişti.

Sömürgecilere, etnik çatışmaları tutuşturabilmek için Yedisu’da yaşayan rus nüfusunu İsyancılar aleyhine tutuşturabilmek için Yedisu’yu’n Askeri Valisi Folbaum’un kararlarıyla o bölgelerde yaşayan rus asıllı milletlerden isyancılar karşı savaşacak silahlı bölgelerinin kurulması isteniyordu.

Bu dilekçeye eyaletlerde baş gösteren isyanların sebepleri ve yerli bürokratların zorbalıkları da eklenmişlerdi.

“...Bozkır Kazaklarının arasında huzursuzluklar artmaktadır. İşlerini bırakarak kendileri hayvanlarını bozkırların tenha köşelerine savmaktadır. Onlar mızrak, tırpan ve aybalta ile silahlanmışlar...” - diye kaydedilmiş arşiv belgelerinin birinde...[8].


Yedisu ve Türkistan Bölgesinde askeri bir durum ilan edilmiş. Çarlık Hükümeti Kazak isyancılarını bastırmak için oralara en güçlü askeri kuvvetlerini naklettiler, muhafiz kuvvetlerini sağlamlaştırarak silahlı bölükler kurdular. Böylece büyük bir kanlı katliam işlenmişti.

Kazakların milli kurtuluş mücadelesi acımasızca bastırıldı. Mahkemesiz hüküm sürenler ve Rus göçmenlerinden oluşan cezalandırıcı bölüklerin elinden vefat edenler hariç pek çok Kazak Türkiye edilmiş diğerleri Sibiryaya müebbet çareye caizsına çarpılmıştı. Kazakların birkaç sınıftan seçilmiş güçleriniシリューベルタルカレッタメンダルを組むよって、束縛されるゾーンでは表現をしたかったらしい。

Akmola ve Abasgar Eyaleti isyancılar ayrı ayrı grup halinde Torgay Eyaletine geçerek Amangeldi Batyr’ın müfrezelerine katılmışlardı. Bu bölüklerden bazıları Şubat 1917 Devrimine kadar bağımsız olarak hareket etmişlerdi.

1916 Milli Kurtuluş Savaşı Kazak halkın sınıf şuurunun arttığını göstermektedir. bilincinin bir büyüme gösterdi. 1916 Ayaklanması esnasında Kazak bozkırında yaşayan farklı nüfus tabakaları ulusal bağımsızlık fikri etrafında birleşmişti.

**Arşiv Belgeleri**

1916 году Казахстан'ада выполненный взаимное соглашение осуществляли один из Bekbolat Ashekeyev илгилелеринен болган Bekbolat Ashekeyev с цепьи

Казахстан Cumhuriyeti Merkezi Devlet Arşivi,
Dosya 76
Central State Archive of the Republic of Kazakhstan is one of the leading archival institutions and the largest archives of the country in which funds are more than 1.5 million documents, the earliest documents relate to the 30th of the 18th century.

The funds of the Central State Archive of the Republic of Kazakhstan concentrated several thousand documents on the 1916 uprising. It also contains copies of the documents that are stored in the archives in Moscow, St. Petersburg, Uzbekistan, Tatarstan and the Omsk region. None of the national liberation movements took place in the Kazakh steppe until 1917, does not have such abundant documentation.

Next year will mark 100 years of national liberation uprising in Kazakhstan against colonial oppression of the Russian autocracy. Speech of the masses was a struggle for freedom and against national oppression, injustice, humiliating position in which there were the Kazakh people.

During the First World War seriously affected the economy of Kazakhstan. Taxes increased by 3-4 times, and in some cases 15 times. And included a special war tax. Continued abuse at all levels of the colonial system. In addition to direct and indirect taxes collected the various “donations”, in respect of which from Kazakhs was selected livestock and yurts. Kazakhs had to deliver meat, bread, cattle and yurts troops following the front through the territory of Kazakhstan. Kazakh economy has suffered enormous damage worth millions of rubles. Arable land was shrinking as the Kazakh and resettlement, resulting in dramatically increased the price of bread.

The archive of administrative agencies, provide information on the introduction of martial law in the Stepnoy region, the call to military service conscripts, including the lower ranks, Warriors 2 militia discharge lists of warriors, the mobilization of the Kazakhs in the rear of work, etc.[1].

Archival documents indicate arrived prisoners. According to reports, only 1915 in Turkestan arrived about 45,000 prisoners of war.

During the war years in Kazakhstan built Tashkent Railway, namely Semirechenskaya railroad, on construction work were mainly local Kazakhs. According to archive documents, some Kazakhs had their tent, and some lived in huts made of light poles, boards [2].

Among the archival documents contain information about foreign-filed prisoners

* General Director-Central State Archive of the Republic of Kazakhstan
allowed to work on the construction of the railway Semirechensk. POWs worked at the station Shymkent, Vannovsky, Merke, Aulie-Ata, Pishpek and so on.

According to the archives in Aulie-Ata about 300 war prisoners - cockroaches, Slavs, Austrian Jews and Ruthenians. Prisoners of war were used in educational workshops as masters and instructors. In the archival documents were found documents on charges of war in the rejection of the work of railway workers, insulting officials, to escape from the links, it has been a strict secret surveillance for travel and activities of foreigners. [3] In areas where the prisoners lived and worked there were many complaints and conflicts, denunciations peasant settlers against the foreign prisoners. In December 1914 received a telegram from the Chief of the General Staff number 14944 on the resolution of the device POW Slavs having knowledge of music concerts and performances to fees received in favor of the Russian Red Cross Society. Of course, only if the sanction of the established order... [4].

By the end of 1915 the discontent of Kazakhs ensued grow. Many towns refused to pay taxes, there were the cases of refusal of “voluntary donations” and conflicts on this basis with the local administration. In 1915 there was a question about the direct participation of Kazakhs in the war. Kazakh intellectuals through the newspaper “Kazakh” suggested to use the Kazakhs as a fighting force of cavalry units. At the same time pursued two objectives:

Firstly, were saved from seizure under the resettlement land Kazakhs serving in the army;

Secondly, participation in hostilities could prepare skilled, seasoned and training of military personnel in the event of formation of the army of independent Kazakhstan.

In addition, the only way Kazakhs could obtain weapons needed to fight the colonialists.

However, the Russian government was not going to arm “unreliable” Kazakhs. Instead, it was decided to use the non-Russian population of Russia at the rear works.

In 1916, there was a question about the direct participation of Kazakhs in the war. June 25, 1916 was issued a royal decree by which all non-Russian male population aged 19 to 43 years old had to be requisitioned for work on the arrangement of defensive structures in the vicinity of the army and to the rear of work. According to the imperial decree requisitioned “aliens” had to replace Russian soldiers at the rear [5].

The news of the decree of June 25 has stirred up all Kazakh steppe. Spontaneous demonstrations against the mobilization expressed in beating township rulers.

The struggle against tyranny and mobilization of local authorities began with the destruction of the lists is not accidental. In the absence of metric records Kazakhs posemeynyh list was the only official document for determining the age of the Kazakhs. Therefore, the destruction of posemeynyh lists and their failure to district chiefs retarded and even tore mobilization.
Military governors of the Kazakh steppe areas reported to St. Petersburg that the decree of mobilization for rear works caused general excitement among the people, by souls held mass meetings and lists mobilized destroyed. These reports also stated that “the inhabitants of the village entrusted to me now escaped almost all annual employees of the natives, as well as work for hire for the harvest. The reason for the escape - the highest classified them for military work” [6].

This decree put the Kazakh steppe in a very difficult position. The mobilization was carried out during the harvest and preparation of cattle to the stretch on the winter pastures, haying. Summon all able-bodied male population undermined the economic base of the Kazakh economy, already shaky permanent seizure of land for settlers. In fact, the rest of the Kazakhs were doomed to death by starvation in the winter 1916-1917. The call to the rear of the Kazakhs work gave rise to the top of the powerful uprising Kazakhs and other Central Asian peoples against Russian colonialism. Frightened Tsarist government by the scale uprising on July 20 announced the delay of an appeal before the harvest, and on July 30 - a postponement until September 15, 1916, however, extinguish the flames of anti-colonial uprising Kazakhs failed.

Gradually spontaneous movement began to take organized, formed his large pockets: Turgay and Semirechensky centers with leaders Amangeldy Imanov, Bekbolat Ashekeevym, Saurykovym W. et al. [7]. The uprising spread to the whole of Kazakhstan and Central Asia.

By July 1916 excitement began to grow into a revolt, gradually encompassed almost the entire Kazakhstan. The tsarist government declared the entire Turkestan under martial law. Against the rebels sent death squads.

Colonizers, trying to ignite ethnic strife, set against the Russian population of Semirechye on the rebels. At the direction of the Turkestan Governor- military governor Kuropatkin and military governor of Semirechye Folbaum created armed groups among the Russian population to fight the rebels.

Against the rebels acted special units of the tsarist troops with artillery and machine guns. In villages and towns made mass arrests of all “suspicious” military courts “packs” to hand down death sentences.

In the archival documents are told that during the war economy of the Kazakhs were devastated. “In land relation the Kazakhs were constrained in the last 8-10 years in the highest degree: formed in 1903 to manage the migration of 1908-1909 the seizure of the Kazakh land for the peasants, under obrok and other articles at a rapid rate. As a result, the best land with ready Kazakh irrigation ditches, vegetation and buildings selected and Kazakhs herded on the worst land without water. Forest land confiscated for the exclusive use of the treasury. In connection with the advent of the area formed at resettlement sites of the Russian peasant,
apparently, were not the best part of the peasant society, because they behave intolerable attitude of the Russian population with the Kazakhs gradually began to deteriorate. There were all sorts, had no sooner places demands on the Kazakhs by the peasants themselves, so sometimes on the part of the authorities. So wound up in the order of payment of the administrative procedure for the damage, the peasants were stealing Kazakh cattle which were without attention and care to their lands and then recover the money for the damage. There were even cases of cattle rustling from under care of shepherds. On this basis, the Kazakhs were even killed by peasants (in Dzhailmyshevsk and Rgaytinsk townships). Then, at the same time (1909-1914), practiced Kazakhs payment for lost of Russian cattle. Using this, Russian created a fictional theft and receiving money from the Kazakhs. Finally, resettlement officials who worked in the desert on land acquisition, most behaved unworthy of the title of Russian officials, nor for horses or sheep paid for, forced to buy the tent and sheep, fodder and other sometimes even outside of Kazakhs in the Russian allotments peasants and Cossacks ...” - so wrote in a statement Kazakhs of Verny County headed engineer M. Tynyshpayev to Governor-General of Turkestan region AN Kuropatkinu 17 October 1916 on the causes of the uprising in the township areas and extortion by local officials.

“... The unrest among the Kazakh steppe increase, they quit their jobs, leaving themselves, stealing their cattle deep into the wilderness, armed with lances, scythes, aybalta ..” - so says one of the documents of archive ... [8].

Among the archives occupy a special place correspondence about suppressing the uprising of the Kazakhs in 1916, including reports of interrogation participants in the uprising in 1916 and copies of decisions of their arrest. As well as archival documents, eyewitness accounts of people’s war has great historical value ...

In the Semirechie and Turkestan region law was declared. The tsarist authorities threw here large military force, strengthened military garrisons, creating armed militias to crack down on the Kazakh rebels.

National-liberal uprising of Kazakhs was brutally suppressed, was sentenced to death, hard labor, not counting the shot without trial, dead by the hands of executioners and units formed from residents of resettlement villages. And many Kazakhs fled to neighbouring countries.

Part rebels of Akmola and Atbasar districts in separate groups left in Torgay county and joined the troops Amangeldi. Some of them are operated independently until the February Revolution of 1917.

National-liberation uprising in 1916 showed a growth of class consciousness of the Kazakh people. During the uprising of 1916 the different layers of the population of the Kazakh steppe united together the idea of national independence.
Archival Documents

   Moscow, 1960.
The documents relating to the Bekbolat Ashekeyev, which was one of the organizers of national-liberation uprising in 1916 in Kazakhstan

The Central State Archive of the Republic of Kazakhstan, F.76
KENYA / KENYA

KENYA’S INVOLVEMENT IN THE FIRST WORLD WAR

Francis MWANGI *

1.0 Introduction

Kenya which is officially known as The Republic of Kenya is a democratic republic located in Africa. It lies on the Equator with a warm, humid climate along its Indian Ocean coastline to the South-East and it covers 581,309 Km² (224,445 Sq mi) and has a population of approximately 44 million people in July 2012. The Capital Nairobi, is a regional commercial hub.

An Overview Of The First World War

World War I (WWI or WW1), also known as the First World War or the Great War, was a global war centered in Europe that began on 28 July 1914 and lasted until 11 November 1918. More than 9 million combatants and 7 million civilians died as a result of the war, a casualty rate exacerbated by the belligerents’ technological and industrial sophistication, and tactical stalemate. It was one of the deadliest conflicts in history, paving the way for major political changes, including revolutions in many of the nations involved.

The war drew in all the world’s economic great powers which were assembled in two opposing alliances: the Allies (based on the Triple Entente of the United Kingdom, France and the Russian Empire) and the Central Powers of Germany and Austria-Hungary. Although Italy had also been a member of the Triple Alliance alongside Germany and Austria-Hungary, it did not join the Central Powers, as Austria-Hungary had taken the offensive against the terms of the alliance. These alliances were reorganized and expanded as more nations entered the war: Italy, Japan and the United States joined the Allies, and the Ottoman Empire and Bulgaria the Central Powers. Ultimately, more than 70 million military personnel, including 60 million Europeans, were mobilized in one of the largest wars in history.

1.2 Kenya’s involvement in the first world war

In 1895 the British government took over and claimed the interior of Kenya as far west as Lake Naivasha; it set up the East Africa Protectorate. Then years later, Kenya became a military base for the British in the First World War (1914–1918), as efforts to subdue the German colony to the south were frustrated. At the outbreak of war in August 1914, the governors of British East Africa (as the Protectorate was generally known) and German East Africa agreed a truce in an attempt to keep the young colonies out of direct hostilities.

* Director - National Archives and Documentation Service of Kenya
However Lt. Col Paul von Lettow-Vorbeck took command of the German military forces, determined to tie down as many British resources as possible. Completely cut off from Germany, von Lettow conducted an effective guerilla warfare campaign, living off the land, capturing British supplies, and remaining undefeated. He eventually surrendered in Zambia eleven days after the Armistice was signed in 1918. To chase von Lettow the British deployed Indian Army troops from India and then needed large numbers of porters to overcome the formidable logistics of transporting supplies far into the interior by foot. The Carrier Corps was formed and ultimately mobilised over 400,000 Africans, contributing to their long-term politicization.

Kenya also became an important British military base for successful campaigns against Italy in the Italian Somaliland and Ethiopia. The war brought money and an opportunity for military service for 98,000 men, called „askaris“. The war stimulated African nationalism. After the war, African ex-servicemen sought to maintain the socioeconomic gains they had accrued through service in the King’s African Rifles (KAR). Looking for middle-class employment and social privileges, they challenged existing relationships within the colonial state. For the most part, veterans did not participate in national politics, believing that their aspirations could best be achieved within the confines of colonial society. The social and economic connotations of KAR service, combined with the massive wartime expansion of Kenyan defence forces, created a new class of modernised Africans with distinctive characteristics and interests. These socio-economic perceptions proved powerful after the war.

The experiences in Kenya during the First World War was largely documented but it is worth noting that most records created during the period under review were taken to Britain after Kenya gained independence in 1963. However, through a robust programme branded ‘migrated Archives’ the Kenya National Archives is obtaining copies of the records and it is believed that by the end of the programme most records migrated to Britain will be available for reference at the archives.
Introduction: When the First World War broke out in 1914 Libya was under Italian influence, and since Italy was a part in that war along with France and Britain against Germany, Austria and the Ottoman state, the other side in that war, the Ottoman state decided to hit the English forces in Egypt through the eastern Libyan borders. In what follows is an overview of the positions taken by the active parties in Libya, at that time, basing myself on documents of the Libyan Archives.

1. The Senussis’ documentation concerning the First World War:

The Centre has a number of Arabic documents written by hand by some of the Senussi leaders, such as Ahmad as-Sayyid ash-Sharif, Muhammad Idris as-Senussi, and others. This documentation is in the form of correspondence between those leaders and some leaders of the Ottoman state, such as Enver Pasha and Mustafa Kamal Ataturk. Those documents also include correspondence between Ahmad ash-Sharif and General Maxwell, the commander general of the British army in Egypt. This documentation illustrates the role played by the Senussi movement in Libya during World War I. The following are the most important aspects of that role:

a. the opening of a battle front in the Sallum region under the leadership of Ahmad ash-Sharif, as a means of pressure on Britain, through attacks against it in Egypt.

b. It is clear from this documentation that the leaders of the Senussi movement saw in that war an opportunity to expel Italy from Libyan land.

c. It is also evident, from the documentation, that the British politicians in Egypt demanded from Ahmad ash-Sharif not to allow the military camps set up by Muhammad ‘Awn Suf and Sulayman al-Baruni. Ahmad ash-Sharif consented and demanded Sulayman al-Baruni to lower the Ottoman banner which had been raised on those camps.

2. Correspondence between the Libyan freedom fighters (Mujahidun):

There is a substantial correspondence and documentation exchanged between the leaderships of the Mujahidin which point to these leaders’ interest in the First World War. This documentation gives us a general idea about the events in Libya which would ultimately lead to the concept of liberation from the Italian occupation via an attempt to confuse the military leadership in Tripoli and the political leadership in Rome. The Mujahidun considered this war an opportunity which would benefit their cause.

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1 I wish to thank and to show my appreciation to Prof. Dr Salah ad-Din Hasan as-Suri and Prof. Ali al-Hazil for their excellent efforts in the preparation of this paper.
The letters and documents exchanged between the Libyan leaders, such as Ahmad ash-Sharif, Hamad Seif al-Nasser, Sulayman al-Baruni, Mohamad Safieldeen al-Sanusi, Ramadan as-Swayhli, Muhammad ‘Awn Sayf and others indicate that there was coordination and exchange of military and civil information aiming at pushing matters towards a military escalation, both inside Libya and abroad. That aim becomes clear in the battles against the Italian forces, in 1916-1917, in the region of al-‘Ujailat, which is situated to the west of the city of Tripoli – what has become known as the Ahmad ash-Sharif campaign against the English in Egypt in November 1915, which was a joint military operation of the Libyan Mujahidun and the Ottomans against the English.

In this same context, the letter of Ahmad ash-Sharif to Sheikh Abu Bakr al-Basir, one of the leaders in the western region of Libya, dated 14 August 1914, points to this co-ordination between the leaderships. It states the following: ‘We wrote to you so that we could meet before moving towards the eastern front ... etc.’

The general idea which emerges from this documentation and correspondence is that the Libyan freedom fighters had responded to the call to defend their land, honour and dignity and that they put all their possibilities at the service of their nation, in the east, west, south and north of the Libya.

3- The indigenous Documents:

With regards to the First World War period, these documents deal with the efforts of some Libyan leaders and their role, in Libya, in connection with that war and the attempts at military and political co-ordination with the Ottoman state and Germany. A lot of correspondence was exchanged between Ahmad ash-Sharif and Suleyman al-Baruni, on the one hand, and the Ottoman state and Germany, on the other. This correspondence deals with an attempt to render Libya an auxiliary battle front aiming at the dissipation of the efforts of some of the parties involved in the war, and at confusing the political and military leaders in those countries. The request for the provision of various types of supplies, be it in arms or in provisions, especially on the western, eastern and southern Libyan borders, also emerges from this correspondence.

4 – The Ottoman Documents:

These documents are considered to be among the most important records kept at the Centre’s archive. This documentation covers the period from the Karamli rule till the end of the Ottoman state in 1924. It comprises all matters pertaining to the modern and contemporary history of Libya, from the political, economic, administrative, social and cultural points of view. It is estimated that there are more than a quarter of a million documents kept in 2,500 boxes, most of which written in the Ottoman Turkish and Arabic languages, with some documents written in Turkish and Arabic.

In the opinion of Prof. Abu Bakar Subaci, who examined these documents for some time in Tripoli, this documentation can be classified as follows:
1. Financial records pertaining to taxation, income, expenditure, the governorate’s treasury, the public treasury in Istanbul, aid and revenue records, TABU records, as well as harbour registers.

2. Central administrative records pertaining to the governorate and the provinces, imports and exports records between the capital city and the governorate, the records of the administrative council and the accounts administration of the governorate, as well as the records of the extracts of daily chronicles, external affairs records and transportation records.

3. Records of the religious courts, of which there are two types: civil ones, dealing with wills, contracts, powers of attorney, and sureties, and records relating to public affairs, selling and buying, imports and exports of the Islamic sheikdoms. The records of the civil courts comprise those of the court of the first instance, the court of appeal, the court of cassation and the commercial court. There are also the records of the public prosecutor and the records of court cases and the decisions concerning them, as well as the records relating to investigations, the prisoners in the fortresses and in the prisons, the police records, lists of arrested persons, records of court proceedings, including the decisions taken, and the courts’ revenue and verification records.

4. The personal records:

   These are in the form of single documents, whole files, and other records. These documents deal with financial and commercial matters, public debts, roads, houses, municipality, justice and police matters, as well as QURUGHLIYA and religious or civil matters, general intelligence, local affairs, minutes of legal proceedings, education, some projects and maps.

   In view of the fact that these documents are not classified in a scientific manner, and since they were not kept in their files in a satisfactory manner, in accordance with the proper filing practice, apart from the fact that they were written in Ottoman Turkish, the study of such documentation is extremely difficult and the benefit which one can only derive from it is certainly limited. These documents deal with various political situations in Libya, and their relation to the neighbouring countries, and to the rest of the world. They include correspondence, reports, statements, decisions, regulations and laws related to the political activities of the Libyans, the Ottomans and the foreigners in Libya. They also deal with the economic conditions, including maritime and overland, internal and foreign trade, as well as markets and various types of merchandise, traders, caravan routes, commercial laws, commercial courts and foreign traders.

   Some of the documents deal with the social conditions in Libya, that is with the residents, the tribes, the cities, the villages, the traditions and customs, as well as with the relative judicial aspects of the religious and civil courts scattered all over the Libyan territory. These documents also contain information about endowments, tithes, schools, statistics about the residents, the animals and the trees as well as information concerning taxation. This
documentation also includes information about tribal conflicts and the revolts against the Ottomans, such as the revolt of Abd al-Jalil Sayf an-Nasr, and Ghoma al-Mahmudi, and the maritime conflict with the European states and with the United States of America at the time of Yusif Pasha Karamli.

This is just a brief overview of the Ottoman documents kept at the Centre. In view of its quantity, it is difficult to include it in one report.

5. The Italian Documents:

Italian documents dealing with the First World War are in the form of military reports of the Italian government of Tripoli. It covers the movements of the freedom fighters and their leaderships, as well as the communications exchanged between these leaderships and the outside world, such as the Ottoman state. These documents contain information and details about the movements of the Italian forces and their engagement in battles in the ‘Ujeilat region between the years 1916 and 1917, also battles such as Wadi Majid (Dec. 1915), Boutunis (Jan. 1916), Wadi Magtala (Feb. 1916), ‘Agaghir (Feb. 1916), Bogbog (March. 1916), and Sallum (March 1916) plus other battles and clashes, not to be mentioned. There are also accounts of the arrival of the Italian Forces in the town of Zawia in 1918, during which they perpetrated the massacres of Jdayim and Gammuda. Moreover, there is a great number of political correspondence between the colonial government in Tripoli and the central government in Rome, and between the latter and the governments of Paris and London.

6. The British Documents:

These consist of documentation about the First World War. It keeps track of the movements of the Ottoman officers in Libya during that war and monitors the supply of armaments in what became known as the operations of the German submarines. This documentation also deals with the political aspect, as is evident from the correspondence between the English leaders in Egypt and their Libyan counterparts.

7. The French Documents:

This documentation does not give much information about the First World War; it almost ignores it, except for the monitoring of the movements of the Libyans living in Tchad, Niger, Mali, Tunisia and Algeria, as well as the movements of the inhabitants of the Fezzan region which is adjacent to the French presence in Tchad and Niger. We can state that the information about the war as attested in this documentation does not present anything interesting about this subject.
8. The German Documents:

The documentation pertaining to the period of the First World War (1914-1918) is characterized by its military nature, apart from a small segment which deals with political aspects. This documentation consists of the following:

1. Documents from the chiefs of staff regarding the monitoring of the movements of the other side in the war, in Libya, as well as the supply of the Ottoman fighters and officers with weapons and supplies — what has become known as the German submarine question. This submarine used to berth in the Misurata harbour. One comes across many reports and copious correspondence from the captains of the submarines to the German chiefs of staff, in which they reported the completion of the missions entrusted to them, having delivered the requested materials to Libya. The aim behind this operation was to try and open battle fronts in Libya’s western and eastern regions so as to relieve the pressure from the battle fronts in Europe. Most of this documentation deals with practical military aspects.

2. Documents of the German Ministry of Foreign Affairs: These have to do with the political activity of the German foreign ministry during the First World War. These consist, mainly, of correspondence between the ministries of foreign affairs of Germany and of the Ottoman state, and deal with the design of a unified foreign policy countering the other party’s political activity during that war. The documentation includes some reports and correspondence exchanged between the German ministry of foreign affairs and the chiefs of staff, and illustrates the activity of these two institutions and their role in the war.

9. Oral History:

As regards the First World War, oral history gives details about battles which took place, here are some of the names and the dates that the battles took place in: the Battle of Tailamon (1915), Frutin (6/4/1915), Jinan Ben Nassib (16/8/1916), Jidaida (16/1/1917) and Ashbeka (29/5/1917), Saiyad (25/9/1917), Ajimale (5/10/1918) in the town of ‘Ajilat and other battles some of which were led by Ottoman officers such as Nouri Pasha and Is’haq Pasha. While, other battles were led by Libyans, most prominent amongst them, Ahmad Alsharif who fought in the eastern region near the Egyptian borders.

10. The Photographic archive:

This archive contains tens of thousands of photographs covering various aspects of life in Libya. It consists of the following:

1. Photographs of the Libyan, Ottoman, Arab and African freedom fighters. We mention, for example, the photos of some Ottoman officials, such as Mustafa Kemal Ataturk, Enver Pasha, Rajab Pasha, Nash’at Bek, and the Libyan leaders Suleyman al-Baruni, Muhammad Farhat az-Zawi, Umar al-Mukhtar, Ahmad ash-Sharif, as well as Abdalla Qaja from Tchad, the Tuareg Sultan Amudu Muhammad Kawseen, etc.
2. Photographs depicting Italian atrocities against humanity, such as massacres, mass or individual executions by firing squads or hanging, as well as other forms of atrocities, such as exile, imprisonment, detention camps, and also cities and borders enclosed by barbed wire.

3. Photographs of cities, villages and oases in various regions of Libya.

4. Photographs of Italian colonization projects in Libya, such as farms, churches, commercial outlets, industrial plants and other buildings.

5. Photographs of some of the historical political figures.

In addition to all of this material, this Archive also has a number of documentary maps of some of the battles that took place in Libya during the period of the Italian occupation and during the Second World War, as well as important scenes from the monarchic period.
LITVANYA / LITHUANIA

DOCUMENTS OF THE FIRST WORLD WAR
IN LITHUANIAN STATE ARCHIVES

Dr. Ramojus KRAUJELIS * - Virginija ČIJUNSKIENĖ **

Archives in Lithuania before the First World War. Archives in Lithuania began to take shape with the formation of the State of Lithuania, i.e. in the first half of the 13th century. The oldest extant archives is the collection of legal documents of the Chancellery of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, also known as Lithuanian Metrica: it dates back to the 14th–18th c. In 1795, after the third and final partition of Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth, this collection was transferred from Vilnius to Russia.

First archival institution - Central Archives of the Old Record Books in Vilnius was established in 1852 (O.S) on the grounds of the personal decree of Nicholas I, Emperor of Russia. The emergence of this Archives marks a totally new period in the history of Lithuanian archives. The Tsar Administration was willing to store documents in one place, to safeguard them against forgery or destruction in order to meet the needs of state institutions as well as private persons, especially the nobility. In 1853, the closed Vilnius University building was fitted to accommodate the Archives. The direct supervision of the Archives was assigned to the Educational Board of Vilnius District.

Beginning of war. When the First World War broke out, nearly half of the documents – the oldest and the most valuable collection kept in the Archives were evacuated to Russia.

Lithuanian state archives preserve rather small amount of documents directly related to the First World War. Few important and interesting fonds of documents created by Russian Empire state and military institutions remained in Lithuanian archives: such as Kaunas fortress documents collection, documents concerning first battles between German and Russian troops on the Lithuanian territory, diaries of fortress military operations etc.

Kaunas fortress. In the end of XIX century in Kaunas (a second town in Lithuania by size) fortress with 7 forts was build. In April 1915 the Germans launched an offensive in Lithuania. By the end of April 1915 all of western Lithuania had been occupied. In August 1915 the Germans resumed their offensive in Lithuania following up the success they had achieved further to the south. Kaunas was attacked on 8 August 1915 and was captured nine days later. Kaunas was supposed to be the stronghold to hold the German army. Lithuanian State Historical archives and Kaunas county Archive preserve some documents testifying

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** Director- Lithuanian State Historical Archives
plans and drafts to strengthen the fortress. However modernization and strengthening the fortress was delayed and plans were not implemented on time.

**Eastern front 1914-1915.** By the end of September 1915 the German front line had stabilized. All of modern Lithuania was now in German hands and would remain so for the rest of the War. In spring 1916 the Russians mounted an offensive northeast of Vilnius but achieved no success, and thereafter the German occupation of Lithuania went unchallenged.

Unfortunately only few photos from that period we have in our Archives.

**Germans in Lithuania.** Approximately 300 000 inhabitants of Lithuania were evacuated to Russia as well as some industrial enterprises, governmental institutions and schools in 1915 also were evacuated with retreating Russian army. Together with this evacuation some important private and institutional archives were taken to Russia. Lithuania became a part of Ober Ost – a district controlled by German military commander and German civil bureaucrats.

**Civil documents issued by German authorities to inhabitants of Lithuania.** German authorities imposed control on local inhabitants. An other important part of documents related to the First World War was created by Germany state institutions. Such as The commander of military directorate for Lithuania (Der Chef Deutschen Militärfverwaltung für Litauen). The biggest part of German occupation archives-civil and criminal court cases in German courts of Vilnius region; prescriptions of German administration for the population. On the screen you can see first passports issued to Lithuanians by German authorities to Lithuanians with their fingerprints on it.

The third part of archives created during the First World War–different type of documents which were collected by private persons or social organizations. These documents could be called as some sort of diaries of persons, who recorded all events of the War in their surroundings. Recently these documents are studied very carefully, because they open a new private knowledge on events of the First World War.

Approximately 2000 soldiers of the First World War were buried in cemetery in Vilnius Vingis park lies. Inscription of commemorative plate says: “The monument was built here in 1917 to commemorate more than 2000 German, Austro-Hungarian, Russian, Polish and Turkish soldiers killed in the First World War”. Unfortunately there are no archival documents in our Archives (or it haven’t been found yet) that confirms Turkish soldiers participation in war action in Lithuania.

**Declaration of independence.** Revolutions in Russia in 1917 did not directly affect Lithuania although as a result the Germans reviewed their policy with regard to Lithuania forming a Lithuanian council with limited powers. On 18 September 1917 a Lithuanian conference assembled in Vilnius with J. Basanavicius as its elected Chairman. This conference
stated the determination of the Lithuanian people to achieve independence, and elected a 20 member council chaired by Antanas Smetona. After few months Council decided to act decisively, and on 16 February 1918 the Independence Act was signed and Lithuania was declared re-establishing as independent state. Germany did react and recognised the Independence, but only on the basis of the document of 11 December 1917. Documents of Council of Lithuania and other institutions, which were established in 1917-1918 are kept in Lithuanian archives and consist the forth ant very important part of archives related to the end of the First World War. There are some documents concerning negotiations and relationship with Germany government and German occupation administration.

Due to various historical circumstances, but mainly because of the loss of independence, Lithuania does not possess all constitutional documents of the primary importance. The Act of Independence was signed by all twenty representatives. Two copies of the Act were signed: the original and the duplicate. The original was entrusted to Dr. Basanavičius for safeguard and protection. The original has been never published or used in any public source of information. No one knows how the document itself looked, what size it was. The duplicate was used in day-to-day business, and was stored in the President’s archives until 15 June 1940, the day when Lithuania lost its independence. Then the document disappeared. Neither the original nor the duplicate has been located. Historians and adventurers continue to hunt for them.

First government of Lithuania. The first government was formed immediately after the War has ended in November, 1918. The main tasks of this government was to gain support and diplomatic recognition from foreign countries. Documents concerning correspondence with foreign diplomats, meeting minutes, reports and other documents are kept in Lithuanian archives.

Creation of national military forces. Another important task was creating army capable to defend independent state. In March 1919 the Lithuanian government resorted to compulsory conscription to sustain their army.

Wars of independence. Following the German armistice with the Allies on 11 November 1918 and the annulling of the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk the Bolsheviks resumed their offensive against the Germans in the east. The Germans fell back from the forward positions they had occupied in February 1918, but were determined to hold positions in Lithuania to the east of their frontiers. In early December 1918 the Bolsheviks invaded Lithuania. Soon West Russian Volunteer Army and Poland joined in fighting to suppress independence of Lithuania.

The Bolsheviks captured Vilnius on 6 January 1919, and by the end of the same month only western Lithuania remained in Lithuanian and German hands. However, with help of German army and newly created Lithuanian army Bolsheviks were defeated. The peace treaty with the Bolsheviks was concluded on 12 July 1920 that established eastern and southern
borders for Lithuania. Russia promised to return any cultural and historical property removed during the wars. Vilnius was handed back to the Lithuanians by the Bolsheviks on 27 August 1920.

White Russian forces of Colonel Bermont-Avalov marched on Riga in October 1919, they invaded northwestern Lithuania and marched towards Vilnius. The Lithuanians decisively defeated the Bermont-Avalov forces at Radviliskis on 21 November 1919.

**Conflict with Poland.** After some fighting in 1919-1920 Lithuania and Poland signed an agreement on 7 October 1920, that left certain issues unresolved, but left Vilnius in Lithuanian hands. Two days later Polish forces led by General Zeligowski took over Vilnius and the surrounding areas. League of Nations stepped in to resolve the conflict. A neutral zone was established between Lithuania and Poland on 29 November 1920. After a plebiscite Vilnius and the surrounding area was incorporated into Poland and remained in Polish hands until 1939, causing continuing ill feeling between Lithuania and Poland.

**Emergence of the Lithuanian State Archives.** The beginning of the Lithuanian State Archives was the State Archaeological Commission established in the first half of 1919. It was responsible for the preservation of objects of cultural and architectural heritage, including archives, libraries and museums. The law passed by the State Archaeological Commission on 18 August 1919 provided a legal basis for preservation of archives. On 22 December 1919, the commandant of Kaunas City and County issued a written order which demanded to bring documents to the State Museum – it was the first time when the Central Bookstore – Archives was mentioned. In pursuance of the peace treaty between the Republic of Lithuania and Soviet Russia of 12 July 1920, the greater part of the archives, which were taken away to Russia at the beginning of the First World War, was returned to Lithuania. The Department of Culture of the Ministry of Education was directly in charge of the matters related to the accumulation of archives. Minister of Education of Lithuania passed the order on the Central State Archives on 19 October 1921. This date is regarded as the official date of the establishment of the State Archives in Republic of Lithuania.

This how the First World War gave the birth of modern Lithuanian state and Archives.
MALEZYA / MALAYSIA

FIRST WORLD WAR: SOURCES FROM THE NATIONAL ARCHIVES OF MALAYSIA

Azemi ABDUL AZIZ *

Introduction

The First World War broke out on March 28, 1914 and ended on 11 November 1918 when the affairs of Malaya (Malaysia) is administered by the British by the British Commissioner, a representative of the government to the Queen Elizabeth. Accordingly, all official sources related to the First World War and the reports of the First World War had been issued by the British Government.

There are several groups of records of the First World War divided into sources as follows:

1) High Commissioner Office, Malaya
2) Selangor State Secretary Office
3) Terengganu State Secretary Office
4) Kelantan State Secretary Office
5) Johor State Secretary Office
6) Kedah State Secretary Office
7) Pahang State Secretary Office
8) The Straits Times
9) The Times of Malaya
10) “Neracha”
11) “Utusan Melayu”
12) Weekly Newspaper Malay Mail

Through research in the National Archives, the following amount of material related to the First World War have been identified:

α) 200 files,
β) 1 artifact,

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4 publications,
9 types of Newspapers and Magazines, and
5 Paperwork

Administrative History

High Commissioner’s Office of Malaya
1894-1901, 1903-1942, 1945-1958

Under the Federal Agreement and the agreement signed in 1895 between the years 1904 to 1914, the administration of the Straits Settlements, Federated Malay States and Unfederated Malay States was placed under the administration of Governor of the Straits Settlements, which is headquartered in Singapore. He is also the High Commissioner for the Federated Malay States responsible to the Colonial Secretary in London.

Resident General through the Office of Federal Secretary based in Kuala Lumpur is the representative of the High Commissioner. He is the Chief Executive Officer who has full authority over the administration of the Federated Malay States. Residents in each state is responsible to the Resident General. While the ultimate authority in each State Federated Malay States lies to the State Council chaired by the Sultan. Resident appointed by the Secretary of State or the Member State where the Council of Rulers elected as the President of the Council. The Council consists of Official Member and Non-Official Member.

Groups of records consists of files containing ‘dispatches’, correspondence, reports, minutes of meetings, memorandums, ordinances, acts and circulars are the messages between High Commissioner’s Office and the Colonial Office, London, Resident General, British Resident (FMS), British Adviser and Agent UFMS, Heads of Departments and the Malay Rulers, concerning all the affairs of the administration of Malaya (FMS, UFMS, SS) as a Colonial State British at that time.

Main Subjects

1. Aid for the Ottoman from the Mohammadians Community of Ulu Langat
2. The Sultan of Ottoman Ask For the Number of Muhammadians In Selangor
3. Sultans Support the British Government
4. Documents Distributed to the F.M.S
5. Declaration of War
6. Notice of British Policy Against Muslims
1. Aid for the Ottomans from the Mohammadians Community of Ulu Langat

Letter transmissions regarding the cheque $79 from the Mohammadians Community of Ulu Langat, Selangor via the Red Crescent Society.

Accession No: 19570171026, 19570596309

Sources: Selangor State Secretary Office, High Commissioner Office Malaya
2. The Sultan of Ottoman ask for the number of Muhammadians in Selangor

The file contains information pertaining to the number of Muhammadians in Selangor which was asked by the Sultan of Turkey in the year 1909.

Accession No: 19570133970, 19570581899

Sources: Selangor State Secretary Office, High Commissioner Office Malaya
3. Sultans support the British Government

Information regarding supports received from Sultan of Perak, Johor, Selangor and Kelantan on the British War in 1914 until 1918. Written in Jawi and being translated to Malay and English.

Accession No: 19570178946, 19570598761, 19570598899, 19570598678

Sources: Selangor State Secretary Office, Perak State Secretary Office, Johor State Secretary Office, Kelantan State Secretary Office, Terengganu State Secretary Office
4. Letters/Documents Distributed to the FMS Through the British Commissioner

Notifications to Federal Malay State on the war situation faced by Britain. Including information about German military supplies in Turkey and attempted attack on the Suez Canal. Also contains messages from the representatives of India's Government, His Highness Aga Khan in Malay and English. In addition, the Straits Settlements Government Gazettes also mentioned in detail about what His Highness Aga Khan means.

Accession No: 19570186312, 19730021330, 19570186604, 19570179056, 19570598672, 19570598677

Sources: Selangor State Secretary Office, High Commissioner Office Malaya, General Advisor Office of Johore
5. Declaration of War

Information received by the British Government and distributed to the Residents of British in Malaya as to inform each state under The British Colony of the countries engaged in war.

Accession No: 19570179990, 19570196994, 19570598989, 19570196734

Sources: Selangor State Secretary Office
6. Notification Issued by the Government of India on the British Policy in Respect of Muslims

Contained documents that Muslims in India expressed their loyalty towards British. British agreement promised will protect Islam’s holy city from any form of attack forces as long as there is no interference of any party to the pilgrims from India to the holy city. This agreement has also been supported by the French and Russian Government. The agreement to support British was agreed by most Islamic figures in India such as His Highness the Aga Khan, His Highness the Nizam of Hyderabad and Mahamodan Chiefs. These documents have been distributed to every British Colonies as news was even received that emissaries had been sent to India to stir up Anti-British feeling among the Moslem there.

Accession No: 19570180192, 19570599099

Sources: Selangor State Secretary Office, High Commissioner Office Malaya
7. Prisoners of war

Contains information related to British and Turkish prisoners of war consisting of civilians and military. It also includes the treatment of prisoners of war in German and Turkey camps along with the statistics. Besides, agreement on the prisoners postage method such as letters, parcels and money (money order).

Accession No: 19730024139, 19730027375, 19570599753, 19570187878, 19570601281, 19570606973

Sources: Selangor State Secretary Office, High Commissioner Office Malaya
8. Armistice

The Secretary of States for the British Colonies sent some Armistice records to the High Commissioner of the Malay States as to inform the Malay States about the current war situation. Files identified: Armistices between Turkey, Austria-Hungary and the Allies on 1918.

Accession No: 19570606408, 19570606444, 19570606809, 19730024468

Sources: High Commissioner Office Malaya
9. The Journals

The Straits Times, The Times of Malay, Weekly Newspaper Malay Mail are among the English newspapers those days. Where else, “Neraca” and “Utusan Melayu” are the earlier Local News Publishers existed during the Great War era. The news was constructed in different language such as English, Malay, and Chinese which are written in Roman. There are lots of documents which the British Government need to translate in English as the Malay States during the Great War period are populated by several races such as Malay, Chinese and Indian.

Sources: The Straits Times, The Times of Malay, Weekly Newspaper Malay Mail “Neraca”, “Utusan Melayu”
MALTA / MALTA

THE “MALTA TRIALS” AND THE TURKISH-ARMENIAN QUESTION

Giovanni BONELLO *

It was only through a series of engineered coincidences that World War One did not end in the “Malta Trials” the way that World War Two led to the Nuremberg Trials. The victorious Allied (‘Entente’) powers, or rather, the U.K. in the lead, were to set up the complex machinery for all those suspected to have taken part in the alleged massacres of the Armenians, to be brought to trial in Malta. In fact most of the leading suspects had already been arrested, detained and transferred to Malta to await full criminal prosecution.

One of the longest-standing controversies in today’s European politics and in international law remains the “Armenian Genocide” question. It is not my intention to take part, even less to take sides, in this searing dispute. With the Armenians, the historical evidence of the genocide is cast in stone.1 The Turks strenuously deny genocide.2 Though conceding excesses during the mass deportations of the Armenian population from Turkey in 1915 - 16, they explain the sufferings of the Armenians as acts of war against a nation which betrayed its loyalty to the empire to which it belonged - and during WW1 took up arms on the side of the Allied enemy.

To a certain extent the controversy also suffers from its semantic dimension: the difference between genocide and massacre can largely be a matter of intent: were the excesses meant as tools of programmed ethnic extermination, or were they aberrations of war? Did the Ottoman Empire deliberately design to wipe out the Armenian nation? Apart from the disputed facts, this element of intent has massively fuelled the controversy over the past ninety years. Evidence for excesses is not lacking, but that of the intent behind them, highly controverted. For the Turks, all the so-called ‘evidence’ is contested, forged, biased and unreliable. The Armenians consistently demand a national apology, and use their powerful lobby to prevent Turkey’s entry into the European Union before a full acceptance of blame and official public contrition are forthcoming.

How did Malta find itself at the centre of all this? WW1 had not affected Malta directly, in the sense that the swings of fortune spared the island any active warfare. Malta still played an important role – three roles actually: as a huge hospital and nursing depot for servicemen

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* President- Historical Society of the National Archives of Malta
1 e.g., Vahakn N. Dadrian, The History of the Armenian Genocide, Providence, Berghahn, 1995.
2 e.g. Guenther Lewy, The Armenian Massacres in Ottoman Turkey – A Disputed Genocide, Utah, 2005.
who needed medical treatment, as the operational base for the activities of British, French, Japanese and USA navies of the Mediterranean, and finally as an extended prisoner-of-war camp. During the hostilities large numbers of military and civilian prisoners coming from the Central Powers spent their detention time in Malta. These included Germans, Austro-Hungarians, Bulgarians and Turks. Scores of Turks ended in the Cottonera barracks, only to be repatriated at the end of hostilities in 1919. 3

For the British, Malta had come to identify as the obvious and convenient detention centre. When, with the final turn of fortune, the British forces invaded parts of Turkey and took over control, with the Armenian deportations still fresh, persistent demands were made on the victors for retribution.

Till then, there existed no satisfactory precedents for the judiciary of one country (or coalition of victors) to judge the leaders of the losers. No one had put Napoleon on trial – the winners exiled him to St Helena by an administrative decision. The victorious Allies in Paris at the end of WW1 had agreed that an international court would try the Kaiser as a ‘war criminal’, but nothing came of it when he sought sanctuary in Holland which refused to be bullied into arresting him and handing him over to the criminal justice of the victors.4

No international norms for regulating large scale war delinquency and crimes against humanity were then in place. The very concepts anchored in morality rather than law. The civilized world had to wait for the Nuremburg doctrines to crystallize into enforceable – and retroactive – criminal law some basic norms of civilized co-existence which till then only offered a vague ethical profile rather that any compelling legal structure and weight.

This must have been the first dilemma facing the victors when they started rounding up those Turks and others said to be implicated in massive massacres of the Armenians. What to do with them? What crimes then existed on the statute books with which they could be charged? What courts had to be contrived to administer which justice according to what laws? A legal nightmare, a terra incognita that for a first time challenged legal minds to figure out solutions to phenomena unfamiliar before in the history of warfare and its aftermath.

Meanwhile, as the wheels of justice clanged into very slow motion to set up the “Malta Trials”, the British shipped the Turkish detainees to Malta, where many stayed for a very considerable time. Although these events feature quite prominently in Turkish histories, they remain, as far as I could ascertain, completely unknown or ignored in Malta. Whole books have been published in Turkey on the Malta sequel to WW1, but mostly in Turkish.

I have tried to put together a coherent story of this Malta stay of so many prominent Turks. Available evidence of their everyday life in the Maltese camps proved extremely

scarce, as no published memoirs are available to me (e.g., letters of the intellectual Ziya Gokalp from Malta, printed prominently but in Turkish).\(^5\) The published recollections of the Turkish general Esref Kuscubasi and his unpublished description of daily life in Malta, refer to his experiences as a military prisoner of war, not to the post-war contingent of Turkish deportees awaiting trial with which I am dealing.\(^6\) Photographs show them smartly dressed and out on visits to the Turkish cemetery in Marsa and San Anton Gardens.

I did manage to come across some original documents, as far as I could ascertain not included in any published book. As a bonus, I found in the astonishing WW1 prisoners-of-war collection of Mr Tony Camilleri an impressive album with scores of portraits and other photographs of the Turkish deportees in Malta. I believe this visual testimony to be absolutely unique as even in official Turkish literature photographs of the Turkish detainees in Malta remain very rare.

For the introductory part of this study, I will, unless I credit differently, be relying heavily on a well-researched book edited by the Turkish Foreign Policy Institute.\(^7\) Simsir, the author, in turn based himself almost exclusively on documents found in official British archives, notably the Foreign Office. He does not seem to have consulted those in the Maltese National Archive, though several of the documents housed here can be found in the London archives too.

Turkey accepted the armistice imposed by the Allies on October 30, 1918. Britain appointed Admiral Sir Somerset Arthur Gough Calthrope and Rear–Admiral Richard Webb as High Commissioner and assistant High Commissioner of the defeated Ottoman power. On January 2, 1919, Calthorpe requested from the Foreign Office authority to obtain the arrest and handing over of all those responsible for the incessant breaches of the terms of the armistice and the continued ill-treatment of Armenians. He added that the Cabinet of Tevfik Pasha and the Sultan himself were willing to undertake vigorous action against the Committee of Union and Progress (the CUP) perceived as their main political adversary. In Calthorpe’s view, tough measures would make it clear who had won the war and who had lost it and would send a clear signal to stop regarding the Armenians as easy prey.

Calthorpe got together a staff of dedicated assistants, including a notable anti-Turkish Irishman, Andrew Ryan, later Sir, who in 1951 published his memoirs.\(^8\) In his new role as the chief Dragoman of the British High Commission and Second Political Officer, he found himself in charge of the Armenian question. He proved instrumental in the arrest of a large number of the Malta deportees.

Ryan enlisted an impressive line-up of Armenian agents and some Greeks too, to provide him with reports and information which would help him identify and detain those who British policy wanted tried and punished. These fell broadly into three categories: those still breaching the terms of the armistice, those who had allegedly ill-treated Allied prisoners of war and those responsible for excesses against Armenians, in Turkey itself and the Caucasus.

Turks and Muslims too collaborated with the British investigators, notably politicians who had lost power or opposed the CUP movement. Ryan started compiling lists of the wanted men – four from January to April 1919 - and passed them over to the Turkish Government.

Calthorpe asked for a personal interview with Reshid Pasha, Minister for Foreign Affairs, to impress on him how Britain viewed the Armenian affair and the ill-treatment of POWs as “most important” deserving “the utmost attention”. Two days later Calthorpe formally requested the arrest of seven leaders of the CUP. The High Commissioner believed that the arrests could only be carried out by the Turks themselves, and asked for authority to reassure the Sultan of British support in case of any difficulties. The British, the officials repeated, only “suggested” names of persons to be detained “thus disclaiming all responsibility of guaranteeing the evidence” in support of the arrests.

The Grand Vizir informed Calthrope on January 24 that between 160 and 200 persons had been arrested. The admiral realized that these numbers must be an exaggeration. Another 60 people suspected in participating in Armenian massacres still remained at large, awaiting arrest which would be carried out “simultaneously at one coup”.

Those arrested ended locked up in the Bekir Aga prison in Istanbul. Dr Reshid Bey somehow managed to escape, to the unqualified annoyance of Calthorpe who made it clear to the Grand Vizir that Britain, which had already publicly announced its determination to punish those responsible for the ill treatment of Armenians, was not at all amused. The Turks mounted a large-scale manhunt for the Vali of Diyarbakir, and security agents soon surrounded him on the heights of Beskitas. Rather than surrender “to the Sultan’s pitiless police and to the revengeful Armenian jackals” he shot himself dead.

Calthorpe had already set in motion the transfer of the prisoners, or at least some 50 to 60 of them, to Malta. He informed Lord Plumer, Governor of the island, of the need to use Malta for their safe custody outside Turkey. By then, some 40 of the more important suspects rested safely in the hands of the authorities, but five more ‘black lists’ had been drawn up by the Armenian and Greek Section of the British High Commission.

Although British military courts had been set up in those parts of the Ottoman Empire under British control, the High Commission informed the Turkish authorities that seven classes of detainees would not be tried in Turkey but in Malta. These were military officers or other public functionaries accused of the following offences: 1. Failure to comply with the
terms of the armistice; 2. Impeding the execution of the terms of the armistice; 3. Insolence towards British officers; 4. Ill-treatment of allied prisoners of war; 5. Outrages to Armenians and other minorities; 6. Participation in looting and other crimes against property; 7. Breaches of the laws and customs of war.

The French authorities disagreed and formally put their objections on record. Jurisdiction over the occupied territories, the Commander of the French forces in Istanbul, General Franchet d’Esperay was quick to point out, meant those territories occupied before the armistice. Since Istanbul had been ‘entered’ after the armistice, the French considered it outside the area of allied occupation. The British were officially amazed, and privately irritated, by French interference.

The French government moreover minuted its objection to the extradition to Malta of the Turkish detainees and to their trial there. These steps, France insisted “far from having the appearance of justice” risked leaving the impression of vengeance by the victors. France raised another formal issue: why only Turks? No Bulgarian, Austrian or German officers or functionaries had in any way been arrested or molested in similar circumstances.

The Turkish government took a far-sighted and enlightened initiative in an attempt to transform the image of “victor justice” which the Malta trials would have necessarily conveyed. It invited five neutral governments – Spain, the Netherlands, Denmark, Sweden and Switzerland - to send two legal assessors each to take part in the ongoing investigations against the high Turkish politicians, military and civilian officials to be tried.

Britain would have none of that. It rather shockingly tried to intercept and stop the outgoing telegrams prepared by the legations of the neutral states in Istanbul to their home countries from being transmitted at all, but the cables had already left. Some arm-twisting came in as the next fall-back: “It might be worth while to give a hint to the neutral governments concerned” ran the diplomatic refrain. The Spanish government, for instance, was warned by the British Foreign Office: “the acceptance of the Turkish invitation might, and probably would … cause serious complications”. Official British policy remained that the neutral governments “should be discouraged from appointing legal assessors” to the commissions of enquiry. The wise “internationalization” or “neutralization” initiative of the Turkish government aborted.

The next Grand Vizir, a brother in law of the Sultan and notoriously pro-British remains on record with his belief that salvation rested “after God, in His Britannic Majesty’s government”. Ferid Pasha assured the High Commissioner that nothing would be spared to punish those accused of cruelty to the Armenians and to British prisoners of war. A fresh manhunt started for still more politicians, prominent deputies, officers, intellectuals and supporters of the CUP, bankers and journalists. These included the former Grand Vizir Prince Said Halim of the Egyptian royal family.
The British had full trust in Ferid, to the point that they suspended their insistence on individuals being surrendered to them, saving for those accused of ill-treating British prisoners of war. They preferred not to appear doing the dirty work themselves. “There is no prospect of getting a better or more friendly” deal than Ferid Pasha’s. The High Commissioner minuted that “it must be borne in mind … that in regard to massacres, the question of evidence will be extremely difficult”. British policy, at that stage, remained that of insisting on more arrests, ensuring that the detainees were kept in secure centres but not to request their surrender to the occupying powers.

The new Cabinet cooperated. An ex-Governor, Mehmed Kemal Bey, one of those accused of Armenian massacres, was tried by court-martial presided over by a Kurdish General, Mustafa Pasha, found guilty and executed publicly in a square in Istanbul on April 18. Turks to this day believe that political expediency framed and convicted Kemal Bey on no real evidence through a kangaroo court with an agenda to appease the Armenians. He received a hero’s funeral.

Events precipitated. On May 15, Greek troops landed in Izmir (Smyrna) in a first step to dismember the pre-war configuration of Ottoman Turkey. Shortly later Mustafa Kemal (later the charismatic Ataturk) arrived in Samsun on the Southern coast of the Black Sea, with a clear resolve to resist the partition of Turkey and to organize a national movement for the liberation and independence of the fatherland.

This set off a hurried change in British plans. The presence of the prisoners could no longer be guaranteed in Turkish hands and deportation to Malta became the next option. Admiral Webb took the decision to move the prisoners somewhere beyond the reach of popular uprisings in Istanbul. An attack by rioting crowds on Seraskeri and Bekir Aga prisons where the political detainees were in custody could not be ruled out.

Webb assumed responsibility not to inform the Turkish government of his intentions till after they had been carried out, relying on some undocumented wish of Ferid Pasha that the detainees be sent to Malta.

Ryan flatly denies this. No request was ever made by Ferid Pasha for the removal of the detainees to Malta. “The whole responsibility for the decision to deport them and for the selection of the prisoners lay with the British authorities”. General Deeds and Ryan personally compiled the lists and identified those to be deported to Malta. The new Vizir had stressed that he found it most difficult to frame charges against the detainees and still more difficult to obtain a conviction in the circumstances.

The British had already, in March, dispatched to Malta General Ali Ihsan ‘Sabis’ Pasha (together with his corporal). He had refused to surrender his undefeated 6th army despite the terms of the armistice.
The first big contingent to be sent to Malta comprised those hurriedly taken over from the prisons in fear of popular unrests. 67 detainees were placed on board SS *Princess Ena*, of which twelve leading politicians and ex-Ministers were to be landed at Mudros, and 55 in Malta. An additional eleven joined the deportees heading for Malta. These had been arrested following rioting in Kars, and had no connection with war crimes. The exiles ended in Salvatore, Polverista and Verdala Barracks, vacated a year previously by the prisoners of war of the Central Powers.

The list of Malta exiles included Ziya Gokalp who taught philosophy and sociology in Salonika, a leading intellectual, a “strange looking little scholar with the shy ways, the faraway eyes and a sign on his forehead like the sign of the Cross (in his youth he had tried to shoot himself in a mood of despair)”. A friend of Mustafa Kemal, at first their views diverged. Gokalp’s ‘Turkishness’ favoured a return to pre-Moslem customs, while Kemal saw the West as the only model and inspiration.9

Calthorpe justified on various grounds his hasty decision to send the prisoners to Malta. They were all very prominent members of the CUP and, were they to escape or regain their freedom through popular upheaval, they would form a strong nucleus of opposition and disorders. Moreover, the legal prosecution against them in Turkey “has been so dilatory and half-hearted as to render it little less than a farce”. The *Princess Ena* sailed at night on May 28, 1919. Those destined to stay in Malta included 41 politicians, half of whom had been considered responsible for the Armenian atrocities and the other half “as a precautionary war measure” whatever that meant. Another 14 officers suspected of improper treatment of British prisoners of war joined them too.

The French authorities in Istanbul protested quite vehemently, both against the deportation measures and the fact that they had been glaringly ignored. They considered that the exile of the Turkish leaders to Malta served exclusively British and not allied interests. General Milne, *fait accompli*, apologized to the French and Lord Curzon expressed “sincere regrets”.

Now all the legal complexities started surfacing. The Law Officers, seized belatedly of the problems, only found comfort in the reflection that the deportations and detentions of the Turkish leadership were acts of state “the propriety of which cannot be questioned in any court of law”. Their advice came as a cold shower to British politicians and military officers – no law existed to regulate the matter. British military courts could try three of the seven offences (breach of armistice terms, hindering its execution, and ill-treatment of British POWs), but only in the occupied territories, not in Malta. All the other offences, including Armenian excesses, loomed large as legal no man’s land and had best be left for determination in accordance with a future peace treaty.

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The French international law expert Tancrede Martel in 1917 prepared ‘French’ lists of Turkish war delinquents, and argued that they should be tried as common criminals – but by the ordinary civil and criminal courts of the Allied powers.\(^\text{10}\) Obviously lacking was a sound legal basis for the establishment of Allied, or international, tribunals and for the intended prosecutions.

The Paris Peace Conference set up a “Commission on Responsibilities and Sanctions” (chaired by US Secretary of State Robert Lansing – hardly an internationalist at heart. He opposed the setting up of the League of Nations so vehemently that he resigned from the peace process). The workings of the Commission resulted in Article 230 of the Treaty of Sèvres that required the Ottoman Empire to hand over to the Allies all those suspected of massacres during the war, to recognize the right of the Allies to ‘designate’ the tribunals competent to try the accused and to hand over all documents and information necessary to prove the incriminating acts to ensure the prosecutions of the accused. A legal basis, vague and quite flimsy, had anyway been established. Compared to the Nuremberg Charter, a ghost of a legal basis.

Another two Turkish deputies, Feizi and Zulfi Beys previously deported to Egypt, joined those already in Malta in July. Field Marshal Allenby also sent to Malta six other Turkish military officers from Egypt, and the twelve top politicians at first intended for Mudros also re-routed to Malta in September. By now over a 100 of the highest ranking Turks lived in the Malta camps. No one seems to have had very clear views what to do with them. Unthinkable to send them back to Turkey, while at the same time the awareness grew that “it might be very difficult to sustain definitive charges against many of these persons before an allied tribunal”.

Admiral John Michael de Robeck, the new British High Commissioner in Turkey, took quite a realistic view: do nothing, do not suggest further arrests, do not deport any others already in Turkish custody. The selection of those sent to Malta “was necessarily made very hurriedly”. Mustafa Kemal (Ataturk) meanwhile worked at consolidating his popularity and power in Anatolia, and the new Turkish Cabinet of Ali Riza made conciliatory moves towards the upcoming national hero. Kemal held views quite unequivocal: the Turks in Malta could only be tried in Turkey by Turkish courts and should therefore be taken out of Malta and repatriated.

The opening of the new Turkish parliament on January 12, 1920, had been followed by ardent nationalist demonstrations. Robeck proved sufficiently practical to realize that the terms of the Peace Treaty would only be effective if the Allies were prepared to impose them by the use of force. The Supreme Allied Council secretly decided that a pre-emptive military occupation of Istanbul would be indispensable to see to the enforcement of the “sufficiently

\(^{10}\) Dadrian, op. cit., p. 314.
The occupation took one week to complete, and included that of the Chamber of Deputies itself. Mass arrests again followed. Mustafa Kemal summoned a new Grand Turkish National Assembly in Ankara, outside the allied occupation zone.

Ataturk’s biographers vividly describe the storming of the Chamber of Deputies. “A detachment of British troops marched into the lobby demanding that the parliamentary guard surrender [Hussein] Rauf and Kara Vasif. There was pandemonium in the Chamber. Rauf urged that the guards should resist this attack on the Chamber, but the President of the Chamber instructed the commander that arms must not be used. Thus the two Nationalist leaders were arrested and led away to a British warship where they were herded together with some 150 others, including deportees and prisoners of various and dubious kinds, to be shipped off to exile to Malta”.

The new wave of arrests included another 30 important political figures. The British shipped them on HMS Benbow to Malta, where they arrived on March 21, 1920. None of the new deportees had any connection with charges of atrocities. All belonged to the class of politicians perceived to be unfriendly to the British or admirers of Mustafa Kemal ‘Ataturk’. Lord Plumer, Governor of Malta, hardly gushed with delight, food and water proving so scarce in Malta. He already had to stretch his resources to sustain 110 political prisoners. Another 30 would only aggravate his plight.

More Turkish deportees trickled in between March and November 1920, to a total of 144. As a reprisal for the Malta imprisonments, Mustafa Kemal ordered the arrest of 20 British officers in Anatolia, among them Colonel Rawlinson, a relative of Lord Curzon and brother of Lord Rawlinson. These hostages played a determining role in the fate of the prisoners in Malta.

With most of the leading Turkish politicians and military commanders safely restrained in Malta, the victorious allies could dictate a peace treaty described by Ataturk as “a death sentence for the Turkish nation”. One clause of the treaty already mentioned obliged the Turkish government to hand over any person responsible for massacres committed during the war. This set the stage for the Malta Trials.

But Winston Churchill, Secretary of State for War, already started having second thoughts. On July 20 he circulated a secret memo to the Cabinet, with the names of all the deportees in Malta. He suggested a drastic revision of the lists by the Attorney General with

11 Lord Kinross, op. cit., p. 240.
12 I am including as an appendix a full list of all Turkish deportees in Malta showing each prisoner’s identity number, and, where known, their function in the Ottoman Empire and their career after their release from Malta. From Wikipedia, “Malta Exiles".
a view of releasing at the earliest opportunity all those against who no proceedings could be taken – not least because of the relevant cost of their detention in Malta to the British exchequer. Cabinet discussed the issue on August 4. The Law Officers emphasised that very few of the Malta deportees were held on charges of ill-treating British POWs. They divided the detainees into three classes: political offenders, those held on charges of deportations, massacre and pillage, and, lastly those charged with ill-treatment of POWs. Only the third class, they emphasised, “comes within our purview” - arguable legal reasons for continued detention could be invoked.

Of all the prisoners, Major Mazloum Bey Endip alone appeared to be clearly identifiable, as the rest could be mistaken identities for others of similar names. A British prisoner of war in Turkey described Major Mazloum Bey (in Malta prisoner No 2707) in rather uncomplimentary terms “a foul beast … who had murdered prisoners of war and committed loathsome crimes and offences”. And a Chaldean chaplain of the Allied POWs referred to him as “the notorious tyrant Mazloum Bey, a conscienceless, cruel and despotic creature”.

Cabinet decided on a revision of the lists by the Attorney General. Those against who no criminal prosecutions appeared possible “were to be released at the first convenient opportunity”. The Foreign Office disagreed. The Malta prisoners “were entrusted by the Turkish government to the British authorities for custody”. It therefore required the order for release to come from the Turkish, not the British, government. But Sir Horace Rumbold, the new High Commissioner, called this a misunderstanding: he saw the arrest and detention of the Malta prisoners as a purely British affair – they were not in custody on behalf of the Turkish government at all.

Matters dragged on. In February 1921, the Attorney General insisted that the British High Commissioner be asked to submit whatever evidence existed about each of those he believed should be prosecuted for acts against Christians: read Armenians and Greeks. He made it clear that the Crown only wanted to press charges against ‘the eight’ detained in connection with ill-treating Allied POWs.

Poor Lord Plumer in Malta found himself at a complete loss as to what line to pursue. He mentioned the 115 Turkish prisoners (the others were not technically Turkish or had been released) who belonged to the highest social classes, such as Princes, Ministers of State, Generals, Governors, Deputies, etc. They all invoked loudly the basic British constitutional principle that they should be considered and treated as innocent until found guilty. They all denied the charges, attributing them to malicious misinformation by their political enemies, Greeks, Armenians and to mistaken identities. All their petitions, Plumer

added, had remained unanswered, and they had never been given any opportunity to defend themselves against whatever accusations. They requested a list of the charges to be brought against them, together with a summary of the evidence. Plumer supported all their requests. Rumbold, on the other hand, argued against telling the prisoners anything – only that they would eventually be charged with massacre and deportations, or cruelty to POWs.

A copy of Field Marshal Lord Plumer’s long dispatch to the Secretary of State for the Colonies of February 1921 (no day, but forwarded on February 15) is being published in facsimile. In my view this as yet unused document appears as one of the more important exchanges, containing in detail the description of the seven classes of Turkish exiles (A to F). It gives information on the treatment of the deportees, on parole, leisure activities and personal annotations about confidences by several of the exiles to him. Plumer sounds highly supportive, if not of their political stances, of their personal tragedies.15

I am also pleased to reproduce, again in facsimile, one of the significant petitions addressed by the Turkish exiles on Malta to Plumer, to my knowledge never published before. It is dated May 12, 1921, runs to four pages and carries the signatures of 44 inmates of Polverista Camp. Reasonably good English, except for ‘justification’ used instead of ‘jurisdiction’. This petition mentions that “part of us have already been completely released”. Though other sources make it obvious that a first batch of prisoners had previously left Malta, the histories I consulted strangely do not mention these releases.16

This confidential file contains a copy of a letter from Rumbold dated March 4, 1921 in which he states that he does “not object to the immediate liberation of any or all of the deportees in categories C. D. and E., but, as regards the remainder, it is obvious it is not feasible either to expedite their trial or forecast its probable date”.17

Lord Curzon, in March, informed Rumbold that the Crown contemplated an exchange of POWs. What was the point of keeping those against who no criminal charges could be pressed? Rumbold changed his tune. Well aware of the British hostages in Kemal’s hands and other POWs, he grudgingly agreed “provided we can secure in exchange the release of all British prisoners in the hands of the Kemalists”. But he still retained that at least some of the Malta deportees should be prosecuted.

On March 16, 1921, the Turkish Foreign Minister and the British Foreign Office signed an agreement in London. In exchange for the 22 British prisoners in Turkey, Britain would set free 64 Turkish prisoners from Malta. These excluded those it was intended to prosecute for alleged offences in violation of the laws and customs of war or for massacres committed

15 National Archives, Dispatch from Col. i/c Admin, No 654/21
16 National Archives, Dispatch from S. of S. to Governor, 16. 4. 1921, No 90/21.
17 Ibid.
in any part of the Turkish Empire after war had broken out. The British reserved the right to forbid the released prisoners from returning to Constantinople before the restoration of peace. The Turkish government, however, disowned the terms of the agreement on the ground that all Turkish prisoners in Malta were to be released without exceptions, and the Turkish Minister for Foreign Affairs who had signed the repudiated agreement, resigned.

The level of proof available against those detained in Malta remained crucial. No evidence relating to them was held in either London or Malta, and all hopes relied on what the High Commissioner in Constantinople could produce. Rumbold persisted in being evasive. He accepted that with what he had “the prosecution will find itself under grave disadvantages”. He made it clear that his principal source of information against the Malta detainees was the Armenian Patriarchate in Constantinople. He gave substance to his wishful thinking, adding that “The American government in particular is doubtless in possession of a large amount of documentary information compiled at the time the massacres were taking place”.

Rumbold forwarded what evidence he had about each of the 56 deportees he believed could be prosecuted. It became obvious that this was mostly based on a ‘presumption of guilt’ theorem: high government officials had to be presumed to have known about, and acquiesced to, the massacres. The British authorities were well aware that what they had available would fail the test of any criminal court. The Attorney General clearly showed his reluctance to be drawn into any political wrangle and that, as far as he was concerned, only the eight prisoners accused of ill-treating allied POWs had any legal relevance. The rest concerned political issues, to be dealt with by the Foreign Office. Against the other 45 Turks (two had meanwhile escaped from Malta) practically no legal evidence could be raked up. The last hope to salvage something face-saving rested on cooperation from Washington.

But Washington underlined eloquently its reluctance to get involved. After repeated diplomatic pressures, the State Department came round to letting officials from the British Embassy view whatever documents it had, on the clear understanding “that the source of information will not be divulged” – that would look rather unimpressive in a court of law. When officers of the British Embassy actually sifted through the American documents, nothing incriminating that would stand in a criminal court could be traced. Two of the Malta prisoners were mentioned by name: Sabit Bey and Suleiman Faik Pasha, but their culpability rested on the personal opinion of the writer of the reports, not on facts. End of the mirage called American mine of information.

For reasons never explained, the British authorities do not seem to have ever considered using in Malta any of the – mostly documentary – evidence on Armenian atrocities on which Turkish prisoners had been accused and convicted by Turkish military courts shortly
after the armistice – substantial and disturbing documents. Quite likely the British found the continental inquisitorial system of penal procedure used in Turkey repugnant to its own paths to criminal justice and doubted the propriety of relying on it. Or, possibly, the Turkish government never came round to hand over the incriminating documents used by the military courts. Whatever the reason, with the advent of power of Ataturk, all the documents on which the Turkish military courts had based their trials and convictions, were ‘lost’. Conveniently, add Armenian historians.

Faced by this concerted dearth of hard evidence, the politicians again resorted to the Attorney General: politically it was desirable to be seen to be doing something. Just as politically it would be courting disaster to press charges abortively and then face the outrage of unjustified prosecution and acquittal.

The Attorney General, not less disheartened, also washed his hands. He “does not feel that he is in a position to express any opinion on the prospect of success in any of the cases submitted for his consideration”. The government took the hint. “From this letter (the Attorney General’s) it appears that the chances of obtaining convictions are almost nil”.

In addition to the impossibility of acquiring legal evidence, another problem faced the authorities. This was “the extreme unlikelihood that the French and Italians would agree to participate in constituting the (international) court” provided for by the peace treaty. From now onwards the fact that 144 leading personalities had been deported to a foreign prison and detained for long periods when no charges could be laid against them, started being played down as ‘regrettable’.

One of the dispatches found in the Maltese archives gives an indication of how at sea the British legal advisors were in the matter of international criminal courts – a concept which only evolved after WW2. Writing about the projected Malta Trials, Rumbold says:

“As, moreover, the special tribunals which are to be constituted with a view to such trial under Article 230 of the Treaty, will have to evolve their own principles and forms of procedure and formulate their own rules of evidence, it does not appear to me advisable that any attempt should be made to draw up definite charges, and still less to communicate to the accused persons statements of the case against them, until such time as those tribunals are actually constituted and prepared to enter into operation, the delays which have occurred in this connection having been due to causes which were altogether beyond our control”. 18

The Malta deportees, after June, no longer qualified as prisoners awaiting charge and trial, but as pawns to be used in exchange of British hostages in Kemal’s hands in Anatolia. As the obstacles to trial by an international court became more obviously insurmountable, Sir Lindsay Smith, judge of the supreme court minuted: “the only alternative therefore is to retain

18 National Archives, Dispatch from S. of S., 16.4.1921, No 90/21.
them as hostages only, and to release them against British prisoners”.

The High Commissioner comes across more explicitly: “we would be seen to be continuing an act of technical injustice in further detaining the Turks in question. In order therefore to avoid, as far as possible, losing face in the matter, I consider that all the Turks except ‘the eight’ (accused of ill-treatment of British POWs) should be made available for exchange purposes”.

The negotiators, however, received secret instructions to include ‘the eight’ too if this had to ensure the release of all the British prisoners held by Mustafa Kemal. The Turkish government delegated Hamid Bey, of the Ottoman Red Crescent, to bargain with the British. He made it clear that Turkey only supported an all-for-all deal that included ‘the eight’. Rumbold reserved to give an answer by October 1. The envoys further discussed the mechanics of the exchange in an Anatolian port. The lot fell on Inebolu on the Black Sea. The prisoners from both sides would reach the port on the same day. The British at this stage agreed to let go ‘the eight’ unconditionally.

Lord Plumer in Malta arranged for the release of the 59 remaining prisoners and they sailed in two batches, 17 on the RFA Montenol and 42 on HMS Chrysanthemum. The authorities asked them to sign clearance certificates, but they refused, stating their intention to sue the British government for damages in respect of their internment in Malta. They reached Inebolu on October 31, 1921. “The exchange took place in the open roadstead of Inebolu where a British cruiser awaited with Rauf and the other Turks from Malta on board. Here, as Rawlinson recalled, the British sailors, observing their (the British hostages’) pitiful condition, came forward to assist us with the utmost gentleness and care to climb on board the launch”.19 The exchange with the British hostages brought to an inconclusive end an inconclusive saga.

The words of Harold Armstrong seem to me a fitting closure to this story. What happened to the Malta deportees once they were released? “All the Turks of military age began to leave for Anatolia and all of any importance made for Ankara. The Sultan’s advisers were believed to have supplied many of the names, and hatred against the Sultan increased. The belief in British justice suffered a rude shock. Many of the deportees were men of great importance. When released they became Ministers and deputies in the Ankara government and their hatred of the British was not diminished by their imprisonment, degradation and general treatment in Malta”.

Most of the Malta exiles rose to the highest positions in social, political business and

19 Kinross, op. cit., p. 329.
20 Armstrong, op. cit., ibid.
cultural circles after the establishment of the new regime of Kemal Ataturk. The most prominent one from the old era, the former Grand Vizir Prince Said Halim, opted to go to Rome, where the Armenian Arshavir Shirakian assassinated him on December 6. The ex-Minister for the Interior, Mehmet Talat Pasha, the mind behind the Special Organization, seen by the Armenians as the tool of their persecution, should have been in Malta too, but managed to escape to Berlin where he was assassinated by the Armenian Soghohom Tehlirian on March 15. By the end of 1922 at least eight of the Turkish leaders on the Malta lists had been ‘executed’ by Armenian commandos. A great irony is that the former Sultan, a runaway on HMS Malaya, found refuge in Malta as a first stop in his sad exile.

Although most of the Malta deportees ideologically gravitated towards the Ataturk vision of a new Turkey, some of the leading ones eventually lost favour, to the point that suspicion fell on them of being behind the plot to kill Ataturk in 1926, like Cemal Pasha Mersinli and Cevat Pasha Cobanli.

Had the projected ‘Malta Trials’ actually taken place, they would have been as fundamental a milestone in international law as the Nuremburg Trials later turned out to be. They would have ushered in a radically new legal order based on the evolution of international cooperation and action to bring to justice those suspected of barbaric acts in the name of a misconceived patriotism or defence of the fatherland. They would have been the first to revolutionize the traditional modes of criminal justice, principally the basic principle of “no crime if not provided for by a pre-existing law” and that every criminal prosecution lapses after a prescriptive period. Those would have been the Malta principles, rather than the Nuremburg ones.

A second, more obviously pernicious effect of the breakdown of the Malta process is that it failed to bring closure to the Armenian genocide controversy. Had the preparatory enquiries and fact-findings run their course seriously and convincingly at the hands of neutral investigators, those tribunals would have helped to answer the endlessly haunting question whether massacres or genocide actually occurred, as the Armenians claim, or did not, as the Turks, equally indignantly assert. Without the Malta process running full term, the acrimonious debate goes on, with very meagre prospect of resolution, so entrenched are both sides in asserting and denying. The fact itself that the Malta trials aborted is seen as an argument in favour of the assertionists by Armenians and for the negationists by Turks.

Many factors contributed to the collapse of the Malta prosecutions and trials, principal among them the internal dissensions among the former Allies which precluded any meaningful cooperation or identity of purpose, the lack of experience in systematic fact-finding missions

21 www.yevrobatsi.org « Malta Documents »
and in collective international criminal justice, the reluctance of the British to get neutral powers on board, the absence of any legal, cultural or intellectual frameworks on which to build coherent systems of international criminal theory and practice. Not least, the tired and cynical feeling that 22 British lads were well worth a hundred Turks and a million Armenians. The step from municipal criminal law to supranational criminal justice was a transcendental one, too insubstantial in the 1920s to appear anything but unattractive.

23 Lord Curzon, deeply embarrassed by the exchange of the hostages minuted: “The less we say about these people (the Turks released for exchange) the better … I had to explain (to Parliament) why we released the Turkish deportees from Malta, skating over thin ice as quickly as I could … The staunch belief among Members (of Parliament) is that one British prisoner is worth a shipload of Turks, and so the exchange was excused”. Foreign Office Archive, FO 371/7882/E4425 f. 182.
Distinguished guests and Ladies and Gentlemen,

It is my honor to be here with you and present our presentation and sharing my opinions with you.

Since the ancient civilization’s formed in various continents of the world, inseparable part of the history of the mankind has been the history of war and conflicts. There were numerous wars and conflicts fought between the nations and states in every corner of the world but we, the mankind, had never been experienced the true brutality of global conflict until the WWI.

Sometimes we feel that we were taught enough by our past and could get it right to maintain permanent global peace. Sadly we can still see that there are many regional conflicts and wars still go on which means we never learnt from our past to understand that there was never been an ultimate victor of war.

Therefore, I would like to highlight the importance of this event as its purpose aims to ensure permanent peace in the world based on war experiences we went through.

By the outbreak of the First World War in 1914, Mongolia was struggling to obtain international recognition on its recently declared independency from the Manchu-Qing Dynasty following the Xinhai Revolution. Unfortunately that ultimate goal was diminished by at least a decade under the shadow of the First World War that drew in almost all the world’s economic and political great powers.

The tripartite conference commenced between the Russian Empire, Republic of China and the Bogd Khaan’s Government of Mongolia to determine the status quo of Mongolian autonomy in the autumn of 1914 and the result was the Kyakhta Treaty of June 1915, which recognized Mongolia’s autonomy within the Chinese state. Even though Outer Mongolia remained effectively outside of Chinese direct control, it had not had an autonomous position to conduct an independent foreign policy, but its neutral position was clear on the international relations according to the documents in National Archive of Mongolia.

* Director of National Archives - General Archival Authority of Mongolia
For now I would like to draw your attention on the following documents which are specifically providing the proof of Mongolian neutrality during the WWI.

First: There are six pieces of documents are kept in National Central Archive of Mongolia, related to the declaration of war by Republic of China on Germany and Empire of Austria-Hungary and obliged Autonomous Outer Mongolia to follow its foreign policy in compliance with the Rule of 11 clauses, written in Chinese and Mongolian traditional script covering March 16th of 1917 to August 20th of 1917.

“From: Plenipotentiary Minister in charge of Khuree on behalf of Republic of China
To: The Autonomous Government of Bogd Khan’s Mongolia

Hereby we inform you that Republic of China has declared war on Germany and Empire of Austria-Hungary and breaking off its diplomatic relations with those States. Therefore, the Government of Autonomous Outer Mongolia has to comply its foreign policy with Republic of China, and to appoint a special officer who has to examine and review any magazine, and telegrams transferred through the Data Telegram Committee of Khuree in compliance with the Rule of 11 clauses in order to deter any suspicious telegrams. /From March 16, 1917 to August 20, 1917/ Mongolian-Chinese script, a total 6 pieces of documents.”

The Autonomous Government of Bogd Khan’s Mongolia immediately responded to the above mentioned note as follows:

“From: The Autonomous Government of Bogd Khan’s Mongolia
To: Plenipotentiary Minister in charge of Khuree on behalf of Republic of China

The Declaration of war on Germany and Empire of Austria-Hungary by Republic of China is considered not our Autonomous Outer Mongolia’s matter. Therefore, Plenipotentiary Minister’s decision to appoint a special officer to conduct examination on Autonomous Outer Mongolian Government’s telegrams is difficult to comply with, thus we hereby inform you to review your decision.”

So the decision was invalidated and the rule did not enforced at all.

Second: Apart from the mentioned official notes exchanged between the Republic of China and Autonomous Outer Mongolia, there are some documents related with prisoners of war in the fund of National Archives of Mongolia which also can prove the neutral foreign policy of Outer Mongolia. /From March 16, 1917 to April 03, 1917/ Mongolian-Chinese script, a total 2 pieces of documents./

In 1917, two citizens of Austria-Hungary, who might have been detained somewhere in Siberian prisoner’s camp as POW’s of Russian Empire, came to Niislel Khuree (capital city of Outer Mongolia, today’s Ulaanbaatar) and requested assistance from Outer Mongolia’s
Government. Unfortunately the Government of Autonomous Outer Mongolia had not have full political power to fulfill their request to stay in Mongolia as provide asylum but assisted them with food and clothes. Then they were had to send back to Kyakhta under military personnel surveillance.

This case proves that Autonomous Outer Mongolia was a country to seek assistance for POW’s and refugees during WWI, because it was obvious for them the country is definitely not their foe even though not their ally.

Therefore analyzing the given circumstances of that time, I would like to say that the reason of refusing their request can be explained that the Government of Autonomous Outer Mongolia has tried its best to avoid any interactions with adverse parties of WWI.

Third: at the National Archive of Mongolia, we kept the private letters written and exchanged between the famous Mongolian nationals and government officials during the WWI.

For instance, I would like to mention a letter written by Mr.Agvaan Dorjiev, a monk, and also who was the plenipotentiary ambassador of Tibetan Dalai Lama XIII in Buryat, he sent a letter to Mr,Namnansuren, who was the first Prime Minister of Bogd Khaan’s Government of Mongolia.

Mr. Agvaan Dorjiev, provided updated information of on-going process of WWI, such as which side is winning the major battles, how the adverse parties are divided, which states are still remain powerfully in terms of military etc.

So I would like to conclude that based on the mentioned documents, Mongolian historical figures were very cautious and thoughtful on any matters related to adverse parties of WWI, and try to avoid from misleading foreign policy and interactions with great powers of that time.

Finally, please, we kindly request you dear friends, we are very keen to cooperate with everybody who interest to research, evaluate and collect or do copy records of any historical documents relating to your country or related with Mongolian history that are kept in our archival funds.

Thank you very much for your attention.
The private letter regarding of process of the First World War by Agyaan Dorjiey, Tibetan XIII Dalai Lama’s ambassador and Buryat abbot to Mr. T. Namnansuren Prime Minister of Autonomous Outer Mongolia. The end of this document was not mentioned the date, only written that “Good fortune date”.

Mongolian script
National Central Archives of Mongolia, Fund-4, File-1
MOLDOVA / MOLDOVA

THE STATUS OF PRISONERS OF WAR IN THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE (AND RUSSIA) DURING THE FIRST WORLD WAR (1914–1917)

Prof. Ion VARTA *

National Archives of the Republic of Moldova hold thousands of documents that reflect various aspects related to the World War I. Most part of these documents refers to the mobilization of several contingents of men in the former province of Bessarabia who participated in military operations in various parts of the front. According to several historians’ estimations, over 300,000 persons were mobilized in these territories during the four years of war.

Another category of our archival documents reflects the policies of the Russian imperial authorities towards the ethnic German and Bulgarian residents, but also toward the Romanians born in Austria-Hungary, settled down in Bessarabia and who were exiled in central provinces of the Russian Empire.

Such repressive policies aimed at tens of thousands of families, whose properties have been partly confiscated. Only after the end of war and their return to the home place, the new Romanian authorities returned the confiscated properties.

Another important category of documents from this period reflects the vicissitudes of war that people from Bessarabia have faced during the First World War.

An important corpus of archival documents refers to the engagement of a small contingent of prisoners of war in mainly agricultural works in Bessarabia Gubernia during the period 1915-1917.

The World War I, as it is well known, drew into its orbit 38 countries with a population of 1,5 billion people. The First World War caused the greatest damages and losses of human lives. 9,5 million soldiers were killed and another 20 million were injured, of which, 3,5 million remained invalid.

Apart from this kind of human losses, the belligerent camps have suffered also other type of losses, as the prisoners of war. Millions of soldiers were taken as prisoners, supporting multiple deprivations. Consequently, a high mortality rate was recorded among this category.

More than half million war prisoners from the two belligerent camps died due to injuries,

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diseases (including epidemics), starvation, suicide, death sentences and torture during the period August 1914 - December 1918.

Most people dying in captivity were citizens of the Russian Empire (Russia) - 190,000; Serbia - 72,000; Austria-Hungary - 70,000; Italy - 60,000; Germany - 56,000; Romania - 40,000; France - 19,000; Ottoman Empire (Turkey) - 16,000; United Kingdom - 16,000; Montenegro - 3,000; Belgium and Bulgaria - one thousand persons for each and Portugal, Greece and the US up to a thousand persons for each country.

Russian authorities were taken aback by the huge flow of prisoners of war and coped hardly with various problems caused by this phenomenon.

At the beginning, the accommodation of prisoners of war was provided by the municipal authorities, which were forced to shelter them in buildings intended for public use.

When the places were exhausted and the contagious diseases caused by epidemics spread among urban population, the decision to set up specialized camps for prisoners was taken.

Given the fact that millions of men were mobilized in the Russian army, a shortage of labor force appeared, both in the cities, but especially in the province (or in villages).

Since there was a huge number of prisoners (2.2 - 2.3 million) it was decided to use this force for covering the gap caused by the lack of labor force.

The local population was involved in activities specific for a region behind the front: transporting ammunition, food and fodder for the military units located in the first line; fixing the roads. In northern Bessarabia, the local population was involved in the construction of fortifications.

By October 1916, over 100,000 men were mobilized for war in Bessarabia. Consequently, in agriculture there was a shortage of labor force.

Following the requests of the governor of Bessarabia, 13,000 war prisoners were planned for agricultural work in the autumn of 1916. However the Ministry of War has reduced this figure to 7,000 persons.

Once all the prisoners of South - Slavic origin from this contingent left Bessarabia, there were left only 4,613 prisoners. For spring agricultural works of 1917, the governor of the province asked additional 40,000 agricultural workers, of which 20,000 war prisoners and 20,000 Chinese.

War prisoners were divided into several categories depending on their work capacity. The infirm and helpless were spared, having of a lighter regime. The detention regime was tolerant. This is the reason for the numerous escapes.
The officers were dislocated in the city, living in groups in buildings provided by the municipality.

The soldier prisoners were usually interned in camps, living in barracks in companies formed based on nationality.

The concentration camps disposed of an infirmary, responsible for overseeing the prisoners’ state of health. If it was necessary, the sick ones were treated in the municipal hospital or in the infectious section of the city’s military hospital.

Russian concentration camps were visited by the Red Cross representatives of the countries involved in the First World War. They were collecting information regarding the necessities on prisoners needs in order to provide the necessary assistance.

The prisoners were paid for their work in the industrial enterprises or agriculture. The third part of the prisoners’ gain was retained in a special fund for their own necessities.

However, the prisoners’ detention conditions in concentration camps did not satisfy even the basic necessities.

The camps’ barracks system was unsatisfactory. A barrack was 42 meters length, 13 meters width and 4.2 meter in height. In this space were deployed 250-300 persons. Sometimes prisoners were kept in huts with inadequate conditions for life during rainfall.

Along the barracks walls multistage log beds were installed. Bed linen was missing in concentration camps in Russia. During their sleep, prisoners covered themselves with their own clothes.

Prisoners were suffering from chronic malnutrition. The most common prisoners’ appeals were related to inadequate nutrition, lack of clothing and unbearable conditions of detention, in particular due to overcrowding of barracks and unsanitary conditions. All this generated a high mortality rate, especially during the cold season and in spring, when the human body was exhausted. In many concentration camps epidemics typhus were very common. According to the German historian J. Schneider investigations, during the First World War all the prisoners of 52 camps died because of epidemics. At the beginning, prisoners of war in the Russian Empire were divided into two categories. The first category included all those who had Slavic origin, while the second category included the Germans, Hungarians, Turks and Jews. The Slavs were detained in better conditions. They obtained mattresses stuffed with straw. Twice a month they were being allowed the attendance of bath. The Slavic prisoners, especially officers could go out in city. Local population was lenient towards prisoners, especially towards those of Slavic origin.

In this way, the prisoners treatment in Russia was a different one. Most of the war
prisoners have had a treatment that does not frame with the provisions of the Hague Convention because of malnutrition, unsanitary conditions, epidemics and harsh climatic conditions.

Therefore, in many camps protests were organized, war prisoners claiming a more humane treatment.

According to official statistics, in the Russian captivity, 51,608 prisoners or 2, 63 % of the total number of persons in camps died from various causes. The mortality rate among Russian prisoners in German concentration camps was higher, rising up to 285,000 people or 7, 91 %.

Reference Sources

1) Fund 9, inventory 1, folder/file 4286, page 33
2) Fund 9, inventory 1, folder/file 4286, page 1
3) Fund 9, inventory 1, folder/file 4286, page 15
4) Fund 9, inventory 1, folder/file 4286, page 19
5) Fund 9, inventory 1, folder/file 4286, page 57
6) Fund 9, inventory 1, folder/file 4857, page 12
ABSTRACT

Among other subtitles, the paper examines archives of the Federal Republic of Nigeria as they relate to the First World War (WWI). It further discusses the establishment of National Archives of Nigeria, its functions, organization, programmes and the country’s role in WWI.

In addition, the presentation highlights key documents that have been preserved from that era, and finally, the contributions of Nigeria’s archival heritage to national development.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

It is indeed a great honour to be part of this historic event in commemoration of 100 years of the First World War and to stand before you to make this presentation on behalf of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

On behalf of the Permanent Secretary, Federal Ministry of Information who has also honoured the invitation, I wish to commend the Turkish Government, through the Prime Ministry, General Directorate of State Archives for organizing this very laudable event, in particular the exhibition which would afford delegates from all the various invited countries to share and appreciate their respective national archival heritage under one roof.

This paper comprises of three principal parts, namely:

i. The country Nigeria and its Past Leaders

ii. Evolution of National Archives of Nigeria

iii. Nigeria’s Role and Documentation of The First World War

2.0 THE COUNTRY NIGERIA AND PAST LEADERS

Nigeria derives its name from the River Niger, one of the most prominent physical features of the country. Occupying a total and mass of 923.768 sq.km, Nigeria is situated on the west coast of Africa.

The country shares common boundaries with the Republic of Niger and Chad to the
North, Republic of Cameroon to the East and Republic of Benin to the West. The country is bound by the Atlantic Ocean in the South stretching for 823km.

On 1 January 1914 the British protectorates of Southern and Northern Nigeria were united to form a single Colony and Protectorate. Sir Frederick Lugard, who had wide experience of administration in West Africa, was made Governor-General. The country had her independence in 1960 under the leadership of Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe and Sir Abubakar Tafawa Balewa. The present administration is headed by Dr. Goodluck Ebele Jonathan.

3.0 EVOLUTION OF NATIONAL ARCHIVES OF NIGERIA

3.1 ESTABLISHMENT

The Nigerian Records Office was established on April 1, 1954 with Professor Dike as pioneer Supervisor of Public Records.

Since 1954, the Office has come under nine Ministries, and is currently a Department in the Federal Ministry of Information. Official record-keeping in Nigeria received a significant boost on November 14, 1957 with the passage of the Public Archives Ordinance No.43, which authorized the establishment of the National Archives of Nigeria to provide for the preservation of public archives. The Act empowered the National Archives of Nigeria to establish as many branches as might be deemed necessary and convenient. The legislation was repealed with the promulgation of the National Archives Decree No.30 of July 8, 1992, which rectified some of the observed inadequacies in the earlier Act.

3.2 GENERAL HOLDINGS:

The holdings of the National Archives of Nigeria are spread across its various zonal and branch offices. Kaduna, in North West Nigeria, houses the Department’s oldest records dating back to the 12th Century A.D. These collections include records of Colonial and Post-Colonial governance in Northern Nigeria, the Secretariat of Northern Provinces, Premier’s Office, Ministries and Parastatals, Arabic manuscripts, activities of Muslim traders, missionaries and adventurers. Ibadan, in southwest Nigeria served as National Archives headquarters between 1958. Its holdings include, records of the Central Administration (Consular era, the Colony and Protectorate of southwest Nigeria, Ministries and Parastatals), the Western Provinces and Western Provinces and Western Region, individuals, private organizations, corporate bodies, newspapers and Government publications. Enugu, in southeast Nigeria began hosting National Archives of Nigeria in 1958. Among its holding are Consular Dispatches, records of the Protectorate Administrations, the Civil Secretary, Provincial and District Offices, Local Government and Native Administration, Judiciary and Ecclesiastics, War Collections, Ministries and Parastatals.
The National Archives holdings include:

i. Over 25,000 linear metre of Records;

ii. Official Records from 18th Century to date;

iii. Nigerian Gazette from 1903 to date;

iv. Over 10,000 photographs of pre and post-colonial activities in Nigeria;

v. Newspapers publication from 1859;

vi. Intelligence reports on the socio-anthropological history of Nigeria communities;

vii. War records.

4.0 NIGERIA’S ROLE AND DOCUMENTATION OF THE FIRST WORLD WAR

At the beginning of the First World War, the defence force was made up of 2,000 police and the Nigeria Regiment of the West African Frontier Force. The Nigeria Regiment consisted of approximately 5,000 soldiers, organized into five infantry battalions under the command of Colonel C H P Carter.

The National Archives of Nigeria has great collections of the First World War, from the beginning, during and after the war. The Collections in Nigeria is currently being digitized, so it is not possible to move the archives for exhibition.

The West African Frontier Force which was a Multi-battalion Field Force, formed by the British Colonial Office in 1900 to protect the West African colonies of Nigeria, Gold Coast (Ghana) Sierra Leone and Gambia under the leadership of Colonel F.D. Lugard who arrived in Nigeria in 1898.

The main aim of forming this Frontier Force was to checkmate the rapid France occupation of West Africa.

During the First World War (1914-1918), the West Africa Frontier Force first saw action during the occupation of the German Cameroon. The experience gained during the action of the war 1914-1916, in difficult terrain against stubborn resistance, made the WAFF a valuable reinforcement to the British Empire forces operating against the German colonial troops (Schutztruppe) in East Africa led by Gen. Paul Von Lettow-Vorbeck.

The African Theatre of World War 1 describes campaigns in North Africa instigated by the German and Ottoman empires, local rebellions against European Colonial rule and Allied campaigns against the German colonies of Cameroon, Togoland, German, South-West and German East Africa which were fought by German troops, local resistance movements and
forces of the British Empire, France, Belgium and Portugal.

A single battalion of the Gold Coast (Ghana) Regiment arrived in German East Africa in 1916 and was soon joined by four battalions of the Nigerian Regiment. All of these battalions remained active in this theatre of wars until 1918.

Nigerians, contributed immensely to the execution of the 1st War both in human resources and trades. It was a period Northern and Southern Protectorates were fused together to form the country as it is now known as Nigeria. Series of proclamations were passed by the Governor-Generals without a recourse to the effect on the citizens. The then Governor-General, F.D. Lugard was an autocratic ruler, Nigeria played her role effectively. The human loses and trades embargo with African countries cannot be quantified during this period of craziness (1914-1918).

Nigeria, at the end of the First World War had nine battalions called the “the Queen’s Own Nigeria Regiment”.

4.1 Conquest of The Cameroons

On the outbreak of World War I, towards the end of August 1914, the British forces under Colonel Carter began an invasion of The Cameroons from the west, crossing the border at several points. The Nigerian Regiment was the major component of the force.

The two main targets were German bases at Garua and Mora, both in northern Cameroons, and within 60 miles of the Nigerian border. The Nigerian troops suffered heavy casualties as they came under artillery fire. The German (Schutztruppe) forced them to retreat and were then able to conduct raids into Nigeria. In the south, the advance suffered heavy casualties at the battle of Nsanakong, just a few miles across the border. The contingent lost half of its 200 men, including most of the officers

In contrast, the British attack of September 1914 on the port of Douala was successful. The cruisers HMS Challenger and Cumberland enabled troops, including a Nigerian
contingent under Major General Charles Dobell, to land. The German forces immediately retreated. However, at the end of 1914, the Germans were still strongly entrenched in the northern interior making the Cameroons campaign long and drawn out.

In September 1914 Lieutenant Colonel (later Brigadier General) Frederick Cunliffe replaced Colonel Carter as commander of the Nigerian Regiment. He launched a further attack on the stronghold of Garua in June 1915, and captured it. The Nigerian Regiment moved further south to assist Dobell’s forces. They fought a number of battles and captured the German fort at Banyo in November 1915. The Germans found themselves in a weak position, but held out in their northern stronghold at Mora until their final surrender in February 1916.

4.2 Nigerian Brigade

As the fighting ended in The Cameroons, the need for troops in the East Africa campaign increased. The government in Nigeria responded by calling for volunteers to form a Nigerian Brigade. The resulting force of over 4,000 troops made up a brigade of four infantry battalions and an artillery battery. The Nigerian Brigade sailed from Lagos in November 1916, around the Cape of Good Hope. They were in position near the Rufiji River in southern Tanganyika by the end of the year.

In the campaign that followed, the German commander Paul von Lettow-Vorbeck tended to retreat and avoided large-scale confrontation. Nevertheless, the Nigeria Brigade fought skirmishes around the Rufiji River during January 1917. Fighting was suspended as the summer rains set in, and the troops suffered hunger and disease in monsoon conditions. In September 1917, the majority of the Nigerian Brigade came together at Kilwa, in the south east of German East Africa, to continue the pursuit of the German forces.

Von Lettow-Vorbeck made an exception to his evasive tactics in defending the food and stores depot at Mahiwa. When the Nigerian battalions attacked Mahiwa, they met fierce resistance and found themselves isolated with limited supplies. A few days later the Brigade
managed to retreat, but 149 men had been killed and 418 were wounded. By the middle of November, over a third of its men were casualties. When the Brigade returned home in January 1918, some 6,200 Nigerians had fought in the East Africa campaign.

4.3 Rebellions

Throughout the war, rebellions occurred in many areas of Nigeria. Some forced the British authorities to withdraw troops from the campaign in The Cameroons. In Egbaland, in southern Nigeria, riots took place in August 1914 which were linked to government demands for labour for road repair gangs. Troops led by Lieutenant D E Wilson fired into a crowd at Ijemo, killing 35 of the demonstrators.

The Ijemo massacre, as it became known, was the start of protests and rebellions that took place sporadically across many parts of Nigeria over the course of the war. In Muri province, which was near The Cameroons’ border, fighting caused alarm and instability. Fifty-nine officials and government employees were killed in an ambush.

In October 1916, the widespread ‘Oke-Ogun’ rebellion took place among the Yoruba communities of southwest Nigeria. It only came to an end after battles with government troops. The rebellion followed the killing of an unpopular chief and his associates, who were seen by the rebels as Lugard’s collaborators. The British colonial authorities forcibly repressed the rebellion.

Perhaps the most significant and largest rebellion took place in Egbaland in June 1914. This was in response to changes to the system of taxation and administration introduced under the Lieutenant Governor of Southern Nigeria, Sir Alexander George Boyle. 30,000 rebels attacked Abeokuta, the state capital, destroying infrastructure including railways and telegraph lines. In July, the rebels were defeated by government troops, who had returned from East Africa. Over 1,000 Africans were killed in the fighting.

The Battle Honours: All members of the WAFF (1914-1918) were honoured for gallantry display of courage, resilience and determination of purpose.

The WAFF was disbanded in 1960 as the British colonies of Nigeria, Sierra Leone and the Gambia moved towards independence. The former RWAFF units formed the basis of the new national armies of their respective States.

5.0 Documentation Of First World War

5.1 Key documents

i. War diaries, The Cameroons, 1914-1916

ii. Nigerian Regiment: enemy raids on Manipula and Matum Biu
NATIONAL ARCHIVES OF NIGERIA:
DOCUMENTATION OF WWI (1914-1918)

iii. Nigerian Regiment: Garua, operational reports and telegrams with maps 1915 May 4-June 1915
iv. Nigerian Regiment: equipment of troops
v. War Diaries Lindi Force, Nigerian Brigade October 1917 – December 1918
vi. War Diaries Norforce Nigerian Brigade, 1 Service Battalion Nigerian Regiment September 1916 - February 1917
vii. War Diaries Nigerian Brigade: 1 Service Battalion Nigerian Regiment September 1916 - February 1917, March 1917 - August 1917
viii. Nigeria Original Correspondence, 16 May 1915 - 15 June 1915
ix. Nigeria Original Correspondence, 1915 June 16 - July 31
x. Nigeria Original Correspondence, December 1916
xi. Nigeria Original Correspondence, 1 January 1917 - 7 February 1917
xii. Nigeria Original Correspondence, 1 July 1918 - 30 September 1918

5.2 Key figures
i. Sir Frederick Lugard
First Governor General of the Colony and Protectorate of Nigeria (1913-1918)
ii. Brigadier-General Frederick Cunliffe
Commander of the Nigerian Regiment (1914-1918)
iii. Sir Alexander George Boyle
Lieutenant Governor of Southern Provinces of Nigeria (1914-1920)

6.0 Conclusion

Nigeria as a country has played its role in peace keeping operations all over the world since 1914. It has sacrificed both human and material resources to make the world a better place for living.

The National Archives of Nigeria presently operates under the provision of the National Archives Act of 1992.

In line with the provisions of the act, the Federal Ministry of Information has been locating, assembling and rationalizing the documentary source material of the country and preserving them permanently for research and other purposes and ultimately serving as an information bank for government documentary source materials as well as the preservation and management of records of individuals, private bodies, Companies and business organizations.
This, the Ministry is religiously pursuing, cautious of its mission, which is the building of a well-informed Citizenry through the development, promotion and improvement of records, archives and information services by disseminating information from its holdings using the best modern technology.

I therefore urge all participants to avail themselves of this rare opportunity to access our precious history as documented during World War I. Below is our website and e-mail address: www.nationalarchives.gov.ng; www.nationalarchives.org.ng; national archives of Nigeria. E-mail: nationarchives@yahoo.com

Thanks for your attention.
Norway is a small country, situated far north, in a peaceful corner of Europe. The country chose a neutral position in the Great War between Europe’s powerful states. As a neutral state, Norway faced many challenges. Here today I would like to address some of them:

1) the enforcement of the neutrality,
2) the deficit of supplies in the domestic market, along with
3) the Norwegian shipping industry that came to lead Norway in close contact with the Great War, and finally
4) I will briefly address the Norwegian humanitarian aid throughout and after the war, conducted mainly by Norwegian volunteers.

1. The problematic neutral standpoint in time of war

When the war broke out, Norway declared neutrality and immediately put in place measures to protect the neutrality.

It was only nine years since Norway had become an independent state after leaving the union with Sweden, and there was a strong desire to keep the country out of foreign countries conflicts and prevent that the country was drawn into a war.

Already by the end of July 1914 an initiative was taken from the Swedish side to get to a common Swedish-Norwegian agreement on how the countries should relate to the looming war. It was prepared identical notes where the two countries declared their willingness to create neutrality towards all the belligerent powers. They also guaranteed that hostility between the two neighboring nations would not take place. During fall 1914 it became clear that also Denmark would join, and as a result there was formed a neutral entente in Scandinavia.

Neutrality was founded on international law, as it was enshrined in the Hague Convention of 1907, in the London Declaration of 1911, and in a number of unwritten rules from historical practice. But there was no common understanding when it came to rules for neutrality and the London Declaration was not ratified by all parties.

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The Rules of international law of neutrality in war did point out the mutual obligations between belligerent and neutral parties. Neutral states were obliged to treat all Warring States in similar ways, while these in turn had to refrain from actions that could prevent this. Special rules for neutrality during naval warfare were related in particular to

1) Contraband activities (illegal export and import),

2) to the issue of blockade as well as

3) to naval vessels from belligerent states and their access to stay in neutral waters and dock at ports.

Violations of these rules and disagreement about the interpretations of them created major challenges for Norway. During the war these rules were constantly violated and finally put out of action.

British hegemony at sea came to be determinative of neutral Norway which depended on vital imported supplies shipped to Norway. At the same time Norway also had to take into account the other belligerent party, Germany. Norway was quickly set under huge pressure from both sides of the conflict. It became a challenging balancing act in order to safeguard Norwegian interests and keep Norway outside war. The British blockade of Germany meant that Norway was increasingly dependent on commodities which could be obtained from the UK.

As a neutral country, Norway was committed to ensuring its borders and to ensure that none of the warring parties used Norwegian territory as a scene for warfare. The country had to prevent the warring nations from using Norwegian territorial waters to hostile activity, and it was important to keep all maritime traffic under surveillance. The Navy was immediately mobilized to patrol the coast and coastal forts were manned. Marine Vessels guarded the long coastline throughout the war and gave reports on sightings and events. Destruction of underwater mines that drifted of minefields became one of the most important and most dangerous tasks for the Navy.

Norwegian neutrality policy became a delicate balance between respecting claims from the belligerent parties and the safeguarding of its own interests. The country was several times close to being forced directly into the war. Such a critical situation arose partly in 1916 after Norway had entered into a secret fishing agreement with Britain and later in connection with the mine-laying activities of the Norwegian territorial waters in the North Sea as a result of the intensification of the German submarine war actions in 1917.

As the so called unrestricted German submarine warfare was intensified and demanded ever more Norwegian victims, the Norwegian public opinion turned clearly pro-British. But the country’s neutral status was retained throughout the war.
2. Supply Issues

During the period before 1914, the Norwegian society had undergone an extensive modernization process. Self-sufficiency was replaced with a dependency on a great variety of imported goods. Actually, the Norwegian self-sufficiency ratio was among Europe’s lowest, and necessary goods to the population together with goods and equipment for industry and commerce had to be imported. Norway suffered from high food-import dependency particularly from grain and flour, along with consumables, coal and raw materials for industrial purposes.

Britain and Germany were both important trading partners for Norway.

In 1913, 24 percent of Norway’s exports went to Britain and 21 percent to Germany. Wood and wood products dominated exports to Britain while Germany was an important importer of fish and metals. The largest markets for fish and seafood products, was still Southern Europe and overseas countries. Norway also had a significant export of fertilizers and other petrochemical products from large scaled hydropower based industry. 30 percent of the Norwegian import in 1913 came from Germany, and consisted of industrial machinery, turbines for hydroelectric generation, railway carriages, tram rails, taps, boilers and furnaces, textiles as well as certain foods. 25 percent of all imports came from the UK and included essential commodities such as coal, steamers, oil, machinery and equipment for the modernized fishing industry. Food imports and especially grains and cereals, came from Germany, Russia and overseas countries.

While the Great War raged, the neutral Norway’s main concern was to find ways to retain financial independence and freedom of action. Norway had to maintain commercial activity with both sides to the conflict and ensure that the trading partners were equally treated. In order to safeguarding Norwegian interests it was necessary to act balanced and impartial. Norway was quickly subjected to strong pressure to adapt export and import to the belligerent interests and needs. Boycott of important deliveries to the population and industry in Norway often became implemented as a tool in the ongoing warfare. During the war commercial trading was no longer unlimited. There were constantly serious obstacles and difficulties finding good solutions to the problems.

The scarcity of food supplies was a fact well known in the population. Immediately after the outbreak of the war there were large queues in front of the grocery stores. Authorities immediately set measures to ensure the supply of essential consumer goods to the population.

The ordinary state apparatus was not able on their own to solve the problems and 4th of August, the Government established a separate provisioning commission to be responsible for the supply, distribution and pricing of essential consumables. This commission was the first of a series of temporary governmental bodies that were established to meet wartime-related
challenges. Further, it was created two separate ministries, Ministry of Provisioning and Ministry of Industry and Supply, with a multitude of subordinate units, centrally and locally. Simultaneously, an extensive collaboration with industries and businesses of various kinds began. Private companies came to play an important role because they had the opportunity to engage in fields where the neutral Norwegian state could not participate.

The warring nations were eager to ensure that their exports to neutral countries were not re-exported to the enemy, or otherwise became advantageous for the enemy, such as means of production of goods sold to the enemy. Trade companies had therefore to follow certain conditions for purchases. These conditions were enshrined in agreements that encompassed entire industries.

The British blockade lead to a great shortage of food and fat-based products in Germany already during the spring of 1915. As a consequence, the Germans started large-scale acquisitions of Norwegian fish and fish products. The acquisitions were made by German vessels on the Norwegian coast, directly from fishermen and producers, and at good prices. The British wanted to halt the German acquisitions and responded by showing the same interest in the fish. The outcome of this battle was at first hand, a trade agreement with England. Germany reacted strongly and answered with firing underwater missiles towards eleven Norwegian ships in the Arctic Ocean in autumn 1916. Several sailors were killed in these attacks. Later on it was settled a separate trade agreement with Germany.

The extensive export of fish during 1915-1916 affected the domestic market and prices rose into the air. This also led to shortages of commodities and goods for the Norwegian people.

3. Commercial shipping

Norway’s biggest asset was its large vessel tonnage. Norway was an important player on the international freight market and Norwegian ships were on the world’s oceans. It was invested huge sums of capital in the shipping industry and earnings were important. An idle fleet would have major economic consequences for the entire Norwegian society.

Shipping led Norway in close contact with the war and its consequences were dramatic. The ships had to sail in mined waters and war zones, and the ships and its crew were exposed to great risk and danger. But worst of all for the Norwegian fleet was the German submarine warfare.

After the outbreak of the war Norwegian ships were ordered in port. The situation was complex and no one knew how war at sea would turn out. Ship-owners feared loss of ships and men and the marine insurances did not cover losses due to war. August 21th 1914, Norwegian authorities adopted a law on insurance of Norwegian vessels against war risks and the traffic at sea got underway again. By that time the first Norwegian ship had already been lost in an underwater mine blast August 7th 1914.
The economic war at sea was based on blockade, contraband activities, and eventually submarine warfare. The lists of contraband activity or suspected contraband activities were continually extended and came to include a number of different items. Neutral ships were suspected for contraband activities and escorted to UK ports for checking procedures. This lengthy and time-consuming praxis meant a costly extension of travel time and exposed the crews for extra stresses. In a joint Nordic protest note from November 1914, it was said that the concept of contraband activities had been distorted and disproportionate expanded and as a result had become in violation with the neutral rights.

The Norwegian government did not want to prevent that Norwegian citizens became engaged in contraband activities but would not provide assistance, protection, or promote such activities. The issues related to contraband activities were constantly on the agenda during the whole period of war.

The unrestricted submarine warfare from February 1917 caused a very serious situation for neutral shipping. All ships within specific zones were fair game for submarines, whether they were neutral or belligerent. The aim of the submarine warfare was to force neutral shipping away from allied momentum. The British therefore held neutral ships back in British ports and put strict requirements for consent to bunkering and departure to neutral ports. Norwegian ships continued to sail in its momentum despite the difficult conditions. Losses were disturbingly large and created concern also among the allies who needed Norwegian tonnage. During the summer of 1917 it was signed an agreement on the transfer of Norwegian ships to the UK. This agreement decided that a significant portion of the tonnage was laid directly under allied control, either through requisitions of ships or long-term leases. In return Norway was ensured supplies of coal and coke and the transport across the North Sea was protected with armored British vessels. The exposed, unarmed Norwegian ships were put into speed on distant and less dangerous waters. But it was first with the introduction of the convoy system the losses of the Norwegian fleet really began to decrease.

The Great War had dramatic consequences for the Norwegian fleet and its crews. By the beginning of the war in 1914, Norway had the world’s fourth largest merchant fleet. At the end of the war the fleet was decreased by 50 percent and more than 2,000 sailors had lost their lives. For Norway’s part it was definitely the seafarers and their families who had to carry the biggest and heaviest losses throughout the war.

4. Humanitarian activities

Norway, on the outskirts far north was spared the unspeakable horrors and sufferings as Europe million were exposed. But occasionally, Norwegians also came closer to the war, as after the only major naval battle of WWI, the so called Battle of Jutland, when many victims were driven ashore on Norwegian coasts. Coastal residents took care of the dead and arranged
dignified farewells to those who were given eternal rest in Norwegian soil.

Some prisoners were brought to Norway to get medical help and care at receptions where health workers and other personnel contributed their efforts. An unknown number of Norwegian men and women volunteered at the battlefields in Europe where they worked as doctors and nurses at the field hospital and operating rooms. The contributions was a drop in the ocean for Europe miserable multitudes on the brink of destruction, but had great significance for increased humanitarian engagement and growing peace willingness among Norwegians.

Fridjof Nansen was the foremost exponent of Norwegian humanitarian efforts after the war. He had already in 1917 been engaged in relief work for prisoners of war and the following years he received several major missions. As the League of Nations High Commissioner for repatriation of prisoners of war, he led in the years 1920-1921 the exchange of 430,000 POWs between Germany and the Soviet Union. From 1921 he was the Red Cross’ High Commissioner for famine victims in Russia and the League High Commissioner for Russian refugees. On the initiative of Nansen in 1922 it was issued identity certificates for refugees. The so-called Nansen passport was an internationally valid travel document for stateless refugees and a great amount of refugees benefited from this arrangement.

No more war! Such was the voice of Europe after the Great War. Now, decades later, Norway along with everyone else will continue their active engagement to find peaceful solutions to conflicts between peoples and countries.

With desire for peace in our time!

**Main sources**

Emergency ministries and agencies especially erected:

- Ministry of supplies and eight subordinated agencies
- Ministry of industrial supplies and four subordinated agencies

They produced 3,500 shelf meters of archival material.
The First World War, also known as the Great War or the War of Nations, had a profound impact on the history of Poland. The Polish society hoped that the upcoming armed conflict would bring the long-awaited independence to the enslaved and partitioned Poland. And these hopes came true. After 123 years of non-existence, the Polish State reappeared on the map of Europe. The war involved 33 countries and about 70 million soldiers. About 8–10 million soldiers were killed and 20 million were wounded. Poles served in all armies of the partitioning powers, i.e. in the Russian army, Austro-Hungarian army and the Prussian army. Thus, they found themselves caught up in a brotherly war against other Poles. In total, about 2.5 million Poles served in those armies. The largest number of Poles fought on the side of Russia. As a result of the First World War, the imperial partitioning powers ceased to exist and were replaced by republics. The new geopolitical situation was determined in equal measures by the emergence of the Soviet Russia and the establishment of new countries in Central and South-Eastern Europe. The events taking place in this part of the continent on the eve and during the First World War had a significant effect on the development of the Polish political concepts. Initially, they were connected with the restoration of independence. Once that goal was achieved, more focus was given to the establishment of such a system of international relations which would safeguard this independence. During the war and after its end, Turkey played a major role in these plans. Poland was one of the first countries to support the Republican Turkey.

To commemorate the hundredth anniversary of the First World War, the State Archives in Poland prepared many exhibitions (including Internet exhibitions presented on the websites of particular State Archives), publications, archives-related classes for young people and scientific conferences on that largest armed conflict since the Napoleonic Wars. They provided an opportunity to see a wide variety of archival materials contained in the holdings of the State Archives, concerning several aspects of the war such as: daily life, participation of Poles in the fights on the fronts, World War 1 cemeteries in Poland and the consequences of the war. Most of the exhibitions had a regional focus, showing the history of a given region during that period. They presented not only documents, but also a huge number of photographs, posters,

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** Director of Department - Head Office of State Archives of Poland
postcards, newspapers, various medals and decorations and other memorabilia. The project involving the presentation of archives from the First World War has a 4-year timeframe until 2018. Throughout its duration, the State Archives in Poland are going to organize, in total, over 100 events commemorating the First World War, under the over-arching theme “The Road Towards Independence…”.

With the friendly assistance of the Turkish Archives, it will also be possible to present the archival materials connected with the First World War, stored in the Polish archives, to international audiences. To prepare for this presentation, we have collected information on the sources of materials on the First World War contained in all Polish State Archives. However, due to the timing of the presentation, we will limit ourselves to presenting only the most important documents from three Archives: Central Archives of Historical Records, Central Archives of Modern Records and the National Archives in Krakow.

Out of these three State Archives, the Central Archives of Modern Records have the most varied and interesting aggregations of documents on the First World War. The Central Archives of Modern Records, which serve as the central archives of the Republic of Poland, are in possession of over 33 kilometres of records (and over 3 200 000 archival units), consisting of archival materials contained in 2623 fonds.

The most essential materials relating to the times of the First World War are contained in 123 fonds (constituting 1322 mb), all of which are entirely or mostly concerned with this topic.

A large number of the above-mentioned materials relate to events taking place on the eastern front of the Great War. The documentation which shows the 1914-1918 events from a wider perspective, i.e. both in the East and West, can only be found in two locations: the Central Polish Agency in Lausanne and the Polish National Committee in Paris. In terms of their volume, the archival materials of the Central Polish Agency are three times larger, more detailed and they provide information on more events and people.

The most noteworthy holdings which extensively document the First World War history of Poland and its inhabitants include documents collected by employees of the Central Committee of the Citizens of the Kingdom of Poland (with its seat in Saint Petersburg and Warsaw) and organically related materials aggregated under the heading “Polish Organizations in Russia”. They are supplemented by materials from the Information and Press Bureau in Saint Petersburg, Polish Society for the Protection of Monuments of the Past and Culture in Moscow and the Polish Council of the Cross-Party Association in Russia.

The documentation produced by institutions functioning as state authorities in the Kingdom of Poland occupied by the Central Powers, which tried to win Polish support and to strengthen their armed forces by promising to restore Polish statehood without making
any territorial commitments, provides valuable insights into the process of building the foundations of the Polish statehood. They include: Provisional Council of State, Regency Council of the Kingdom of Poland in Warsaw and its Governments and, after 11 November 1918: the Presidium of the Council of Ministers, Civil Chancellery of the Chief of State and the Civil Chancellery of the President of the Republic of Poland, as well as particular ministries, public offices and the emerging power centres.

In contrast, the files of associations and political and social organizations and the legacies lefts by social and political activists, including J. Piłsudski and I.J. Paderewski themselves, document the richness of social and political life and provide information on how moods and views evolved over time.

The documentation included in those holdings is extremely varied, ranging from official documents to correspondence and personal notes. They are also very different in terms of their graphic characteristics. Some materials have the quality of works of art of the highest standard. A large number of such documents can be found in the holding of the J. Piłsudski Museum in Belweder. Some can also be found in other holdings (e.g. The Diary of the Legionary Ludwik Namysłowski).

Not all but most documents are in paper format. There are also interesting collections of photographs and some recordings (recollections of participants of those events recorded on analogue records from the “Witnesses of History” series) and films (e.g. “From a Commander to a Marshal”).

Some holdings contain museum exhibits (e.g. the Collection of the Białkiewicz family). The Central Archives of Modern Records also comprise numerous memorabilia: a uniform jacket of the second lieutenant of the Polish Legions cavalry, a pennant with an eagle, phaleristic items, and uniforms.

In general, the holdings of the Central Archives of Historical Records associated with the First World War can be divided into 3 groups: records originating in Germany, records originating in Austro-Hungary and preserved private records of families and individuals. The most important German records come from the following sources: the Imperial-German General Governorate of Warsaw, which was the highest authority of the German occupier, established in the territories of the Kingdom of Poland occupied by the German army; the Head of Administration of the General Governorate of Warsaw, whose office was set up on 23 August 1914, and the Imperial-German Presidium of the Police Force in Warsaw. It should be noted, however, that only a very small portion of these records has been preserved. They contain materials such as: regulations, official announcements, proclamations, texts of official speeches, complaints and applications of citizens addressed to the governor-general, orders of the governorate and of the main headquarters, materials concerning the Polish Armed
Forces and the Polish prisoners of war held in German camps, correspondence. The records originating in Austro-Hungary include the files of: the territorial military headquarters, units of the Austro-Hungarian army and of the administrative authorities in the occupied territories of the Kingdom of Poland. They document activities of the Austro-Hungarian military intelligence service, associated with the organization of Russian troops and border guards, persons suspected of spying for the benefit of Russia or of spreading pro-Russian propaganda, lists of detainees, searches for prisoners of war who escaped from camps, censorship of mail, daily reports on the military situation in Russia. There are also records from the 1914 to 1918 period concerning the Polish Legions. The files of the Austro-Hungarian military courts in the districts of particular corps in Krakow, Przemyśl and Lvov relate to disciplinary, criminal and political offences. One can also find numerous documents connected with the First World War operations carried out by the Austro-Hungarian army in Central and Eastern Europe. The aggregations of private and family records contain documents such as: ordinances passed by village administrators (wójt) in matters concerning the requisition of animals (mostly horses) and food rations, circulars and orders relating to, among other things: the use of prisoners of war as workforce in agriculture, mobilization or water and food supplies for the army. The most interesting items include preserved journals, diaries and notes, which show how the war was seen by ordinary people, what daily life looked like in those difficult conditions and how families functioned and coped in unusual situations. There are other extremely interesting items, such as correspondence between members of particular families, especially when they served in armies on the opposite sides of the barricades or found themselves in different occupied territories or looked after family estates, trying to save them from destruction and looting. In private records, one can often come across materials describing the activities of Polish organizations or political associations operating abroad (most often in Switzerland), aimed to provide assistance to Poles in Switzerland and war victims in Poland.

Other remarkable items include a letter from the Archives of the Lubomirski family from Mała Wieś (ref. 782) written in 1916 by Hasan Enver Celâleddin Pasha Borzęcki - an Ottoman general and diplomat. The letter is addressed to Prince Zdzisław Lubomirski, the then president of Warsaw, and describes the history of Borzęcki’s family. He was the son of Konstanty Borzęcki, who immigrated to the Ottoman Empire, where he became a high-ranking military official, known in Turkey as Mustapha Celâleddin Pasha. Nâzım Hikmet Ran and Oktay Rifat, two great Turkish poets of the twentieth century, are his grandsons.

The National Archives in Krakow contain 3 important aggregations of records of: the Supreme National Committee, the Legions and the Military Office for the Care of War Graves. The first of these aggregations is particularly interesting because of the significance of the Supreme National Committee, which was to act as the highest military, fiscal and political authority representing the Polish inhabitants of Galicia. On the initiative of the Supreme
National Committee, which brought together all political circles (Socialists, Populists, Democrats, Conservatives and the National Party), the Polish Legions were created as a Polish army unit within the Austrian army.

Despite being fairly dispersed, the preserved records do give a picture of the activities of the Committee. The aggregation comprises records of the Presidium, departments, Committees and Societies. Another group consists of photographic collections, publications and printed matter. It provides a valuable source of information for research on political history, military operations or the fate of Poles taking part in the war. In addition, the Archives comprise the library collections of the Supreme National Committee, the so-called Library of the Legions, consisting of over 2100 books.

In this particular case, special attention should be paid to archival units concerning: the Action of the Supreme National Committee in Turkey and correspondence on the Polish prisoners of war staying there. They contain letters, accounts and reports written in Polish and French by Zygmunt Maciejowski, the official correspondent of the Supreme National Committee in Istanbul, concerning the attitudes of the Turkish authorities, the press and of the society towards Poles and the Polish cause. They also describe the situation of the Polish prisoners of war and the actions taken for their benefit. However, most of the records contained in that holding are associated with the implementation of the political concepts of the Supreme National Committee and the efforts taken to establish an international order in Central and South-Eastern Europe which would enable the nations living there to preserve their identity and secure their development.

The above-mentioned records are inseparably linked with the files of the Legions, even though they were subsequently supplemented and enlarged, among other things with materials donated by private citizens in the interwar period. They contain items such as: orders, reports, diaries, messages and telegrams, correspondence, communications, accounts, briefing reports, lists of members of particular formations, payments of soldiers’ wages, bills, acknowledgements of mail receipt, identity cards, brochures, leaflets and photographs. In addition, the holding comprises pre-war records of Polish paramilitary organizations (Polish Rifle Squads “Strzelec” and “Sokół”), records associated with the Polish-Soviet war of 1919-1920 and post-war files connected with the legionaries and J. Piłsudski himself.

Just as in the case of previously discussed archives, the Archives in Krakow, too, include valuable first-hand accounts, often never used before, contained in correspondence, memoirs and diaries, as well as distinctions, stamps, single documents, photographs and personal items of different sorts. Another interesting source are preserved school chronicles. The war also finds its reflection in the records of municipal authorities, local governments, judicial authorities and the police.
Of course, all the above-mentioned archives contain a large amount of photographs and maps from the period under discussion. They are valuable, because they supplement aggregations of documents and show the theatre of the First World War.

It should be noted that the situation of Poland is quite unusual, because a large part of the Polish and Poland-related documentary heritage is in the possession of Polish immigrant organizations abroad. The Polish State Archives have worked with these immigrant organizations for many years, helping them to inventory, secure and digitize their collections in order to make them as widely accessible as possible. Most of the materials concerning the First World War are stored in the United States and Switzerland. In New York, there are organizations such as the Polish Army Veterans’ Association in America, whose archives include the largest collection concerning the so-called Blue Army, i.e. the Polish volunteer military formation created during the First World War. It was established under a decree of the French President Raymond Poincaré on 4 June 1917, on the initiative of the Polish National Committee. The name “Blue Army” came from the colour of the French uniforms worn by the Polish soldiers. Why did so many documents connected with the Polish army in France find their way to the United States? Simply because the Polish Diaspora in the USA and Canada provided 20 thousand volunteers for the Blue Army commanded by the General Józef Haller. It was a great mobilization effort. When the fighting was over, about 14.5 thousand of these volunteers returned to America. In May 1921, they established the Polish Army Veterans’ Association in America.

The above-presented archival materials constitute only a small fragment of the preserved archival resources connected with the Great War. Despite the concise character of this presentation, it seems reasonable to conclude that the holdings of the State Archives in Poland provide general history researchers with an important source of information about this breakthrough period in the world’s history.
THE EXHIBITION “FACES OF WAR. RUSSIA IN WORLD WAR I IN THE NEWSREELS, PHOTOGRAPHS AND DOCUMENTS”
MOSCOW, SEPTEMBER 2014

Prof. Sergey MIRONENKO*

BRIEF DESCRIPTION

The historical and documentary exhibition „Faces of War. Russia in World War I in the newsreels, photographs and documents“ is dedicated to the centenary of the First World War, participation and the role of Russia and its major allies (including the UK).

The main emphasis in the exposition is placed on the use of interactive multimedia technologies. According to the organizers of the exhibition, this approach - specially created for the exhibition a series of short documentaries with unique newsreel footage shot on the both sides of the front line; music of the period in authentic sound; thematic interactive stands, holograms - allow a deeper plunge into the era of 1914-1918, in the truest sense of the word „to look into the eyes of the war.“

The exhibition provides the most complete picture of almost all aspects of the First World War and the participation of Russia, of the decisive episodes, which determined the course and the outcome of the war. Built in the genre of a heroic tragedy dramaturgy of the exhibition tells of the exploits, the faith in the victory of the Russian army and the resistance of its officers and privates, gives an idea of the most significant events at the front and in the rear, in the Royal Palace and in the General Headquarters of the Supreme Commander.

The exposition reveals many little-known pages of history of the Great War, which led to fatal consequences and changed not only Russia but the whole world, makes you think and draw conclusions.

The exhibition consists of four sections:

“PEACE”

The section is devoted to family ties of the Russian Imperial House with European monarchies and peaceful life in Russia on the eve of the war. Behind the positive picture sharp contradictions, hidden agendas of the politicians and the military are conceived. The original telegrams, which right before the declaration of the war exchanged the two August cousins - Czar Nicholas II and Kaiser Wilhelm II – are the dominant of the exposure. Thematic interactive stands reveal the history of the relations of these two monarchs, and tell about some representatives of the Russian ruling dynasty, who took part in the First World War. In the cinema hall at the end of the exposure the visitor have the opportunity to see short documentaries, which are created on the basis of unique newsreels and depict the peaceful life in Europe and Russia on the eve of the great upheaval, tell the story of dynastic ties of the

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Romanovs, and raise the curtain on the murder of the Austrian Archduke Franz Ferdinand in Sarajevo, which became the pretext for the outbreak of World War I.

“WAR”

At the beginning of the exposure - a true diary of Emperor Nicholas II opened on the page with records made on the first day of the war July 20, 1914. Photos and chronicle allow you to see and feel the patriotic mood sweeping the whole of Russia. Private albums of Empress Alexandra Feodorovna and Grand Duchesses, unique documents, photographs, posters tell about charity and mercy during the war, the work of hospitals and infirmaries, military production. Thematic interactive stands - „Women at the Front“, „Young heroes of the war“, „Charity and mercy during the war“, „The Faith and the Church“, „Writers and the War“, etc. contain materials on the contribution of the Russian society to the support of the Russian army. Original documents and photographs give an idea of the tragic events at the front in the middle of August - in the autumn of 1914, of the first victories and defeats. The documentaries include rare footage telling about the beginning of the war and full of hope for its quick and victorious end moods of the society. The songs of popular artists in authentic performance create a lively atmosphere of the time.

“THE GENERAL HEADQUARTERS”

The centerpiece of the section is a table with an interactive map of the Brusilov breakthrough in 1916. Original documents, photographs, interactive displays tell about the activities of the GHQ and the two Supreme Commanders - Grand Duke Nicholas Nicholaevich and the Emperor Nicholas II, who headed the Russian Army and Navy on August 23, 1915. The section presents the maps, diaries of the Emperor, photo albums about the GHQ and the Russian generals. A special place in the exhibition is given to the subsection „The Help to the Allies.“ A specially created documentary and an interactive stand tell about the Russian Expeditionary Corps in France. In the final part of the section - a genuine letter of King George V to his cousin Nicky, Emperor Nicholas II, dated January 10, 1917 in which he expressed the hope that Russia would fulfill its allied duty to the end.

“FRONT”

Authentic materials, documentaries; authentic music (Russian regiments marches, songs of the war years); interactive stands containing materials about new technologies and weapons, the Air Force and the Navy, the prisoners of war will allow to plunge into the events of the First World War, to learn many new names. The documentaries give a unique opportunity to see the real front life, the sufferings, death and horror brought by the war. The documents of the Provisional Government and the reports of the Front Commanders tell about the revolutionary mood in the Army. The interactive stands in the final part of the exhibition contain documentary materials and unique footage on the history of the Brest-Litovsk Separate Peace Treaty in March 1918 and the Treaty of Versailles in June 1919, which put an end to the First World War. Figures of the statistics tell about terrible human casualties, economic and political effects of the war.

A separate multimedia product introduced at the exhibition is the „River of Time“ - a chronicle of the events of the war, presented in chronological order and accompanied by extensive comments and illustrations.
The black troops commonly called “Native Senegalese Infantry” are a body of militaries formed within the French colonial empire in 1857. The Native Senegalese Infantry have been the principal element of the “black force”.

The First World War or the Great War has registered the massive and active participation of the Native Senegalese Infantry recruited among the peoples of the colonies, mainly French West Africa (AOF). They have played a remarkable role in the world conflict beside the French army.

The enrolment of these combatants in the armed forces stem from recruitment procedures that left no one out. Between 1914 and 1918 around 200,000 “Senegalese” from French West African fought with the French army, 30,000 of them died and marry were wounded and even invalid.

A statue was erected in Dakar to symbolize the army brotherhood between French soldiers and Native Senegalese Infantry.

1914 Great War
The flag of the black troops that decimated Prussian guard

* Director – Directorate of Archives of Senegal
1.2.3 - The enlisted arrive at the residence, in twos in a perfect order

4.5.6 - They are escorted by their “bards” praising their passed military exploits and future glory.

7.8 - They are accompanied by their chiefs of cantons and provinces.
9.10.11 - Copious meals were prepared for them by expert cooks and were provided by the civil administration until their final conscription.

13.14.15 - The new comers are immediately clad by the military authority.

16.17.18 - They come to declare to a special commission the name of their family member to whom they delegate the monthly allocation of 15 francs and they come to receive their allocation of 200 francs.

19 - They are definitely drafted and under the supervision of their native chiefs, they come into contact with the officers, parents and brave men that lead them inevitably to victory.
12- Samba DIALLO, an African recruitment sergeant counting 20 years of good services.

Walking Senegalese Infantry, road of Cannes and Aqueduct

In a trench Monument symbolizing brotherhood army between French soldiers and Native Senegalese infantry
ON INTELLIGENCE OF AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN AUTHORITIES ABOUT THE PREPARATION OF THE ASSASSINATION IN SARAJEVO, 28 JUNE 1914

Dr. Miroslav PERIŠIĆ *

Numerous historians, publicists, journalists, contemporaries, participants in the events commented, researched, wrote, witnessed in their memoirs and expressed their opinions on who is responsible for the assassination that took place in Sarajevo on 28 June 1914. The investigation conducted immediately after the assassination dealt with all save with the responsibility of persons in charge of the security of the heir presumptive. Although a series of facts suggest numerous deficiencies related to the security arrangements for the visit of Franz Ferdinand to Sarajevo, the persons who bore the greatest responsibility advanced in their professional careers. This fact cannot be neglected in analyses of the event that served as a pretext for war. Particularly so, because of the justified suspicions expressed in the part of historiography that the preparations of the assassination had been no secret among certain official circles in Vienna and Budapest, and even that the assassination was not prevented on purpose.

Certain historians believe the Sarajevo assassination to be an act of official Serbia and that it caused the First World War. These are the historians whose interpretation is not based in the documents, who choose to forget about the events that led to the war and who disregard the overall context. Far more numerous are the historians who consider the Sarajevo assassination to be the "trigger for war" or the immediate cause that made it easier for Austro-Hungary and Germany to pass the decision that was long increasingly favoured by the war circles of Vienna and Berlin. There is no doubt that many segments of the Sarajevo assassination remain insufficiently researched. One of the significant questions is which officials on various sides knew of the preparations and why, notwithstanding numerous warnings, did the security services in charge of protecting the heir presumptive Ferdinand make his stay in Sarajevo unsafe to the extent that made possible two attempts at his life, the second of which was tragic for the heir presumptive and his wife.

In his book Sarajevo 1914, Vladimir Dedijer conducted the most thorough reconstruction of the Sarajevo assassination to date. Analysing the possible routes of responsibility, he notes that the accusations that Austro-Hungary was responsible for the murder in Sarajevo were

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not built on the same foundations. He states, *inter alia*: "Some authors believe that numerous
warnings coming from all the sides that the Archduke Franz Ferdinand should not go to Sarajevo
were not taken seriously and that the security measures had been completely neglected. Still
others believe the true architects of the murder to be certain circles in Vienna and Budapest
which acted through their agents in South Slav secret associations. The advocates of the
latter group of authors are divided into those who assert that the assassination was supposed
to be only fictitious in order to give Austro-Hungary a pretext for aggression against Serbia,
and others who argue that it was the Hungarian president István Tisza who stood behind the
conspiracy wishing to get rid of the Archduke Franz Ferdinand both because of his hatred
towards the Hungarians and his plans to reduce Hungary to a mere Austrian crown land."\(^1\)
with naked guns once he assumes the throne. On the basis of his research, Dedijer states that
the Viennese archives hold documents showing that the police had been on the alert no less
than dozens of times between 1902 and 1914 for the information that the assassination of
Archduke was being prepared and that the reports thereon came from different sides: from
Serbia, Croatia, Trieste, Italy, USA, Egypt and Turkey.\(^2\)

Along the lines of the open issues lies also the original document preserved in the
Archives of Serbia, dated 23 December 1913 which contains the record about an information
that arrived from Sarajevo to Vienna on preparation of the assassination of a number of high
political and military figures of Austria-Hungary. I refer to the report of Jovan Jovanović,
Serbian diplomatic representative in Vienna who sent it to the Prime Minister and the Minister
of Foreign Affairs of the Kingdom of Serbia Nikola Pašić on the above date: "Once again I
need to turn your attention to the reports that arrived from Sarajevo, from the Governor, that
some assassins are getting ready in Serbia to head for Austria-Hungary. As stated, their aim
would be to murder Feldzeugmeister Potiorek, Minister Bilinski, Count Berchtold, Chief of
General Staff Baron Hötzendorf and Archbishop Stadler. The assassins are to be disguised as
Serbian officers. As frivolous as this may seem, I still ask that utmost care be taken to ensure
nothing is done from Serbia. If anything should be done from there, one should count on
the current Bosnian Governor being ready to turn it into an affair that would have massive
consequences on Serbia. There is a faction here that would jump at such an opportunity."\(^3\) The
back of the report bearing the date 28 December 1913 holds a note of the Ministry of Foreign
Affairs in Belgrade: "Nothing is forthcoming from Serbia."\(^3\)

There is no doubt that in the long sequence of years, the Austro-Hungarian officials
occasionally received communication from different sides and sources that assassination of
a high official was being prepared. Many of these threats and reports turned out to be false,

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\(^1\) V. Dedijer, Sarajevo 1914, Belgrade 1966, 705.
\(^2\) Ibid, 707.
\(^3\) AS, MID, PO, 1913, F II, I/1-III
ON INTELLIGENCE OF AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN AUTHORITIES ABOUT THE PREPARATION OF THE ASSASSINATION IN SARAJEVO, 28 JUNE 1914

but the rumours, notions and the atmosphere of fear of and disbelief in something like that being possible, did not stop. A likely future assassination was a theme discussed in the closest circles, sometimes a subject of rumours spreading in soft voice and in confidence through the monarchy and outside of it, a topic of café conversations led in codes and glances, the cause of apprehension and expectations. The thought of assassination worried and alarmed the persons in charge of the ruling family security arrangements. Who knows how many warnings about the assassinations that never materialized had passed through the hands of the staff of Austro-Hungarian administration. Nevertheless, one of them did take place. Behind it remain questions that have been commanding the attention of the historians for the entire century. Was the Austro-Hungarian administration irresponsible that time or were the persons holding high positions irresponsible or, was it perhaps allowed to happen? Certainly the response to the reports that flooded the cabinets on the eve of the long-announced and well-in-advance-disclosed route and the precise timing of Franz Ferdinand in Sarajevo on 28 June 1914 was inadequate. The question is additionally burdened by the indications that it was the conspiracy rooted in some of the influential centres: Vienna, Budapest, Belgrade, Berlin or among the freemasons. Part of the bibliography contains opinions that there was awareness of the preparations for the assassination but that no response ensued, not for irresponsibility or impotence of Potiorek⁴, Gerde⁵ and Von Collas⁶, but simply because the tragic faith of the heir presumptive was in the interest of the political centre which they served by allowing the assassination to take place.

However, a previously unknown document, subject of recent research, attracted special attention. The partially preserved content thereof leads to a conclusion that may be basis for the document to be considered a report about the threat to security of Franz Ferdinand during his stay in Sarajevo in June 1914. The twin leaf and the text on its three pages that suffered considerable physical damage inflicted by various means with the evident aim of not destroying the entire document but hiding or forever removing part of its content, calls for an external analysis in addition to the analysis of content. However, the preserved part of the text contains sufficient data to conclude that it is a report about several persons having left Belgrade for Sarajevo with certain clandestine intentions related to Franz Ferdinand that the authorities in Bosnia should prevent. The report was written in Zemun on 17 June 1914 and sent to the Austro-Hungarian authorities. It was written and signed by an Austrian agent. The preserved text on the first page of the twin leaf, which is reconstructed and subject of various phases of verification of authenticity and content analysis, reads: "Yesterday I learned from a reliable source from the well known Živko Dačić (the most dangerous propagandist) that

⁴ Oskar Potiorek, Governor of Bosnia and Herzegovina
⁵ Edmund Gerde, Chief of Police in Sarajevo
⁶ Karl von Collas, Head of Political Section of the Government in Sarajevo
The author of the report informs that he learned, from a reliable source, that persons had been "sent" from Belgrade with the aim of doing something in Sarajevo during the stay of Franz Ferdinand. That which they need to do is unequivocally related to his expectations expressed at the end of the report where he wrote: "We shall now see the skills of the Bosnian apparatus". The assumption is that the "Bosnian apparatus" is actually the police in Bosnia which should prevent the persons who left Belgrade for Sarajevo from doing that which they left for. The communication is signed by "Your Gliša". Both words from the signature are interesting. "Your" denotes loyalty and belonging, and implies the address for which certain jobs and tasks are being performed, which refers to the fact that he is the Austrian agent. Austrian agents were present in large numbers in the South Slav countries. "Gliša" is most probably an intelligence code for the person who executed this kind of tasks. Additional research conducted on the basis of this document helped us reveal the data that "Gliša" was an executor of the Austrian offensive and defensive "intelligence service" who sent reports from Zemun to Austro-Hungarian authorities on movements of immigrants. Future research may bring new insights about this document. For the time being it remains a very important, I would say capital, primary historic source that directs the future research and forming of more robust resource base for finding answers to important open issues about the Sarajevo assassination. Sometimes in history the context changes in a day, not to mention over a longer period of time. Therefore, there may be no link between what Moltke wrote to Hötzendörf on 10 February 1913 and the event of 28 June 1914, but equally so, there may exist a very well founded link. Let us recall that suggesting the preferred scenario, Helmuth von Moltke, Chief of the German General Staff told his Austro-Hungarian colleague Conrad von Hötzendörf, that in a future war of the Germans an the Slavs "the attack should be caused by the Slavs". The attack did not come from the Slavs, and Austro-Hungary declared war on Serbia just as Germany did on Russia, but the assassination of the Austro-Hungarian heir presumptive did happen by the hand of the Slav Gavrilo Princip and Vienna got that which Moltke discussed as yet another recommendation in the same letter to Hötzendörf: "In case Austria causes the war, it would be difficult to come up with an adequate slogan that would sound persuasive to the German peoples".

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7 AS, MID, PO, 1914, F 1, A I/3. Three dots in parenthesis denote the etched parts of the text and the torn off part of the document.
8 AS, Papers of Dušan Tvrdoreka, F 1, folio 350/58
10 Ibid
THE ATTITUDE OF THE INHABITANTS OF SLOVAKIA IN WORLD WAR I

Monika PÉKOVA *

The history of the World War I was not the subject of detailed treatment in relation to archival documents in the Slovak historiography until recently. In 2014, the Department of Archives and Registries, the managing Slovak archives authority, established a departmental research task for the state archives - to draw up the list of archival funds related to the First World War. By fulfilling this task, many archivists have realized that the public is aware of the main events leading to the World War I on one hand but - on the other hand - the detailed information and facts from the regional perspective have been missing.

Slovaks and Czechs started the World War I as part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Historical ties between these two nations were relatively weak but their languages were close. Just after the war they established independent state on the basis of peace treaties.

The First World War really affected the whole society, and otherwise it was neither in Slovakia. From the point of military service it concerned about 400-thousand men. Slovaks were fighting on both sides of the conflict, in the Austro-Hungarian army but also in legionary groups.

Slovaks in the Austro-Hungarian army fought on all battlefields of the Great War, not only in Galicia and Ukraine, but also in Italy, Slovenia, France, Romania, Turkey, Serbia, Macedonia and Albania, and even less known fronts. Czechoslovak Legions acted not only in Russia but also in Italy and France. Battles did not avoid the Slovak territory. Military operations affected mainly the territory of the former Zemplín and Šariš Counties in the period from December 1914 until April 1915. Later on, the civilians struggled with war through several prison camps in which the quantity of prisoners often competed nearby population places. Civilians often had to take care of the wounded, sick and disabled people.

From the territory of present Slovakia, as a part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, were mobilized about 400,000 soldiers in the years 1914 – 1918. It was about one seventh of the then population of Upper Hungary. About 69,000 of them were killed or died from injuries, died in capture or remained permanently missing and more than 61,000 were permanently maimed. The measure of Human Resource Mobilization and the number of casualties during the First World War three or four times exceeded the same indicators during the Second World War. Archival documents regarding the procedure for call-up men for military service and whole mobilization are characterized by massive propaganda. Nowadays it is incomprehensible.

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how enthusiastic men went into battles and through propaganda they really expected to return home as winners in a very short time period (in a few months).

They were convinced themselves about awfulness of the war very early, already in August and September, especially at the front in Galicia, where they were embattled in the fightings against Russia. One part of the soldiers from the territory of present Slovakia was transported to the Serbian front. Apart from enemy weapons, their enemies became also hunger, wind, rain but mostly cold. Many soldiers from our region already in October 1914 fell into Russian captivity and they were often transported to Siberia. Only a very small number of them returned from the captivity in general.

After the information/reports coming from the battlefields the enthusiasm for the war in the autumn of 1914 declined. The departures of men, heads of families to the front were increasingly manifested in the rear as well. Women and older men had to take over more and more responsibilities. Particularly widows and orphans, whose number was constantly growing, had very poor living conditions. Agriculture, which provided especially food, was increasingly struggled with deficiency of labour force and problems caused also the compulsory transfer of draft domestic animals for the army. The prices, which were until the outbreak of the war very stable in Austro-Hungarian Empire began to increase from 1914. A decrease of financial recourses in many families was caused also by investment into military obligations issued by the state in order to finance military expenses. These steps caused the food shortages at many places and a ticket system for food rations was instituted.

The war brought great changes in the status of women in society. Large numbers of women were recruited into jobs vacated by men who had gone to fight in the war. They took over the function of heads of families not only in agriculture, but often in production and more and more women worked in educational system. Women started to work in areas of jobs that were formerly reserved for men, for example as railway guards and ticket collectors, buses and tram conductors, postal workers, police, fire-fighters and as bank tellers and clerks. They took the place of men in management positions. Statistics show that women more and more were reported for university studies. Women helped in the hospitals near the front, performed in temporary medical facilities, mobile hospitals. Thanks to them the institutions for nursing the war invalids could be established. Women also organized assistance and charitable events in order to support the families of soldiers who died on the battlefields.

The Red Cross tried to help people and families affected by the war. In December 1916 it initiated an interesting collection. The Red Cross distributed so called Christmas Card. It was a postcard without exactly specified price. By purchasing these cards people had a possibility to support – via the contribution profit - the children of soldier’s families, orphans or straight the soldiers on front. The short speech on the card contained information that those people who had enough money should use these cards as ornaments for the Christmas tree instead of the luxurious decorations they could afford. Suspension of these cards on the Christmas tree should express sympathy with those who had suffered due to the war. For the poor who could
not afford to decorate Christmas tree because their difficult economic situation, Christmas cards should replace the Christmas decorations or replace actual Christmas tree. The cards symbolized the memory of all those who could not be with families during the Christmas.

Difficult economic situation in Austro-Hungarian Empire during the war is witnessed by documents concerning requisitions of church bells and later on the organ pipes. The lack of raw materials, especially iron, forced the Ministry of Culture and religion to turn to religious institutions with the request to provide the bells of churches for military purposes in the year 1915. The exceptions were only the bells made before year 1700. This requisitions caused major damage to cultural monuments.

The difference between the First World War and previous wars was in the number of captured and deported soldiers to refugee camps. On the territory of contemporary Slovakia there are three the most famous refugee camps – in Šamorín, Dunajská Streda and Veľký Meder. Cholera often breaks out in refugee camps and places with large populations under the conditions where sanitation was difficult to manage. Hundreds of prisoners suffered and died on epidemic diseases.

On the basis of information from archival documents the statistics of registered prisoners at the end the war were in the following numbers: Veľký Meder 43,836 prisoners (mainly Serbs, Montenegrins, Italians, Russians and Romanians), Šamorín 59,567 prisoners (mainly Russian and Italian soldiers) and Dunajská Streda 57,701 prisoners.

Taking enemies into captivity had for the militant parties also the positives. Many prisoners performed the task of missing labour which the country lost by recruitment of soldiers to the front. For example the prisoners from refugee camp in Šamorín were used for the construction of the local railway line Šamorín - Kvetoslavov.

Died prisoners were generally buried by course of law on selected territories of already existing cemeteries. Only in Slovakia itself there are around 200 WWI cemeteries with 60,000 bodies. The most famous military cemetery is in Šamorín. According to several reports, particularly in the report of a notary from Šamorín was noted that in the special prisoner’s cemetery there were buried 1,690 Italian prisoners; their memory is recalled by the pink marbled column. There are also the Russian mass graves in the number of 406 units in which about 1,218 prisoners are buried.

In the part of the cemetery where the Russian prisoners are buried there is dark granitic obelisk board engraved by the following text written in Cyrillic „To everlasting memory of dead Russian soldiers in Šamorín by their comrades-in- armes.“

Many archival documents which contain very interesting photographies maintained mainly thanks to the families of former soldiers. To the most interesting documents belong also personal fonds of three personalities.

One of them is Vincent Tóth who came from the village of Dlhá nad Váhom. He was called up to compulsory military service in Komárno in the year 1911 from there in the summer 1914 he was sent to the Russian front as a foot-soldier of the 12th Infantry Regiment.
He was confined in the north-eastern Ukraine from where he was dragged into captivity in eastern Siberia. 39 months he spent in the prison. Here he started to write the diary which contains very valuable source of information about everyday life during World War I. In the diary, he registered his numerous experiences, descriptions of battles and tactics of squad in which he took part. He also recorded many songs and military memories and his comrades-in-arms. He was taken to captivity already in October 1914 and unfortunately, since this moment, he stopped to write his diary. After the October Revolution in Russia in 1917 he was released from captivity. The way to home was full of different adventures. The huge distance he overcame mostly on foot. During his captivity he worked as a subsidiary labour power in agriculture what helped him to survive in captivity. In prison he learned to speak fluently Russian language. After his return home, some days he was embattled in the Italian front where he spent the last days of the war.

Another very interesting person was Augustín Morvay who learned as a druggist in Budapest. He was interested in more things; he produced medicated ointments and took pleasure in taking photography. In 1911, he joined the military service in sanitary section of the common Austro-Hungarian Army and nursed the wounded soldiers during the Bulgarian-Turkish War. After the outbreak World War he worked in Minor Asia and the Middle East. At that time he had already honours and three stars on the collar. His first major site of action was Turkish town Kadiko. Seeing that his hobby was the photographing, he compiled a nice photo album from the military journey in Turkey. He was also writing almost every day cards to his family. These cards are maintained in the album of postcards. From the town Kadiko he was moved to a hospital in Damascus, later to Jerusalem in the Red Cross Hospital. Next to the hospital there was a Turkish military camp about which also made many pictures. For his merits in the treatment of wounded soldiers he received several honours.

As we have previously mentioned the First World War had brought a great number of human life victims. After the war and the collapse of the Austro-Hungarian Empire many family members and co-inhabitants started to initiate the construction of memorials to the victims of World War I. These constructions were very strictly controlled and checked by the state authorities. Archival documents contain information about disallowance one of the proposal of a monument because the figure displayed on it was wearing a clothing reminiscent of the Austro-Hungarian soldier’s uniform or the figure reminiscent the figure of Imperator Franz Joseph I. The memory boards with the names of the victims were uncovered. Memorials are subjected to a certain political ideology. In the years 1939 - 1945 in the territory which is today the southern Slovakia, the memorials were often added symbols reminiscent of historic Hungary, for example, often the bird „turul“ or the Hungarian crown had been added to a memorial. The 100th anniversary of the outbreak of World War I gave a new impulse for processing the history of the First World War and public use of the archival documents in broader extent. Archival documents contain unique information about our history and it is our obligation to take care of them and to protect them.
THE MAELSTROM OF WAR ON SLOVENIAN SOIL - THE ISONZO FRONT

Dr. Gregor JENUŠ *

Abstract:

After signing the secret Treaty of London with the Entente Powers in April 1915 Italy declared war to the Austro-Hungarian Empire on May 23rd 1915. The banks of the Soča River and the surrounding mountains in Western parts of nowadays Slovenia became a fortress with the Italian forces on the right and Austro-Hungarian forces on the left side of the river. The Isonzo Front proved to be one of the most difficult battlefronts of the Great War. With every day it lasted it slowly turned into a position war with very little successful breakthroughs on either side.

Key words:

Great War, 1914–18, Isonzo Front, Twelve Battle of the Isonzo, Slovenian soil.

The Great War left a deep notch in the history of the world which was unprecedented in such form in the history of warfare. Previous military conflicts only included soldiers in battlefields, while the rest of the population did not directly experience the maelstrom of war or bear its consequences. The Great War however affected and destroyed families of soldiers and people in immediate surroundings of the battlefields, as well as places hundreds of kilometres away. Inhabitants of these places felt the consequences of war in the lack of food, clothing, footwear, heating and lighting, and therefore could not remain indifferent.¹

Before the beginning of the Great War the Austro-Hungarian Empire believed that it was well prepared. Due to its cereal and livestock export, it would have no supply problems and the Austrian economy and agriculture were stable and could withstand the pressures of war. After the Serbian rejection of the Austro-Hungarian ultimatum in July 1914, one month to the day after Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria and his wife were killed by a Serbian nationalist in Sarajevo, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia, and therefore effectively began the Great War. After the declaration of war, special editions of newspapers and public proclamations announced that the emperor himself has given the order for mobilization. The Austro-Hungarian Empire embarked on an enthusiastic propaganda campaign to raise morale and prepare people for war. Emperor Franz Joseph II himself encouraged his people

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to participate in war and thus help build the Austrian war machinery.  

During the first weeks of the war a state of euphoria built up in the public, which was reflected in joyful processions through the cities, where people, blinded by sayings of a fast ending of war, expressed their allegiance to their emperor and the state.

“A stranger that would have come to Ljubljana these days would not know what was happening. He would have thought that the city is affected by an indescribable happiness. The public celebrated the soldiers as if they were leaving for a wedding and not war.”

A note in Fran Miličinski’s diary (a Slovenian author) about a conversation between two soldiers leaving for the Russian battlefield best reflects that initial pre-war euphoria among the soldiers: “Let’s get them. But this I say to you. You have to save at least five of them for me. I will come to you, so that you know...”

The misled public was divided. Especially the young people in a need for adventure shared an enthusiasm for this war that was to a certain point romantic. Even if their generation wasn’t enlisted for conscription, they volunteered and risked their lives, education and ultimately their future to embark on a hopeless mission. Disappointment over rejection, either because of their age or lack of health, led to stigmatization. Even to suicide.

After only a few months the euphoria began to settle down. People realised that the war wouldn’t end as though in just a few weeks, but that it could possibly last for longer. Despite the enthusiastic propaganda campaign to raise morale and the optimism that occurred during the first weeks, the government had to prepare for war and therefore introduce strict changes to public and social life. People were to save money and avoid unnecessary (and, above all, uncontrolled) trade in property and livestock. The government regulated the cereal market, started regulating trade and set maximum prices and restrictions in everyday life. On the recommendation of the Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture, farmers and millers were ordered to produce only certain types of flour (pastry flour for baking, cooking flour and bread flour) and other products. The war has lost its glamour.


3 “Slovenski fantje gredo navdušeno v vojsko [Slovenian men join the army with enthusiasm]”, Slovenski gospodar newspaper, 30 July 1914, No. 32, p. 2.


5 Fran Milčinski (3 December 1867 – 24 October 1932), was a Slovene lawyer and writer.


8 Jože Šorn, Slovensko gospodarstvo v poprevratnih letih 1919–1924 [Slovenian economy in the post-revolutionary years between 1919 and 1924] (Ljubljana, 1997), pp. 21–25; Petra Svoljšak, “Leta strahote
Then months after the outbreak of the Great War and for the first time since the Napoleonic Wars of the 19th Century, battlefields reached Slovenian soil. After signing the secret Treaty of London with the Entente Powers in April 1915 Italy declared war to the Austro-Hungarian Empire on May 23rd 1915.9

Both powers started to assemble their troops. The Italian forces under the command of Field Marshal Luigi Cadorna had planned to break into the Slovenian plateau, taking the Slovenian capital Ljubljana, and force the Austro-Hungarian Empire to move some of their forces from the Eastern Front to the Adriatic Sea.10

On May 23rd 1915 Italian troops began crossing the Italian-Austrian border which led to the withdrawal of the Austrian army to the East further in to Slovenian territory. The frontline between the two empires settled on the nearly hundred kilometers long Soča River that, at the time, ran entirely inside Austria-Hungarian territory in parallel to the border with Italy. The Soča River formed a corridor also known as the ‘Ljubljana Gate’ from the Julian Alps to the Adriatic Sea. The banks of the Soča River and the surrounding mountains therefore became a fortress with the Italian forces on the right and Austro-Hungarian forces on the left side of the river.11

Although the first attacks of the Italian army haven’t been as successful as they hoped on May 30th 1915 Archduke Friedrich Maria Albrecht Wilhelm Karl of Austria addressed an appeal to the commanders of all ranks in the Austro-Hungarian military forces to join their efforts to defeat the Italian enemy. The appeal was created just one week after the Italian king declared war against the Austro-Hungarian Empire.12

“After ten months of combats against Russia and Serbia-Montenegro, in the moments when our victorious armies are on the breaking point of finally crushing our enemy in the North-East, the weak and treacherous attack of Italy has imposed a new war against us. The reliable combat- and willpower of our armed forces must now be used with extreme intensity to bring an end to the violent and bloody battles against Russia,


10 Corni, “Italians, Austrians, Germans in diplomacy and on the battlefields, pp. 27-43.


12 Archives of the Republic of Slovenia (hereinafter referred to as: ARS), SI AS 356, Command of the Isonzo armada, box. 6, Appeal to commanders of all military ranks because of the Italian intervention in the war. 31. 5.1915, pp 1, 2.
and to bestow the deserved punishment to the cowardly robbers in the South-West.

I trustfully address the battle-hardened officers of our armed forces, army bodies and troops with an appeal to endure in unflinching confidence, to transfer their iron will on to their troops and to strain all efforts and their rich experiences to fulfil our major task. We must expect a long war with great struggles. Our Fatherland will carry them with great eagerness since it knows its faith is in good hands of our armed forces and fleet.

Our commanders are facing an important task. Based on their rich experiences gathered in numerous battles they have to maintain our military power and prevent unnecessary losses to our troops since they are going to be needed for our victory in the final battle.

Without delay and with all available force we have to continue our attacks against the brave and tough Russian enemy, which has been seriously compromised in our fights in May. We have to proceed in prudence and with calmness. Until now our success has been delayed because of reoccurring well prepared [Russian] positions. Our success can be achieved only by close cooperation of the infantry and artillery. It cannot be emphasized enough that there is a need for systematic, purposeful actions against fortified positions within the applicable regulations of the infantry. Personal exploration [of the terrain] by higher officers, accurate information’s and connections, proper use and association of artillery fire just before the infantry attack and during the same, are essential. Shortcomings in this regard, superficiality and carelessness only leads to heavy casualties without result. These casualties then cause a loss of trust and confidence of the troops in to their leaders and burden them [the leaders] with an enormous responsibility.

The goal of the officers who have drawn their experiences from many past battles is to achieve the objective with extreme willpower and use of all available resources. But, therefore only the absolutely necessary time should be spend. Officers, who have been entrusted with the task of protecting positions, must do so with the greatest zeal. Only through their personal presence and influence officers can ensure the safety of their troops. Their presence is needed to surpass unexpected [surprising] successes of the enemy or limit and repel local hostile intrusions into our own front.”

Just few kilometers north of Gorizia the Soča River formed a corridor widening in a valley, thus opening a narrow corridor between Northern Italy and Central Europe. In this narrow terrain the majority of the combats within the first six battles of Isonzo took place.

Battles of the Isonzo

13 ARS, SI AS 356, Command of the Isonzo armada, box. 6, Appeal to commanders of all military ranks because of the Italian intervention in the war. 31. 5. 1915, pp 1, 2.
June 23rd – July 7th, 1915: First Battle of the Isonzo

July 18th – August 10th, 1915: Second Battle of the Isonzo

October 18th – November 5th, 1915: Third Battle of the Isonzo

November 10th – December 11th, 1915: Fourth Battle of the Isonzo

March 11th – 19th, 1916: Fifth Battle of the Isonzo

August 6th – 17th, 1916: Sixth Battle of the Isonzo

Due to its unfavorable terrain the Isonzo Front soon proved to be one of the most difficult battlefronts of the Great War. Not just for the soldiers but also for the civilian population. Life at the Soča River radically changed with the beginning of the war in 1915 when the Italian forces slowly started to attack positions on the Karst plateau (between the Vipava valley and the Gulf of Trieste) within the First, Second, Third and Fourth Battle of Isonzo. Due to the proximity of the front, both sides emptied nearby villages such as Gorizia, Tolmin, Šober and others in the Vipava valley. The Austrian authorities deported around 80,000 Slovenes in the Gorizia and Posočje region, the Italian forces deported between 10,000 and 12,000 Slovenes.

The Isonzo Front has then slowly turned into a position war with very little successful breakthroughs on either side. Especially the Italian which had an advantage in manpower. The extensive use of light and heavy artillery, aviation, grenades and mines has led to the complete destruction of terrain and nearby places. The majority of houses, bridges and cultural heritage sites have been destroyed or damaged. As a result of heavy chemical use, gunpowder the natural Karst environment has been destroyed or poisoned in a long-term.

Living conditions of the local civilian population as well as the soldiers were extremely unfavorable. Virtually all the basic necessities of life have been insufficient. In the Karst environment, where a water deficiency is always present, the soldiers even had to drink their own urine. The soldiers on the battlefront were also tested by the environment. Winter made living conditions very difficult. On the Karst plateau the soldiers were threatened by cold, snow, avalanches and relentless wind. Therefore the Austro-Hungarian forces prepared manuals, which should remind soldiers how to deal with cold weather and survive in the mountain war during the winter. Instructions for manufacturing dry huts where soldiers, at least for a short time, would be able to find refuge from the relentless weather, have also been

14 ARS, SI AS 252, Imperial and Royal 7th re. 28th Artillery Regiment, box 3, Information about the nine battles on the Isonzo Front and grater conflicts between them, 1916, pp. 1, 2.
15 ARS, SI AS 252, Imperial and Royal 7th re. 28th Artillery Regiment, box 3, Information about the nine battles on the Isonzo Front and grater conflicts between them, 1916, pp. 1, 2.
Battles of the Isonzo

- September 14th – 18th 1916: Seventh Battle of the Isonzo
- October 9th – 12th 1916: Eighth Battle of the Isonzo
- October 31st – November 2nd 1916: Ninth Battle of the Isonzo
- May 12th – June 8th 1917: Tenth Battle of the Isonzo
- August 19th – September 12th 1917: Eleventh Battle of the Isonzo
- October 24th – November 7th 1917: Twelfth Battle of the Isonzo

In the second half of 1916 the Italian army started concentrating on the edge of the Karst plateau to break through to Trieste. During the Seventh, Eighth and Ninth Battle of Isonzo they tried to take over the Austrian crown jewel. Not even extensive use of aircrafts and artillery could bring them the victory. In just the first nine battles of the Isonzo Front the Italian military forces have lost approx. 550,000 soldiers and more than 22,000 have been captured by the Austro-Hungarians.

In the second half of 1917 the final battles of the Isonzo Front were near. The Austro-Hungarian military forces were exhausted. Fortunately for them (and unfortunately for their opponents), so were the Italians, who could not find the resources necessary for successful attacks. They still had the upper hand in man power, but after fierce and deadly fighting, the morale of the soldiers was at its lowest point. The Tenth and Eleventh Battle on the Isonzo Front were an inconclusive bloodbath. More than 60,000 soldiers were dead and 150,000 seriously wounded.

The final Battle of the Isonzo Front (also known as the Battle of Kobarid/Caporeto) took place near a small Slovenian town Kobarid. Austro-Hungarian forces were reinforced by German units for a last crushing blow against the Italians. The battle was a demonstration of the effectiveness of the use of storm troopers and the infiltration tactics. The Kobarid area was chosen as the optimal site suitable for a gas attack. 750,000 soldiers (350,000 on Italian and 400,000 on Austro-Hungarian side) were used in this single battle leading to a historical

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17 ARS, SI AS 356, Command of the Isonzo armada, box. 1, Mountain-war during the winter; ARS, SI AS 252, Imperial and Royal 7th re. 28th Artillery Regiment, box. 3, Description and instructions for construction of dry huts.
18 ARS, SI AS 252, Imperial and Royal 7th re. 28th Artillery Regiment, box 3, Information about the nine battles on the Isonzo Front and grater conflicts between them, 1916, pp. 1-2.
victory of the joint Central Powers.\textsuperscript{21}

The casualties of the Isonzo Front were enormous. More than half a million people have lost their lives. The Italian armed forces suffered almost half of their total losses in the Great War only on the Isonzo Front. The war also affected and destroyed lives of people in the immediate surroundings of the battlefields. Tens of thousands Slovene civilians from the Vipava Valley (Gorizia and Gradisca) near the Italian border have been exiled. Although the Austro-Hungarian Empire achieved a victory at the Isonzo Front in November 1917, its military forces were later defeated by a joint army of the Entente Powers at the river Piave in November 1918.

\textsuperscript{21} Sedmak, “Isonzo Front”, p. 171.

Archives of Slovenia
TATARİSTAN / TATARSTAN

BİRİNCİ DÜNYA SAVAŞI TARIHİNE İLİŞKİN TATARİSTAN
CUMHURIYETİ DEVLET ARŞİVLERİ BELGELERİ

Dr. Ilias MUSTAKİMOV *

Tataristan Cumhuriyeti’nde Birinci Dünya Savaşı’nın tarihine dair belgelerin esas kısmı Tataristan Cumhuriyeti Milli Arşivi’nde, diğer kısmı ise Tataristan Cumhuriyeti Tarihi-Siyasi Dokümantasyonu Merkez Devlet Arşivi’nde bulunmaktadır.


Ayrıca, XIX. yüzyıldan itibaren Kazan asker, mahkeme, eğitim ve iletişim yolları bölgelerinin merkeziydi. Bu bölgeler İdil Boyu, Batı Sibirya, Kuzey Kafkasya ve bugünkü Kazakistan’ın bir kısmını kapsaraktaydı.

Kazan vilayetinin ve yukarıda adları geçen bölgelerin yönetim makamlarının fonları, yine Kazan vilayetinin toplumsal, özel müesseselerinin ve fabrikalarının fonları Tataristan Cumhuriyeti Milli Arşivi belgelerinin en büyük kısmını oluşturmaktadır.


Tüm ülkedeki gibi, Kazan vilayetinde savaşın ilan edilmesi şehir ve ilçelerin çokluğunun nüfusu arasında yurtseverlik eğilimlerinin artmasına neden oldu. Devlet Duması’ndaki (yani, Rusya parlamentosundaki) Müslüman grubunun temsilcileri Yüksek iktidara ve orduya destek
oldu. Kazan ve Kazan vilayetinin farklı sınıfı ve dinlere ait olan sakinleri seferberliğin başlangıcını destekliyorlardı, çoğu insanlar bir an önce cepheye gitmek istiyordu, üniversite öğrencileri ve okul mezunları hareket orduşuna gidenlerin %100'lü olarak gidiyorlardı.

Bu dönemin en önemli amacı vilayetin ekonomisinin askeri usule göre değiştirilmesiydi. Çalışabilir yaşta köylülerin kitlesel seferber edilmesi, askeri ihtiyaçların giderilmesi için atların ve at arabalarının seferber edilmesi koşullarında, tarım, ordunun yiyiçek ve ham Maddeleri, artan ihtiyaçlarını sağlayabilmek için yeniden düzenlenmiyordu. Savaş yerel sanayiyi ciddi bir şekilde etkiledi. Çoğu büyük fabrikalar cephenin ihtiyaçlarına yönlendirildi. Rus ordusu tarafından kullanılan barutun çoğunluğu İmparatorluğun en büyük fabrikası – Kazan devlet fabrikası tarafından üretilirdi.


Düşman tarafından gazlar kullanılmaya başlanan gazları öğrenildikten sonra hemşere - Kazan cemaatinin vasıtası koruyucu eleyenlerin üretimini ve onların alınmasını organize etti. 1915 yılın sonunda 146 bin 949 tane gaz maskesi gönderilirdi.

Kazan vilayetinin karşılıştığı şiddetli promlerden biri buraya tahliye edilen mültecilerin


1917 yılının Şubat devriminin sonrasında savaşın sürdürlmesi, evrensel krizin artma nedenlerinden biri oldu, Kazan vilayetinde de ‘Kahrolsun savaş!’ sloganı kullanılan eylemlerin sayısı arttı. Bu dönemde, Kazan askeri bölgesinde askerlik şubesini müdürlüğü fonunda
saklanmış belgeler aittir. Müdürlük, 1917 yılının Ağustos ayında Kazan askeri bölgesinin askeri birliklerinin sert disiplin rejiminin tespit edilmesi için kuruldu. 1917 yılının Ekim devriminden sonra kaldırıldı. Fon, Geçici hükümetin makamlarının askerler arasında karşılıklıklar ortaya çıktığını ve bu karşılıklıkların ortaya çıkması nedenlerine, askerlerin izinlerine ve terhislerine dair mesajlarını ve telegraflarını, askeri birliklerdeki periyodik basın kontrolüne dair yasamlarını içermektedir.

1917 yılının Ekim devriminin kazanılmasından sonra, Sulh kararnamesi kabul edildi. 3 Mart 1918 tarihinde Brest-Litovsk’ta Sovyet Rusya temsilcileri bir taraftan, Almanya, Avusturya-Macaristan, Türkiye ve Bulgaristan temsilcileri diğer taraftan münferit sulh sözleşmesini imzaladı.

Harp esirlerini ve mültrecleri içeren Birinci Dünya Savaşı'nın mirası Bolşeviklerin eline geçti. 1918 yılının Nisan ayında Sovyetler hükümeti tarafından Harp esirleri ve mültreclere ilgili Merkez Kurul, Kazan vilayetinde ise esir düştür ve mültreclere ilgili Kazan vilayet kurulu kuruldu. 1920 yılında, Tataristan Özerk Cumhuriyeti'nin kurulmasından sonra, bu kurulu Nüfus tahliyesi Tataristan müdürlüğüne değiştirilerek 1922 yılına kadar kaldı. Yönetme fonu emirleri ve talimatları, mültreclerinin genel toplantılarının ve harp esirlerinin sorgulama tutanaklarını, harp esirlerinin mütıl konularını, harp esirleri ve mültrecler arasında gerçekleştirilen kültür aydınlatma işlerinin bilgilerini, Kazan şehrinde oturan esirlerin sayısı ve milli terkibine dair bilgileri, esirlerin ve mültreclerinin lehine bağışların toplanmasına dair yasamlarını içermektedir.


The topic of my presentation “Tunisians During the First World War” deal with the human and the social side of the great war in some archives. But let us first, my colleague and me, thank the organizers for their kind invitation to this meeting, and, thank you all very much for coming today.

The Tunisian National Archives detains about 400 files pertaining to the Great War. These records which are spread on different series, concern in their majority the Central Government. Central Government means Tunisian government. As you know, when war broke out in 1914, Tunisia was under French rule from 1881. Tunisia, however, unlike Algeria, experienced the protectorate system which means the conservation of local government structure (administrative hierarchy), but under French control from top to bottom. So archives we’ll talk about are related to this local government. The archives belonging to the French government in Tunisia (Residence General) or the French army were transferred in the aftermath of independence to France.

These records deal with different aspects of the war. It includes: the war economy, labors, requisition of products, traffic and product distribution, movement of Tunisian, expression of loyalty toward France and Allies, propaganda, solidarity, compensation…

Doc. 1, Lists of young soldiers mobilized from different parts of the country

The recruitment is randomly made, and it was supervised by the local administration Sheikh, Caïd (the provincial governors), and French contrôleurs civils. (According to the law of December 26, 1899, Tunisia became subject to the law of mobilization and French military recruitment for all those who have reached the age of 19-21 years.)

The total number of Tunisians involved in the Great War reached 87,332 men, soldiers and workers alike. This figure represents about 3.9% of the total population and 25% of the working-age population (18-45 years). A large number in comparison with the number of population: In 1911, Tunisia had 1.7 million people, including 88,000 Italians and 48,000 French.
Doc. 2, War: a community of destiny?

a. Poster of the war in 1914-1915. The Heads of State Allies (title and names in Arabic and French), a part of propaganda toward Tunisian public. It has a didactic purpose: simplifying the war and supporting Allies war effort.

Here colonizers and colonized are treated as equal. In this picture, all are referred to as head of State although it is an unequal and discriminatory context: Indeed, few heads of state governed colonial empires (England, France, Belgium…) or independent states (Serbia and Montenegro), whereas the rest are dominated (Tunisia, Morocco, India…).
b. The second poster follows the same theme that shows the soldiers involved in the war. Colonized and colonizers seemed facing the same destiny. But, not only the soldiers of the colonized countries were involved in a war that does not concern them, but North African troops, for instance, were often used as “cannon fodder”, they were always in frontal confrontations with the enemy.

Doc. 3, Aid to the war-wounded “French and natives”

a. Official Journal: In April 5, 1916, under the control of the French administration, Mohamed Nasir Pasha Bey of the Kingdom of Tunis issued a decree by which he allowed the French Society for the Aid of Wounded Military, the Union of Women of France and the Tunisian Work of Relief to Soldiers to organize a “Tunisian Lottery for French soldiers and natives” (with favorable opinion of the Minister Plenipotentiary French Resident-General Alapetite).
b. In the same context, the second document (in Arabic) shows lists of Tunisians from different regions of the country, who subscribed to support Republic government’s war effort (France).

Doc. 4, The war’s echoes in the press in Tunisia (a, b)

Here, in 1915, “La Tunisie Française” and “La Dépêche Tunisienne” in 1918 covered the war events on different sides. These two newspapers were written in French and addressed to educated people, mainly Europeans.
Doc. 5, Tunisian soldiers “died for France” (a, b)


Images showing a plot plan of Abbeville cemetery where was buried M’Barek Ben Khléfi El Lazreg (identification number 29), native of Caidar (province) of Monastir, incorporated in the 8th Regiment of Riflemen, and killed by the enemy in 11 March 1915. His family was notified of his death. (Abbeville cemetery plan showing the plot number of the dead soldiers).

Tunisian military, like the rest of the soldiers from the colonies, were mobilized on different fronts. When one of them was killed, he would be buried in the area where he would had fought. (Here La Somme and Dunkerque both in the NE of France).

The death toll of the Tunisian participation was particularly heavy: 16,509 killed (soldiers and workers alike) which constituted about 16% of the total individuals who were sent to war. Injured largely exceeded 10,000, many of them disabled and a large number suffered from infectious and respiratory diseases due to the use of mustard gas.

Doc. 6 (a, b, c): Interests and rights of absents: family and inheritance

a. Circular of the Bey Prime Minister (Yusuf Jaïet) to Cadis (judges) of 8 October 1914

Tunisian Prime Minister reported he had received numerous complaints from indigenous who were mobilized against individuals, remained in the country, who want their wives to believe that their husbands, i.e. complainants, died, wanting to marry them with the other natives. PM calls judges for vigilance in such situation and act with care and precision when they confront such problem in order to save the interests of absents.
b. Circular to cadis, June 8, 1915

PM said he had received numerous complaints from Tunisian soldiers under arms, becoming heirs following the death of one of their parents; they are sometimes evicted from their share of heritage that was monopolized by their close relatives. Hence the need for safeguarding property, families and interests of mobilized indigenous.
Complaint that whatever his only boy, Paul Ghez, on the front from the July 1916, sent him a letter or postcard. Upon arrival in Tunisia, they were addressed to the office of censorship.

His son, bachelor of Letters and immediately after his exams, is committed to the service of France as a volunteer. But they receive his letters with delays of eight or even ten days upon their arrival in Tunisia. “At the last offensive, being with no news about of our child, my wife and I, have gone through the most cruel trance while a letter reassuring us on his condition was immobilized in an office in Tunis. A letter sent from the front on July 12 has reached us only on August 6. I’m sure you do not agree that the parents of a soldier, whose father is involved in the administration for thirty two years, suffer for long days of waiting from anxiety and anguish.” (Actually, among the letters coming from the front, some reflect the anger and disillusionment of Tunisian considering to be abandoned, with their families in the country, as well as by the Bey and France.)
Doc. 7, 1937, Creation of the association “North African Union of Muslims war veterans volunteers during the war (1914-1918)”

The President of the association asks the Prime Minister (Hedi Lakhoua) to kindly accept the honorary presidency of the newly created association.
Bayanlar ve Baylar,

Konuşmama başlamadan önce, böylesine seçkin bir dinleyici kitlesine hitap etmekten dolayı onur duyduğumu belirtir, tarih bilimine ve akademik çalışmalarına katkıda bulunulan herkese en derin saygılarımı iletmek isterim.

Şimdi Genelkurmay Başkanlığı Askeri Tarih ve Stratejik Etüt (ATASE) Daire Başkanlığının Arşivi ve kuruluş süreciyle ilgili kısa bir sunuş yapacağım.

Başkumandan Vekili ve Harbiye Nazırı Enver Paşa’nın 11 Nisan 1916 tarihli emriyle Harp Tarihi Şubesi kurulmuştur.


Askeri Tarih ve Stratejik Etüt Daire Başkanlığı’nnın ana çalışma konusunu oluşturan askeri tarih; barışta ve savaşta askerlikle ilgili her türlü konu, durum, olay ve faaliyeti tarih metodolojisine uygun bir biçimde inceleyen, komutanların doğru karar vermesine yardımcı olan tarih dalıdır.

Askeri tarihinde doğru ve ayrıntılı yazımı açısından arşiv sisteminin düzenli olması, belgelerin muhafazasında ve tasnif edilmesinde titiz davranılması önem arz etmektedir. Bu doğrultuda Genelkurmay ATASE Daire Başkanlığı Arşivinin faaliyetlerine kısaca değinmek istiyorum.

Arşivde yer alan belge koleksiyonlarının uygun şartlarda saklanması ve tasnif edilmesi faaliyeti; uygun mekân, araç ve gerecin yanı sıra bilimsel yöntem ve tekniklerin uygulanması faaliyetini gerektirmektedir. Tüm bu faaliyet, belgenin uygun şartlarda korunması, belgelere restorasyon ve elektronik ortama aktarılması, belge içerik(optimizer)inin oluşturulması ile uygun yazılım araçlarıyla ilgili belgeye erişim sağlayan hasısalın tamamını içermektedir.

Her modern arşivde olduğu gibi, ATASE Arşivinde de belgeleri belli bir ısı (18 ºC ±3) ve nem (%50 ±5) aralığında muhafaza eden merkezi klima ile yangın söndürme sistemi [boğucu gaz (Argon)] bulunmaktadır. Ayrıca depo zeminindeki hacimsel ve kamerarlar aracılığıyla belgelerin bulunduğu ortamlar 24 saat kayit altında almaktaadır.

Tarihi belgelerin bakımı ve onarımaları arşivimizde yer alan restorasyon biriminde gerçekleştirilmektedir. Belgelerin restorasyonu, özel malzemeler (Japon kağıdı, şeker içermeyen...
Belgeler zararlı maddelerden arındırılarak, aslına sadık bir şekilde restore edildikten sonra elektronik ortama aktarılmaya hazır hale gelirler.

ATASE Daire Başkanlığı Arşivinde belgelerin elektronik ortama aktarılma faaliyeti 3 adet A2, 1 adet A1 ve 1 adet A0 olmak üzere toplam 5 adet tarayıcı ile yürütülmektedir. Tarayıcılar insan sağlığına ve belgelere zarar vermeyecek bir teknolojiye sahiptir. Belgeler elektronik ortama aktarılırlar, tarayıcıya ait ışık kaynağı olarak, Ultra-violet (UV)’den arındırılmış soğuk ışık sistemi kullanılmaktadır. Elektronik ortama aktarılan belgeler araştırma hizmetinde ve belge tasnifinde kullanılmaktadır.

Elektronik belge kopyaları, gerek araştırmacı ve gerekse belgelerin içerik analizlerini yapan tasnif grubu personelinin rahat okuyabilmesi ve gerektiğinde başka kullanımlar açığına yüksek çözünürlükte (300 dpi, jpeg) taranmaktadır.

Elektronik ortama aktarılan belgelerin, içerik analizlerinin oluşturulması, anahtar kelimelerin çıkarılması, arşiv numaralarının verilmesi vb. işlemi Osmanlı Türkçesi bilen arşiv uzmanları aracılığıyla yürütülmektedir. Araştırmacılara sunulacak olan katalogların hazırlanmasına temel olan bilgilerin oluşturulması faaliyeti bu işlemin bir sonucu olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır.

Belgeler tek tek okunarak, gerektiğinde o belgeye ulaşım sağlayacak erişim uçları oluşturulmakta ve belge ya da belge grubu hakkında bilgi verebilecek özet bilgi arşiv yazılımına aktarılmaktadır.

Uzmanlar tarafından bilgisayara girilen belge analiz bilgileri üzerinde son düzenlemeler (özellikle Osmanlı Türkçesi ile yazılmış belgelerde, aynı yer, aynı şahıs vb. dizin unsurları için farklı yazı şekilleri olabilmek) yapıldıktan sonra kataloglar basına hazır hale gelmektedir.

Tüm bu bilgiler ışığında Birinci Dünya Harbi Koleksiyonumuz’a ait belgelere ve yürütüğümüz faaliyetlere kısaca değinmek istiyorum.


Belgelerin tasnifinde asılın sadık kalmış ve dönemin teşkilat yapısı bozulmamıştır. Bu nedenle Birinci Dünya Harbi Koleksiyonumuz’a ait katalog; Başkumandanlık Karargâhi ve Harbiye Nezareti şubelerinin yazışmaları, ordular, kolordular vb. hiyerarşik bir yapı içerisinde kendisini göstermektedir.

Birinci Dünya Harbi Koleksiyonumuzda Osmanlı Devleti’nin savaşmış olduğu tüm
cepheleye ait (Çanakkale, Kafkas, Galicia, Romanya, Irak, Suriye, Filistin vb.) belgeler bulunmaktadır. Belgelerin ağırlıklı olarak konusu harekât (deniz ve hava harekâtı dahil) olmak üzere; personel, eğitim, istihbarat, ikmal, idari, sağlık vb. konuları da barındıran belgeler koleksiyonda yer almaktadır.

Yapılan yazımların dışında savaş zamanında birliklerce tutulan ve gün gün ve saat saat birliğin tüm faaliyetlerini içeren harp ceriderleri de Birinci Dünya Harbi Koleksiyonu içerisinde göze çarpmaktadır.


Ayrıca koleksiyonlarımızda yer alan belgelerden seçilerek yılda iki defa (Ocak ve Temmuz) çeşitli konularda hazırlanan “Askeri Tarih Belgeleri Dergisi” Başkanlığımızın yayın faaliyeti içerisindedir. Son dönemde Birinci Dünya Harbi’ne ilişkin olarak hazırladığımız; “Birinci Dünya Savaşı’nda Çanakkale Cephesi” (3 cilt) ve “Çanakkale Muharebelerine Katılan Komutanların Biyografleri” adlı eserler araştırmacılarnın hizmetine sunulmuştur.

Şimdi size arşivimizde yer alan Birinci Dünya Harbi’ne ait belgelerin zenginliğini ve önemini ortaya koyacak bazı örnekler sunmak istiyorum.

**Belge 1:** 22 Ekim 1914 tarihli Enver Paşa’nın Donanma Komutanı’na Karadeniz’de Rus filosunun görülmesi halinde vurulması emri.
Belge 2: Başkomutan Enver Paşa’nın Almanya’ya ait Goben ve Breslau gemilerinin Boğaz’dan içeriye girmelerine izin verilmesine dair emri.

Belge 3: 19’uncu Tümmen Komutanı Mustafa Kemal’in 17 Mayıs 1915 tarihli; «Muhterem asker arkadaşlarına kumanda-i vedamdır» başlıklı yazısi.
Ayrıca Genelkurmay ATASE Daire Başkanlığı Arşivinde:

1. Osmanlı-Rus Harbi (Kırım Harbi) (1853-1856),
2. Osmanlı-Sırp-Karadağ Harbi (1875-1877),
3. Osmanlı-Rus Harbi (1877-1878),
4. Osmanlı-Yunan Harbi (1897),
5. Osmanlı-İtalyan Harbi (1896-1914),
6. Balkan Harbi (1911-1912),
7. Birinci Dünya Harbi (1914-1918),
8. İstiklal Harbi (1919-1922),
9. ATATÜRK Koleksiyonu,
10. İkinci Dünya Harbi (1936-1948) koleksiyonları ile askeri tarih araştırmacılarına hizmet verilmektedir.


Araştırmacıların belge talepleri, talep edilen belge koleksiyonunun, belge bazı tasnif ve elektronik ortama aktarılması durumuna göre en kısa sürede sağlanmaktadır. Tarihi belgelerin yıpranmaması açısından araştırmacı hizmeti, belgeler elektronik ortama aktarılacak, bilgisayar aracılığıyla yapılmalıdır. Araştırmacılar bilgisayara aktarılan ve kendilerine ait olan elektronik belge kopyalarını, belirli miktarda ve yoğun disk ortamında ücretsiz olarak da alabilmektedir.

Etkinliğimizin de konusu olan Birinci Dünya Harbi belgelerinden yararlanmak isteyen tüm bilim insanlarının ATASE Arşivinden yararlanmak üzere davet ediyoruz.

Saygılarımla…
Ladies and Gentlemen,

Before starting my speech, let me first express that I am honoured to address such a distinguished audience and extend my deepest regards to all contributors to the academic study and science of history.

Now, I would like to give brief information on the establishment process of the Military History and Strategic Studies, shortly ATASE, Division Archives of Turkish General Staff.

Upon the order of Enver Pasha, Vice Commander-in-Chief and Minister of War, dated 11 April 1916, War History Branch was established.

The establishment was named as “War History Department” until 1967, “War History Directorate” until 1978, and “Military History and Strategic Studies Directorate” as of 13 June 1978. Following the change of organization on 03 November 2011, the name of the Establishment became “Military History and Strategic Studies Division”.

Military history, which constitutes the main area of study of the Military History and Strategic Studies Division, is a branch of history that examines every issue, situation, event and activity related to the military profession at peace and war in accordance with the historical methodology and helps the commander to make the right decisions.

The systematism of the archives system and the meticulousness in the preservation and classification of the documents is important for the accurate and detailed writing of military history. In this regard, I would like to mention the activities of the ATASE Division Archives of Turkish General Staff briefly.

The proper conservation and classification of the document collections in the archives requires the implementation of scientific methods and techniques apart from the provision of proper place, tools and instruments. All this activity includes the preservation of the documents under proper conditions, their restoration and transfer to the electronic environment, the preparation of their content summaries, and all items enabling the access to related documents through appropriate software instruments.

As it is the case in every modern archive, there is a system of central air conditioning, which keeps the documents within a certain range of temperature (18°C ±3) and humidity (%50±5), and a system of firefighting [through the choking agent (Argon)] in ATASE Archive. Besides, there are anti-inundation sensors in the repositories, and the environments where the documents are stored are recorded with cameras for 24 hours.

* Archives of Military History and Strategic Studies (ATASE) Division of the Turkish General Staff
The maintenance and repair of historical documents is realized in the restoration unit of our Archive. The restoration of documents is made by specialized personnel using special material (Japanese vellum, sugar-free methyl cellulose adhesive, etc.) and tools and instruments (heated spatula, vapour machine, press machine, etc.). Purified from harmful materials and restored in compliance with their original forms, the documents become ready for transfer to the electronic environment.

In ATASE Division Archives, the documents are transferred to the electronic environment through a total of 5 scanners, comprising of three A2, one A1 and one A0 scanners. These scanners use a technology that does not damage documents or human health. During their transfer to the computer, a cold light system purified from Ultraviolet (UV) rays is used as the light source for the scanner. Those documents that are transferred to the electronic environment are utilized for serving the researchers and the classification process.

The electronic document copies are scanned at high resolution (300 dpi, jpeg) in order that both the researchers and the personnel in the classification group analyzing the content of the documents could read them easily and that these documents could be used for printing in case of need.

The procedure of preparing content summaries of the documents that are transferred to electronic environment, selecting keywords, and determining the archival file and catalogue numbers is carried out by archive personnel specialized in Ottoman Turkish. The accumulation of the information that would serve as a basis for the preparation of catalogues to be presented to the researchers is achieved as a result of this procedure.

Each document is read separately. Access clues are formulated in a way to enable the researcher to reach a certain document when needed; and the summary details of a document or a group of documents are transferred to the archival software.

After the completion of final arrangements on the document analysis data transferred by the specialists to the computer system, the catalogues become ready for printing. (Because especially in the documents written in Ottoman Turkish, there may be used different writing styles for the same index elements denoting the same place, person, etc.)

In this context, I would like to touch upon the documents in our First World War Collection and our activities.

The file classification of 3.671.000 documents on the First World War in ATASE Archives has been completed, and now presented to the use of native and foreign academics. Besides, each document is examined individually, and the previously mentioned activities of classification are still continued for the documents on the First World War as well. The language of the documents in the collection is mainly Ottoman Turkish. Among the documents that are not written in Ottoman Turkish, German is more frequently seen in our Archives collection, when compared to the documents written in other languages (such as
French, Russian, Arabic, etc.). One of the main reasons for it is that German was the ally of the Ottoman State in the First World War.

During the classification of the documents, their original archival order was taken into consideration, and the organizational structure of the period was preserved. Therefore, our catalogue on the First World War is based on a hierarchical system including the correspondence between the General Headquarters and the branches of the Ministry of War, armies and army corps, etc.

In our collection on the First World War, there are documents on all fronts (Canakkale, Caucasus, Galicia, Romania, Iraq, Syria, Palestine, etc.), where the Ottoman State fought. The documents are mainly on operations (including naval and air operations). There are also documents on issues such as personnel, education, intelligence, supply, administration, health, etc.

Apart from the correspondence, there are war diaries kept by units at war, which included all the activities of units every day and hour.

(Besides their file classification), documents on 1915 Events, which exist disorderly within the Collection, are read separately and each of them is classified in detail. Our publication “Armenian Activities in the Archive Documents 1914-1918”, which was prepared as 8 volumes and one index through the selection of documents from our archives concerning the 1915 events, is written in Turkish and English, together with document copies and transcriptions. This publication was distributed both at home and abroad. The transfer of the publication to the internet environment is still under progress. The same work was published in Macedonian as well and distributed abroad.

Furthermore, our Division publishes a journal titled “Askeri Tarih Belgeleri Dergisi” [Military History Documents Journal], which is prepared on various issues as a selection from the documents in our archives and published biannually (in January and July). Our publications “Birinci Dünya Savaşında Çanakkale Cephesi” [Canakkale Front in the First World War] (3 volumes) and “Çanakkale Muharebelerine Katılan Komutanların Biyografları” [Biographies of the Commanders Participating in Canakkale Battles], which we have prepared lately on the First World War, are presented to the use of researchers.

Now, I would like to give you some samples that will put forward the richness and significance of the documents on the First World War in our archives.
Document 1: The order dated 22 October 1914, which is given by Enver Pasha to the Navy Commander to hit the Russian Fleet wherever it is seen in the Black Sea.

Document 2: The order of Enver Pasha, allowing the German ships, Goeben and Breslau, to enter the Strait.
Document 3: The writing by Mustafa Kemal, Commander of the 19th Division, dated 17 May 1915 and titled “My Farewell to My Esteemed Comrades in Arms as I Resign from My Military Mission.”

Moreover, ATASE Division Archives of Turkish General Staff renders service to researchers of military history with its collections on:

1. Ottoman-Russian War (Crimean War) (1853-1856),
2. Ottoman-Serbian-Montenegrin War (1875-1877),
3. Ottoman-Russian War (1877-1878),
4. Ottoman-Greek War (1897),
5. Ottoman-Italian War (1896-1914),
6. Balkan War (1911-1912),
7. World War I (1914-1918),

8. Turkish War of Independence (1919-1922),

9. ATATÜRK Collection,


The procedures to be followed for the research demand of native and foreign academics are carried out in compliance with the provisions of the Council of Ministers’ Resolution dated 2002 (The essentials that shall be observed by the natural or legal persons intending to research and study in State Archives). Those of full legal age who would like to do research in the Archives are required to submit a copy of their identity card, together with the Application Form and the Written Undertaking which are put on the official website of Turkish General Staff (www.tsk.tr) under the title “Publications”. The researchers to apply from abroad shall further submit the copy of their passports. The academics abroad may also make their application to the Embassies or Consulates General of Turkish Republic.

The researchers may benefit from the Archives on the same day they make their application. Our specialized personnel help the researchers with their research subject, and inform them about how they can use the catalogues concerning their area of study. Following the catalogue search, the researchers can demand to have certain documents after filling the “Document Demand Form”, which they will take from the responsible personnel.

The document demands of the researchers are tried to be met in the shortest time possible depending on whether the demanded document collection is classified separately for each document and transferred to the electronic environment. In order to prevent any attrition on the historical documents, the service to researchers is rendered on computers via the transfer of the documents to the electronic environment. Furthermore, it is for free if the researchers want to take on a CD a certain number of the electronic copies of the documents they demand, which are transferred to the computer software.

On this occasion, we would like to invite to our ATASE Archives all academics who would like to benefit from the documents on the First World War, which also constitutes the theme of our activity.

Thank you…
The Foreign Ministry’s Central Archive consists of diplomatic records of the Republican era since 1919 extending from the period of the War of Independence until the present day and contains documents that shed light on the recent history of Turkey as well as our region. The diplomatic archives belonging to the pre-Republican period were transferred to the Ottoman Archives Department under the Prime Ministry Directorate General of State Archives pursuant to a Protocol signed in 2000.

As of 2014, documents of around 65,000,000 pages, 9000 registers and 3500 booklets and other publications are preserved in 110,742 boxes/folders in the Central Archive of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Furthermore, the correspondence files and documents regarding multilateral conventions to which Turkey is a party as well as bilateral agreements are kept here.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs is among a few state institutions that are entitled by law to keep its own archives (the Law 4516/2000).

Our archival documents were filed according to countries, organizations and subject-matters during the period between 1919 and 1958; and according to ministerial departments since 1959. The files covering the period between 1919 and 1928 comprise documents written in Ottoman script (documents of almost 500,000 pages), whereas documents in foreign languages up until 1950s are mostly in French as it was the lingua franca of diplomacy of the era.
Approximately 2/3 of the archival inventory contains files regarding political, economic, cultural and diplomatic matters, while 1/3 of it involves records concerning administrative, financial, consular affairs, etc... According to the data compiled from the pilot automation work of August-November 2014 period, about 35% of the archival files includes classified documents.

**The Archive Building**

The Directorate of Diplomatic Archives (DIAD) was founded in 2011 for the purpose of transforming the archive management of the Ministry into a more efficient structure in line with the principles and methods of the modern archiving system. DIAD transferred its services as of March 2012 to the new Archive Building which, with its physical and technological infrastructure, was built to meet the requirements of the latest archival standards and applications. The Archive Building has a total closed area of 18,100 square meters, out of which 6,600 square meters are allocated to 32 storage rooms where the archival holdings are preserved and to offices which occupy an area of 1,384 square meters. At the moment, archival cabinets have been set up in 20 storage rooms. The rest of the Building is shared by the Ömer Haluk Sipahioglu Library, reading rooms for researchers, meeting hall, dining hall, cafeteria, and offices of various ministerial departments.

Archival files which had been previously kept in the Directorate General of State Archives (approximately three fourths of our Central Archive inventory) and in the storage rooms of the Ministry’s main building due to lack of space were all transferred to the Archive Building by the end of December 2013, and thus the physical integrity of the archives has been ensured.
**Diplomatic E-Archives (Archive Automation) Project**

One of our primary objectives is to provide rapid, secure and easy access to our diplomatic archival files. In accordance with this objective, the Diplomatic e-Archives (Archive Automation) Project, which was included in the Ministry’s Investment Program for 2014-2016 period, was launched on 1 December 2014.

The Diplomatic e-Archives Project, which is the most comprehensive state archival project in the Republican history aims to transfer all the physical documents in the Central Archive (roughly 65 million pages of documents) to digital format within a time period of three years. In the first phase of the Project, a part of the archival holdings consisting of 25 million pages of documents will be transferred to a database until the end of 2015. All the archival files of the 1919-1958 period as well as 22 million page documents of the post-1959 departmental files will have been transferred to virtual media by the end of 2015. Thus, through the Project we will be able to provide electronic access to our diplomatic archival records covering the period from 1919 to 2008.
Technical and Physical Infrastructure Work of the Project

• In order to carry out the Project, Library Reading Rooms of the Archival Building were turned into temporary office areas according to phases of work process.

• Physical, sanitary and security measures have been taken in Project work areas in accordance with labor contract, technical specifications and labor legislation (such as safe entry and exit, real-time monitoring/control systems, and so on).

• Information technology infrastructure and hardware, office equipment and supplies used in the project were procured.

• Project servers, storage and backup units were installed.

• In order to eliminate risks against information and document security, the process of transfer of archival documents to electronic media is carried out in closed network environment and appropriate measures of physical monitoring and technical surveillance are also implemented in accordance with the relevant directives.

• In September 2014 an Advisory Board (AB) for the Diplomatic e-Archives Project was established to benefit from knowledge and expertise of the relevant specialized institutions and academia with a view to implementing the Project effectively to achieve its goals. In addition to the directors of the relevant departments of the Ministry, the members of the Advisory Board consist of directors and representatives of related specialized public institutions as well as academia members in the field of Information and Document Management, Political History and International Relations.
Within the scope of the Diplomatic e-Archives Project, academics from various disciplines are regularly invited to the Ministry in order to monitor the Project’s progress and to share ideas and suggestions on such aspects of the Projects as its cataloging system and search engine, etc.

**Opening of Our Archival Documents to Research**

The Ministry’s Central Archive files will be made available to academic community and the public following declassification process. So far, out of the archival files belonging to the 1919-1958 period, the records of the files regarding Latin American countries, Palestine and Israel have been declassified.

As part of necessary review process, the documents classified as confidential will only be opened to research after they have been declassified by review panels at the end of a delay period of 30 years by law (The Decision of the Council of Ministers No. 2002/3681).

The archival files will be made available to the public in electronic media format through the Diplomatic e-Archive search engine developed by the Ministry. In this context, necessary steps are being taken to increase rapidly the number and the scope of the files to be opened to research in chronological order.
The Diplomatic e-Archives module for researchers is being developed to make chronological and thematic search on related archival files possible. Through the use of the OCR technology, researchers will be able to search a word or a term from either the content of a document or from the catalog. Researchers will also have the opportunity to take notes for themselves with their user name and password, save the document image by opening a file/folder, report their opinions regarding the archival files and the system directly to the Archive Management, and to request notification via the system when and once a specific archival record or file made available for research.

One of the main goals of the Diplomatic e-Archives Project is to efficiently conduct the declassification work in order to accelerate the process of opening of the diplomatic records to research in the near future.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs
Directorate for Diplomatic Archives
Çiğdem Mh. 1549 Sk. No. 4, 06520-Çankaya, Ankara
TÜRKİYE
Phone/Fax: 90 312 253 40 32 / 253 42 01
The State Records and Archives Department of Vietnam was established in 1962. It is an agency directly under the Ministry of Home Affairs of Vietnam. It exercises the functions of consulting, assisting the Minister of Home Affairs in the state administration of the records management and archival affairs at nation-wide; management of the records of national importance and providing public services in accordance with regulation of laws. The State Records and Archives Department of Vietnam consists of assisting divisions and 10 professional units including 4 national archives centers.

The holdings kept by 4 National Archives Centers consist of fonds and collections of archives, books and other materials including:

- The Imperial records (Chau ban), The Woodblock records of Nguyen dynasty (originals- 2,087m (34,618 printing plates), printed copies from engraved plates- 40m (55,318 pages) and database - 369 CD; These two record collections are recognized as the Documentary Heritage of the World by the Unesco.

- Land registers (Dia ba) under Nguyen Dynasty (1802-1945), records of the Imperial Viceroy in Tonkin and Tho Xuong District (former Hanoi), collections of Huong Khe, Vinh Linh records etc.

- Records written in French produced by the French Colonial Administrations in Indochina, Tonkin, Annam, Cochin china and provinces (1858-1945);

- Records produced during the period of 1945-1954, in the North of Vietnam; 1954-1975 in the South of Vietnam;

- Scientific and technological records: records of over 200 architecture, irrigation works and traffic systems in Tonkin, Annam and Cochin china and Indochina before 1945; Constructional engineering records that are mainly the records of the capital construction projects of the central agencies located in the South of Vietnam dating from 1802 to 2001; Cartographic records that include 23,296 maps produced during the French domination and American-backed administration from 1852 to 1975 etc…

- Reference printed materials in Han – Nom and French published before 1945, such

* Chief of Publication Division - State Records and Archives Department of Vietnam
as Geographic Encyclopedia of Dai Nam (Đại Nam Nhất thống chí), Complete annals of Dai Viet (Đại Việt sử ký toàn thư), Indochina gazettes, Indochina review, Statistical yearbook of Indochina etc.

- Administrative records of State central agencies and institutions such as the National Assembly, the Government, ministries, and dismissed administrative regional and interregional committees... from 1945 to present.

- Personal and family records; - Audio-visual records and photos;

**World War I documents**

In 1858, the French attacked Tourane, now Da Nang City, and soon followed this up with the capture of Saigon (now Ho Chi Minh City). By 1867, they made the southern parts of Vietnam a French colony, called Cochin China. In 1884, they took over the remainder of Vietnam (Annam and Tonkin). The French Indochina was established in 1887, including the colonies and protectorates in the Indochinese peninsula: Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam today (Tonkin, Annam and Cochin China). The French occupied these territories which were under the political control of France.

At the outbreak of the **Great War** (widely known as **World War I**), Vietnam was part of French Indochina. Vietnam contributed material resources and human power to the war. Many Vietnamese went to Europe to fight and serve for the French army. They were conscripts, labors and many people lost their lives for the France.

**Contributing of human resources**

The additional manpower from colonial located in the French government’s plan since 1912 on fears the risk of war. In the years 1915-1919, the ships from Indochina to France had brought a total of 92,411 indigenous.

In the years 1916-1917-1918, a total of 43,430 indigenous people were brought to the France.

**Recruiting workers**

Number of workers French Indochina was mobilized: 48,981 people in 1915-1919 as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Workers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1915</td>
<td>4,631</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1916</td>
<td>26,098</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1917</td>
<td>11,719</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1918</td>
<td>5,806</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1919</td>
<td>727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>48,981</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Provide military equipment

During the war, Indochina gave France a quantity of military equipment, including mortars, cannons, gun rack, weapons and ammunition. Also, there is more:

- 481 harness; 54 tons of flour left; 53 tons of acetone; 44 tons of methylene; 56 tons of scrap; 11 tons of logs; 8491 copper deposit (from South America).

- 12,000 bamboo; 1,860 kg of copper scrap (from North America and Central America)

- 3,000 backpacks; 5,000 pot; 6,800 blankets; Complete 2,000 tents; 5,000 complete kits; 13 550 petrol rock shoes; 5,000 kits and 3,000 camping mat…

Supply of materials

From 1914 to 1918: 72 tons of leather; 112 tons of cotton waste; 17 tons of cotton; 126 tons of tea; 54 hectoliter of alcohol (54,000) liters; 2,704 tons of edible oil; 268 tons of shellac (shellac); 85 tons of tobacco; 7,200 tons of beans; 41 tons; 320 hectoliter sauce (320,000); 24 tons of food (other); 3009 tons of paddy; 17 tons of dried mushrooms. Besides, the Department of Indo Resupply also sent to the country many tons of rice and other health supplies.

More than 200 dossiers on WWI in the Archives of Vietnam reflect these following questions:

- Contribution of the Indochina to the Great War:

  + Mobilization of material resources for the war:

  + Mobilization of human power for the war: The French recruited the Indochinese workers and voluntaries to military force for the France.

- Propaganda for war in Indochina

- Damage of the War in Indochina

- The charity program for wounded soldiers and families of those who died in war:

  + Organization of the painting exhibition for the sake of the blinds and invalids coming back from the front;

  + Organization of the theatrical performances;

Almost documents are in French and accessible. Researchers can access to archives in reading rooms of national archives in Vietnam.
Avrupa Savaşı Haritası

Vietnam Devlet Belge ve Arşiv Dairesi
YENİ ZELANDA / NEW ZEALAND

DOCUMENTING CONFLICT: THE WAR ARCHIVES OF THE FIRST NEW ZEALAND EXPEDITIONARY FORCE

Christopher Eric ADAM *

In this centenary year I would like to speak very briefly about the history of the New Zealand state archives now being used extensively to commemorate the events of 100 years ago.

New Zealand’s response to the outbreak of war in 1914, and its main contribution to the British war effort, was to prepare and send an expeditionary force 12,000 miles to the other side of the world. On 16 October of that year a force comprising 8,500 volunteers left New Zealand bound for, it was thought, the main theatre of war in France and Belgium.

This remains the largest group of people ever to leave New Zealand at any one time. During the course of the war over 124,000 volunteers and conscripts were mobilised, from a 1914 total population of just over 1 million. Of these over 100,000 would serve overseas, representing 9% of the 1914 population. The First New Zealand Expeditionary Force (1 NZEF) can be seen as an overseas projection of the nation at war.

Archives can be defined as documenting business transactions and this is just as true for the business of war: from orders scribbled in pencil in a trench to copperplate pen entries in large bound registers hundreds of miles from the front line, the New Zealand Expeditionary Force in the Dardanelles, Middle East, and the Western Front created and accumulated small mountains of paper records that had either facilitated or were the by-product of its war work, including routine orders, unit diaries, establishment rolls, photographs, casualty reports, and trench plans. Much of this can be seen as steam off the engine of war; other documents, however, were an effort to deliberately record that activity for posterity.

The Expeditionary Force established centralised Records Offices in Egypt, France and London. The Office in London was in fact established even before the Force’s Headquarters was set up there in May 1916.

These Record Offices were largely concerned with what would now be called human resources work. They were in charge of the various documents of what became the personal files for each member of the Force and received and collated information coming back from the orderly rooms within the many different units. Not surprisingly a lot of their work

* Regional Archivist- Archives New Zealand
dealt with casualties: 1 NZEF suffered a 58% casualty rate over the course of its existence, which included nearly 17,000 deaths out of the 100,000 who served overseas. The Personal Files and casualty forms the Records Offices dealt with now form a large part of the extant documentation of the Force.

In 1917, a different kind of records office was established in London attached to the NZEF Headquarters, which was tasked with ensuring that records of New Zealand’s activities in the War would be created and preserved for future historical research. Following the Australian example an Historical War Records Section was established in September 1917, initially sharing accommodation, and use of an expensive photostat machine, with the Australian Section in the premises of the Public Record Office in Chancery Lane. New Zealand was keen to ensure that the work of the Expeditionary Force and other New Zealand contributions to the war effort were given their due recognition in any imperial history of the War. Orders were sent out to ensure more rigour in the compilation and return of unit war diaries and any other significant documentation. Where there were gaps in the official unit war diaries, efforts were made to collect personal papers and diaries and the work of the Section was later expanded to include the official war artists and photographers. It was recognised that there was and would continue to be a demand among the people at home for information about the War, that the returning members of the Force would want a record of their activities, and that an account of the War would be a fitting memorial to those that died. The process of memorialising the War had begun long before the conflict itself had ended or even the ultimate outcome was clear.

Through the efforts of the Records Offices and the War Records Section, the great bulk of what would be considered the archive of 1 NZEF returned intact from the War. As with nearly every large body of official archives, however, the subsequent fates of the component parts over the next 100 years varied greatly.

- Most of the photographs of the official war photographers were given to the Alexander Turnbull Library in Wellington to join the many series of non-government photographs, diaries, letters and other personal papers held by that institution, which largely complement the official record held by Archives New Zealand. Many of these have been digitised and are available online.

- Officially commissioned war paintings returned to New Zealand and came under the care of the National Art Gallery. However, the art world regarded them as of historical rather than artistic interest, and the historians saw them as being of little research value, so most were never displayed and remained in storage largely unseen by the New Zealand public. In 1981 what was by then termed the National War Art Collection was transferred to Archives New Zealand. High quality digital surrogates are now available online.
• The Personal Files fared best of any of the textual archives but even they did not survive unscathed. They were still in use for many years after the War to establish and record the right to service medals, pensions, disability benefits and so on. Many were re-activated in 1939 as those still of eligible age returned to service with 2 NZEF. After the subjects of the Personal Files had ceased to care, their children and grandchildren plied Base Records with queries and requests for copies. During the 1960s and 70s all, except those of officers and senior NCOs, were microfilmed and the bulk of the original file destroyed. Ten years ago all the files were transferred from the Defence Department to Archives New Zealand. In one of the largest digitisation projects carried out in by Archives New Zealand each of these files was copied and the digital surrogates made available online through a variety of sites by the middle of last year. This project followed the example of Australia and recognised the increased interest by New Zealanders at home and abroad in the War as the centenary drew near.

• The bulk of the textual War Archive returned to New Zealand to be used in the production of campaign and regimental histories, written not by professional historians or journalists but by Army officers involved in the campaigns or in the regiments concerned. Although termed Official Histories, they were in effect Government funded popular histories written for the general public and those who had served. A hundred years on, it is clear that the written history of New Zealand’s involvement in the First World War has fared poorly compared to that of the Second World War.

After information had been extracted from the records for the publication of these histories, the documents were left in a barracks building in central Wellington, until that building was demolished in 1931 to make way for the construction of a National War Memorial and Museum. It is estimated that 90% of the papers, apart from the war diaries, were sent to the rubbish dump, and the 10% that survives does so only because of the quick and unofficial actions of two historians - the War Archive was largely destroyed to make way for a bricks and mortar monument to the War, the largest of some 550 throughout the country.

The remnants of the textual archive – mostly war diaries and assorted registered files from various levels of the Expeditionary Force - were eventually transferred to Archives New Zealand in 1960. The papers were arranged and described on the same basis as that already used for the war archives of the Second World War, and all lists (though not the archives themselves) are available online through our online finding aid – Archway.

As an aside, New Zealand WW100, the country’s official World War 1 centenary website, has a good guide to the records mentioned here as well as other sites and sources, both official and unofficial.

It will be clear to you that the archive of 1 NZEF is incomplete and dispersed across
a number of institutions. It is incomplete not just because of the depredations of time and indifference, but because it was created that way. This is partly because only in the larger formations were there properly organised record systems, and because the identification of significant papers was largely left to the units themselves. One suspects that during the most interesting events, the military personnel were too busy to worry about such things.

Those that survive are difficult archives: not only are they completely stripped of any emotion, but of almost any descriptive content. Not only that, for the general public they can be frustratingly laconic, enigmatic and peppered with bureaucratic jargon. What is a descendant of one of the men or women of the Force to make of their ancestor’s Personal File, which will detail every time the subject went to the dentist but not mention which battles and combat engagements he or she took part in. They have to be read alongside a campaign or regimental history or personal diary to be comprehensible. The war diaries themselves can be similarly problematic. For the general public and even for the professional historian these surviving records, on their own, provide only a limited and incomplete way into the past. They remain, however, a key primary source on which researchers can build. At best, the textual archives of the 1 NZEF can be seen as a partial skeleton, providing a solid if incomplete framework of evidence, given flesh and meaning only by being read in conjunction with the thousands of personal letters, diaries and memoirs, popular histories, oral histories, photographs, paintings, sketches, and newspaper articles held in institutions or by families.

The construction of stories and historical interpretation of the original sources are not regarded as part of Archives New Zealand’s job. While others might use these records through the years to build and destroy national and personal myths about the War, Archives New Zealand has seen its role to be that of an impartial curator of these documentary remnants.

In December 1918 the Canterbury Mounted Rifles, the regiment my grandfather had served in, returned to Gallipoli, in part to try and identify the bodies of their fellow countrymen left on the Peninsula in 1915. Many also took the opportunity to inspect the battlefields and view them from a different perspective, literally, and through the lens of the previous three years’ experience. Our grandparent’s generation has passed but each generation since then has performed a similar act of homage – both literally and metaphorically - not to pass judgement on what their forebears did, but to try and understand and create their own story of our shared past. We consider it our task at Archives New Zealand to preserve the documentary evidence of those events of 100 years ago and to make it available - through whatever technology is most appropriate - to each generation of historians and the general public, to allow them to view the source documents with fresh eyes and a fresh sensibility and invest them with meaning relevant to their time.
Ladies and Gentlemen,

I wish to thank the Turkish State Archives for this opportunity to be here, to hear all these different and interesting approaches to the main topic of the Conference and meet so many colleagues from around the world. I am the last speaker and I will try not to tire you out.

If we need to describe in one word the participation of Greece in WWI we would probably have to use the word “complicated”. And this is mainly to the fact that the War created immense internal problems, that caused not only a delay in the entry of the country into the War on the side of the Entente forces, but also affected, if not determined, internal politics, at least until the eruption of WWII, which changed everything and in which Greece, of course, also fought bravely on the side of the Allies.

Today, while briefly narrating Greece’s participation in WWI, I will at the same time report on the archival sources that a researcher can access at the Diplomatic and Historical Archives of the Greek Ministry of Foreign Affairs on these events. Let me note here, although I suppose that it is self-evident to everyone, that details on the military operations in which the Greek Army participated, can be found in the Military Archives of the Greek Ministry of Defence. The Military Archives have also published two volumes of documents concerning these military operations, while the Ministry of Foreign Affairs published in 1917 two volumes of diplomatic documents of the period 1913-1917, which were greatly dedicated to the events around WWI. These two volumes have been digitised by the Service of Diplomatic and Historical Archives of the Hellenic Ministry of Foreign Affairs and will be available to researchers through our website next month. Moreover, allow me to say that next month the great project of digitization of all documents of the Central Service of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs from 1821 until 1923 will be completed, and all these documents, including of course all files and documents on Greece’s participation in WWI will be available to all of you and all researchers through the internet. My references to archival material today will be mainly from the material of the Central Service of the Ministry, which has been digitized. Of course, more material can also be found in the archives of the Greek Embassies repatriated and available to research at our Service, but it is basically complementary to this of the Central Service and does not alter the general picture.
Let us see how Greece saw the Great War since the first moment it erupted:

At the beginning of the War, in order not to disrupt the balance among the Balkan states achieved after the end of the Balkan Wars, Greece decided initially to remain neutral when Austria declared war against Serbia on 28th July 1914. Nevertheless, Prime Minister Eleftherios Venizelos knew that this neutrality was only temporary, since he believed that if an escalated European war erupted, he would have to quit it and align with the Entente Powers, with which, he strongly believed, Greece’s future was tightly connected.

Unfortunately, his beliefs were not shared by everyone in the government and the Greek State. Members of his government, like George Streit, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, and above all, King Constantine himself, believed that Greece should align with the Central Powers, because of their admiration for Germany (and the family relations of the King, if course) and their conviction that these powers would prevail at the end of the War.

Despite these reactions, Venizelos offered to the Entente powers the entry of Greece into the War on their side in early August 1914. His offer was, nevertheless, refused due to the fact that the Entente preferred that Greece (and the Ottoman Empire) remained neutral at that point. The Entente Powers believed that if Greece joined them, the Ottoman Empire would immediately join the Central Powers and Bulgaria would also remain close to the Central Powers, in a time when the Allies tried to persuade it to remain neutral or to join them.

The Diplomatic Archives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs do not necessarily describe extensively these thoughts, probably since most decisions were taken by the Prime Minister and the King. 30 files of the Central Service are dedicated to the War in 1914. Only one of them is completely dedicated to Greece’s neutrality. The rest describe very thoroughly the events of the War as it started and continued in Europe.

Venizelos’ insistence in joining the Entente had, among other things, to do with his fear that the Ottoman Empire would eventually attack Greece, mainly over the issue of the Eastern Aegean islands. He thought that, in this case, Greece would be in a better position if it would have already been in an alliance with the Entente. Thus, in January 1915, after the entry into war of the Ottoman Empire against the Allies in October 1914, Venizelos informed the Entente Powers that Greece was ready to declare war against the Ottoman Empire and this time the Allies seemed to agree and offered Greece important territorial gains in the case of victory. Venizelos liked the idea, but a decision was not taken. When the Allies attacked the Straits on February 19th 1915, Venizelos drafted a plan to send up to 40,000 Greek troops to assist the Entente forces in Gallipoli, in exchange for major territorial benefits for Greece in the Asia Minor after the end of the War. Even the parties of the opposition in the Greek Parliament agreed with the plan, but King Constantine refused to accept it and thus Venizelos resigned in early March 1915. A new government under Dimitrios Gounaris was formed,
mostly with members who agreed with the King’s positions as far as the war was concerned.

Nevertheless, the new government did not disrupt the negotiations with the Entente Powers, but presented more claims from them than the Venizelos’ government had done, and more precisely it asked from Allies to explicitly guarantee Greece’s territorial integrity for a period of 10 years. Entente rejected this last term, but the negotiations continued, until the Minister of Foreign Affairs Georgios Christakis-Zographos offered to the Entente the cooperation of the Greek Royal Navy without posing any terms. The Entente accepted the offer, but the King reacted and the offer was withdrawn.

The King himself had negotiations with the Central Powers and especially Germany, and asked for guarantees for Greece’s territorial integrity and concession of Serbian and Albanian territory to Greece.

New elections took place on June 13th, and Venizelos easily won. In late September 1915, when Bulgaria prepared for war with Serbia, Venizelos insisted that British and French troops should land in Northern Greece in order to assist the Serbs. The King initially agreed with this idea, but by the time he changed his mind, Venizelos had already notified the Allies that they could send troops to Macedonia. This fact, as well as the decision of the Greek Parliament to send Greek soldiers to assist the Serbian army, enraged the King, who demanded Venizelos’ resignation, again. Venizelos resigned in early October 1915, new elections were called for December 1915, but this time Venizelos and his supporters did not participate.

In the meantime, the French and British troops were still in Macedonia. The new Greek government unsuccessfully tried to disarm them in order to avoid, as stated, an invasion by the Bulgarian forces that considered the Allies’ troops in Greece as a threat. This caused more pressure from the side of the Entente forces. Not only were they not disarmed, but on the contrary in late 1915 the Allies succeeded in gaining important concessions from Greece as far as their presence and military activity in Macedonia was concerned.

If we search for files referring to the War in the 1915 archives of the Central Service of the Greek Ministry of Foreign Affairs, we will find almost 40 of them. But this time, unlike in 1914, their subject are much more diversified: the War was already in the Balkans, troops from both sides started fighting in Macedonia and this situation is apparent in the documents of the Greek Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Among the files of 1915 we can find 7 files concerning the position and stance of Greece towards the two sides, 4 files concerning the War in the Balkans, 6 files focused on the Ottoman stance, 1 on the Gallipoli campaign and only 7 about the events in the other fronts of the War, away from the Balkans. It is also interesting that there are at least 2 files concerning the application of the Law of War, which was at the time based on the principles of The Hague Conventions of 1899 and 1907.

Coming back to our historical presentation, we see that in the beginning of 1916 the Allies’ forces stationed in Macedonia put pressure on Greece. In January 1916 they even
occupied the island of Corfu in order to assist the defeated Serbian army to withdraw through this island towards Thessaloniki and they destroyed the bridge of Demirhisar (Sidirokastro). On the other hand, the King wished that the German and Bulgarian forces attacked the Allies and drove them away from Macedonia and in May 1916 he practically allowed the surrender of Fort Roupel in Central Macedonia to the German and Bulgarian armies. The Central Powers’ armies eventually attacked the Allies in Macedonia in the summer of 1916 and occupied the city of Kavala. All these facts, as well as the non-recognition by the Entente of the Parliament elected in December 1915, led to a severe deterioration of the relations between Greece and the Allies, although officially the two sides continued to negotiate, as the two telegrams exchanged between the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Greek Embassy in Paris in August and September 1916 and displayed in the exhibition show. It did not come as a surprise, consequently, that when in August 1916 a group of Army officers, loyal to Venizelos, led a revolt in Thessaloniki against the government of Athens, by the Allied forces in Northern Greece supported and protected it.

In early October 1916 Venizelos arrived in Thessaloniki, joined the revolt and formed a separate “provisional” government, which immediately organized an army that by June 1917 had almost 60,000 men. The first battalion of the new army quickly joined the Entente forces in Macedonia and the provisional government in Thessaloniki officially declared war against Germany and Bulgarla on November 24th 1916. On the same day, the provisional government’s army, along with the British, participated in an Entente counterattack in the Struma front. This was the first battle of a Greek military unit in the operations of WWI. Many more followed.

Despite the participation of the new army in the operations, the Entente was initially reluctant to recognize the Venizelos government, but the situation changed quickly. As mentioned, the provisional government in Thessaloniki declared war against the Central Powers, while the royal government in Athens at the same time seemed to become more and more pro-German. This led to the landing of British and French troops in Athens on 2nd December 1916, aiming at pressuring the King. The foreign troops were eventually driven away from Athens by force, but consequently the Entente forces blockaded big parts of mainly southern Greece that were loyal to the King, and later they recognized officially the Venizelos government of Thessaloniki.

As far as the files found in the Central Service archives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs concerning the War in 1916, it is interesting to note that 9 of them are dedicated to the participation of Greece in the events of the War, only one to the landing of the Entente forces in Macedonia and 8 of them to the War in general. These last ones include, among other things, the Greek diplomats’ impressions of the War in Europe, and especially the great battle of Verdun. In the exhibition, visitors can see a telegram sent by the Greek Ambassador in Paris Athos Romanos, describing his impressions after a visit in Verdun during the battle. What is
more interesting and it’s worth noting, is that for the first time there are 2 entire files on the negotiations with the Entente for quitting neutrality, while 6 more are dedicated to Greece’s neutrality. One is also dedicated on how the Entente forces broke Greece’s neutrality. The peculiarity of the Greek situation in that year of the War was absolutely apparent also in the titles of the files of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Let us note here, that all these files come from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the government in Athens. The archives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the provisional government in Thessaloniki contains only one file exclusively dedicated to the events of the War, and many more files on the revolt and the organization of the new government.

So, at the beginning of 1917, divisions and battalions of the new army continued to fight in the Macedonian front and very actively participated in the battles of the spring of the same year, provoking the admiration of the Allies, as a telegram, displayed in the exhibition, by the Commander of the Allies Army General Sarrail to Prime Minister Venizelos shows. The major achievement of the Greek Army in that period was the occupation of the Ravine hill on May 14th 1917.

In June 1917, the pressure exercised by the blockade of the Entente forces brought results: King Constantine abdicated, following an ultimatum by the Allies, and Venizelos returned to Athens as Prime Minister.

As soon as Venizelos returned, Greece officially declared war against the Central Powers on 30 June 1917. In the exhibition you can see the document with which the Minister of Foreign Affairs informed the Greek Ambassador in London on the interruption of diplomatic relations between Greece and the Central Powers. The Greek forces now fought officially on the side of the Entente, which of course assisted the Greek Army in reorganising itself, as the three documents of the summer of 1917 displayed in the exhibition point out. The Prime Minister gradually and by the end of the War sent almost 10 divisions to the Macedonian front to join the Allies.

About 25 files of the Central Service archives for 1917 were dedicated exclusively to the War. Five of them come from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the provisional government of Venizelos in Thessaloniki and include documents from both years 1916 and 1917. They refer to the policy of either the Entente or the Central Powers, and the participation of Romania and Bulgaria in the War, as well as to the conscription of soldiers for the provisional government’s army. The files coming from the Athens government Ministry of Foreign Affairs (either before or after Venizelos’ return) refer, as in the previous years, to both the general events of the War (5 files) and the participation of Greece (4 files). There were of course files exclusively focused on the policy of the Entente (1 file) and the Central Powers (2 files), as well as on the participation in the War of the neighbours of Greece, like the Ottoman Empire, Italy and Bulgaria.
The final year of the War found Greece fighting hard on the side of the Entente forces. Its role was acknowledged by everyone, as the telegram of April 1918 which is displayed in the exhibition and conveys the congratulations of the Italian General Garibaldi for the successes of the Greeks in the Macedonian front. The most important moment came in May 1918. The Greek Army had a very important role in the battle of Skra-di-Legen on 29th and 30th May 1918. The Greek forces in the battle consisted mainly of the Archipelago Division with the support (in nearby areas) of the Division of Crete and the Serres Division. Within hours, the Greek Army managed to completely occupy the area of Skra-di-Legen, a major bastion for the Bulgarian forces in the Macedonian front, taking more than 2,000 prisoners, bearing nevertheless heavy losses: 441 dead soldiers and officers, 164 missing and more than 2,100 wounded. What impressed everyone, and greatly contributed to the battle, was the Greek army’s courage and braveness. Its role was universally acknowledged.

The positive for the Allies result of the battle encouraged them to start a major offensive against the German and Bulgarian troops in Macedonia in September 1918. Ten Divisions of the Greek Army actively participated in the offensive, which means 34% of the total number of the Allies’ Divisions. 834 men died, 671 men were missing and almost 3,800 were wounded. Again, the role of the Greek Army was acknowledged by the Allies. The telegram, displayed in the exhibition, of September 1918, conveying the great satisfaction of the Commander of the Allied Army of the Orient Franchet d’Espèrey to Prime Minister Venizelos for the Greek Army’s victories, courage and braveness, not only in Skra-di-Legen, but throughout the campaign, is a proof.

The documents on the War for 1918 are less than in the previous years, especially because for Greece it was a year of military activity and less of diplomatic action, at least until the end of the War. A small number of files can be found on Greece’s participation and on the general events of the War, but it is evident of the new orientation of the Greek government’s policy that a bigger amount of files concerning Greek claims after the War and issues of reparations can be also traced, for the first time.

The First World War ended in November 1918 and Greece was on the side of the victorious countries, as it also was a few decades later, when the Second World War ended. Both times Greece paid the price for fighting with its Western Allies, a price in human lives, in destruction of infrastructure, in economic calamity, but also in deep political problems, in national divisions that endured for decades after both Wars ended. But the Greek Nation never regretted its brave participation in these two World Wars, showing both times its courage and determination.

Thank you for your attention.

Sources:

-Hellenic Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Service of Diplomatic and Historical Archives,
Central Service Archives 1914-1918


Title: France. Women of the Red Cross managing American aid for soldiers on the war front