A PROPOSAL FOR A MARITIME MUSEUM AND UNDERWATER ARCHAEOLOGICAL INSTITUTE AT THE OTTOMAN FORTRESS OF SEDDÜLBAHİR

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A Proposal for a Maritime Museum and Underwater Archaeological Institute at the Ottoman Fortress of Seddülbahir

By

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ABSTRACT

Seddülbahir is a fortress which was built in the seventeenth century under the patronage of Hadice Turhan Sultan and is located on the Gallipoli Peninsula. It guards the European side of the Dardanelles Straits. The strategic location of the straits, which connects the Aegean Sea to the Sea of Marmara, has been the site of many wars throughout history. Originally built to defend the area against Venetian attacks in the early modern era, it has also served as an important defense post during the World War I.

In March 2005 a survey, restitution, restoration and reusage project was initiated for the site of Seddulbahir by the Turkish Forest Ministry and sponsored by the Vehbi Koc Foundation. The project team, the Kaletakimi, was jointly formed from faculty and students from the Geodesy and Photogrammetry Department of Istanbul Technical University and the History Department at Koc University. One of the aims of this project is to plan a maritime museum for the site of Seddulbahir. This thesis examines the regional history of the site and specifically concentrates on the maritime heritage of the region where Seddulbahir is located, particularly the naval battles of World War I. It then suggests a conceptual project for this museum. This project is based on comparative research into international and national examples of both maritime museums and underwater archaeological heritage museums. An analysis of the existing museums and visitor centers in the Çanakkale and Gallipoli region was also conducted in order to determine the ways in which a maritime museum at Seddulbahir could complement but not repeat the existing cultural resources available to visitors and local residents to the Gallipoli peninsula.

ÖZET

Gelibolu Yarımadası'nda bulunan Seddülbahir, 17. yüzyılda Hadice Turhan Sultan himayesiyle yapılmış bir Osmanlı kalesidir. Çanakkale Boğazı'nın Avrupa yakasını korumaktadır. Boğazın Ege Denizini Marmara Denizine bağlayan stratejik konumu tarih boyunca pek çok savaşa sebep olmuştur. Seddülbahir Kalesi Venediklilerin saldırılarına karşı inşa edilmiş ve Birinci Dünya Savaşı süresince de önemli bir savunma noktası olmuştur.

Seddülbahir Kalesinin, Türkiye Orman Bakanlığı tarafından, 2005 yılının Mart ayında, araştırma, restorasyon ve yeniden kullanım projesine başlanılmıştır. Bu proje Vehbi Koç Vakfı tarafından desteklenmektedir. Bu projenin üyeleri İstanbul Teknik Üniversitesi Jeodezi ve Fotogrametri Bölümü ve Koç Üniversitesi Tarih Bölümü öğretim üyeleri ve öğrencilerinden oluşan Kaletakımı adlı grup tarafından yürütülmektedir. Bu projenin hedeflerinden biri Seddülbahir için bir deniz müzesi planlamaktır. Bu tez çalışması, Seddülbahir bölgesinin tarihini ve özellikle deniz tarihi ve Birinci Dünya Savaşı deniz tarihini inceledikten sonra kurulacak olan bu müze için kavramsal bir proje önermektedir. Bu proje ulusal ve uluslararası deniz ve sualtı arkeolojisi müzelerinin karşılaştırmalı araştırmasına dayanır. Çanakkale ve Gelibolu bölgesinde mevcut olan müzelerin analizi, kurulacak olan deniz müzesinin bu müzeleri tamamlaması ve bölgedeki mevcut kültürel kaynakların tekrarlanmaması ve Gelibolu halkına ve ziyaretçilerine en iyi şekilde aktarılabilmesi amacını güder.

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A Proposal for a Maritime Museum and an Underwater Archaeological Institute at the Ottoman Fortress of Seddülbahir

Introduction

The Ottoman fortress of Seddülbahir was built in the seventeenth century, under the patronage of Hadice Turhan Sultan. It is located on the European side of the Dardanelles Straits. The strategic location of the straits, which connects the Aegean Sea to the Sea of Marmara, has led to many wars throughout history. Being built to defend the area against the Venetian attacks, it has also served as an important defense post during the World War I. An interesting aspect of the construction of Seddülbahir was that it was built under the patronage of an imperial woman, Hadice Turhan Sultan. With this interesting identity, Seddülbahir's history sheds light on an era in Ottoman history when imperial women had exceptional power. What makes it more interesting is that Seddülbahir is a fortress, an architecture which is not very common as a building typology patronage in the repertoire of early modern era women who have often patronized social and religious constructions rather than military ones.

The survey, restitution, restoration project which started in 2005, and the reusage project of Seddülbahir Fortress that had been conducted since 1997[1] and one of the aims of these projects is to open a maritime museum. My aim in this thesis is to conceptualize this museum after various phases of research and explain why I believe this museum is best suited to Seddülbahir.

In the first chapter, which focuses on history of Gallipoli and Seddülbahir, I have tried to give the historical background of the region with emphasis on Seddülbahir and its environs to understand which phases of history that the fortress as well as the region went through.

[1] For further information about this project visit: http://www.seddulbahir-kumkale.org

During my historical research, I understood the region better and this gave me a base on which to build my ideas about the maritime museum. Being both a historical site and a museum, it would be impossible to visualize this museum without the historical background. In this chapter, I tried to focus my research on the naval history of the area as it will be the main theme in the museum.

The second chapter starts with a brief examination of the history of museum. My aim in this chapter is to give a basic background on the evolution of museums to show their importance and where they stand today and which purposes they serve. In conceptualizing my museum, I have used books and articles about museums, as well as internet sites for maritime museums from around the world. The museum books helped me to ground my ideas with theory and various important aspects of a museum. The web sites gave me ideas about how maritime museums have developed throughout the world and how some of their features can be applied to the Seddülbahir Maritime Museum. While exploring these maritime museums, I have decided to include three museums from Turkey: The Naval Museum in Beşiktaş, The Bodrum Museum of Underwater Archaeology, and The Çanakkale Military Museum. The reason that I have chosen these museums is that they are closer in theme to the maritime museum that I am planning. I have also added an analysis of different museums from the world, which are related to maritime museums and which I found interesting in certain aspects.

My third chapter is about the museums in the region. My visits to the museums and main memorials in the region were necessary to be able to understand the general framework of these museums. I visited the museums in the region for the second time in July 2007 in order to see if there had been any changes which has occurred since my last visit on September 2006. I had the opportunity to visit all the museums in the region and I tried to find what was lacking that a museum at Seddülbahir could fulfill. In other words, I wanted to

determine how the Seddülbahir Maritime Museum could complement these existing local museums. I found that all the museums in the Gallipoli peninsula have the same theme of the First World War and similar collections of war materials that were found in the region, as well as photographs, letters and memories of the soldiers who have fought there. My first impression was that The Seddülbahir Maritime Museum should not concentrate only on the First World War, but offer a narrative that was new and untold in the region. I realized that the naval history of the region is often neglected and the shipwrecks are left to their destiny. Therefore, I have proposed an underwater archaeology institute to be established at Seddülbahir along with the maritime museum, which would house the future collections of the museum as well as the artifacts which were excavated in the fortress. I also believe that a protection area along the coast of the Gallipoli Peninsula would be very beneficial to protect the shipwrecks as well as enriching the sea life. The Gallipoli Peninsula is already under protection as a national park, but the situation of the shipwrecks is ambiguous. The shipwrecks should be surveyed and must be protected with some kinds of control mechanisms. What I personally experienced in the Gallipoli region was that it was forbidden to dive to the wrecks, but all the diving schools offered dives unofficially to the wrecks for various amounts of money. After surveying the wrecks, those found suitable for diving can be opened to divers but only under supervision. This can stimulate both SCUBA diving and snorkeling activities in the region in addition to research on the underwater heritage of the region.

Part of my interest in a project such as underwater heritage institution is because I have been interested in underwater since the year 2000, and worked as a dive master and underwater videographer in Bodrum and Kemer in Turkey, in El Quseir and Sharm el Sheikh in Egypt and in Menorca in Spain. While, underwater heritage and underwater archaeology are new disciplines for me, reading about these subjects provided the initiative for my

proposal for an underwater park in the region and an underwater archaeological institute in Seddülbahir. Underwater heritage is very much neglected in Turkey, and I believe that such an institution is surely needed. It can stimulate new institutions dedicated to underwater archaeology and expand existing archaeology departments and trained experts in the universities if this specialty is created. Also, creating an area of protection in the sea, which will become an underwater park, will help to protect the region's underwater wealth. Thinking of wrecks of the peninsula and possibility of investigating and excavating them is a very exciting opportunity. What will make the underwater archaeology park more interesting is the possibility of displaying the materials from the wrecks or even the wrecks themselves if they are eventually recovered, in the museum of Seddülbahir. The collection of the museum will be enriched by underwater excavations, and the underwater heritage of Turkey will be improved at least for the Gallipoli peninsula.

Chapter 1

History of Seddülbahir and Gallipoli Region

It is important to analyze the historical background of Seddülbahir in order to better identify the needs of Seddülbahir Maritime Museum. This analysis will underline the important events in the history that the region and Seddülbahir went through to define the role of Seddülbahir Maritime Museum in presenting the past. I will examine the history of Seddülbahir under two titles: Pre-World War I and World War I. The Pre-World War I history of the region will be a short summary. The World War I section will be much longer with much more details due to the resources available as well as the important role of the region during the war. Also, I tried to concentrate my historical analysis on the naval history of the war which is very important for the Seddülbahir Maritime Museum.

1.1- Pre -World War I

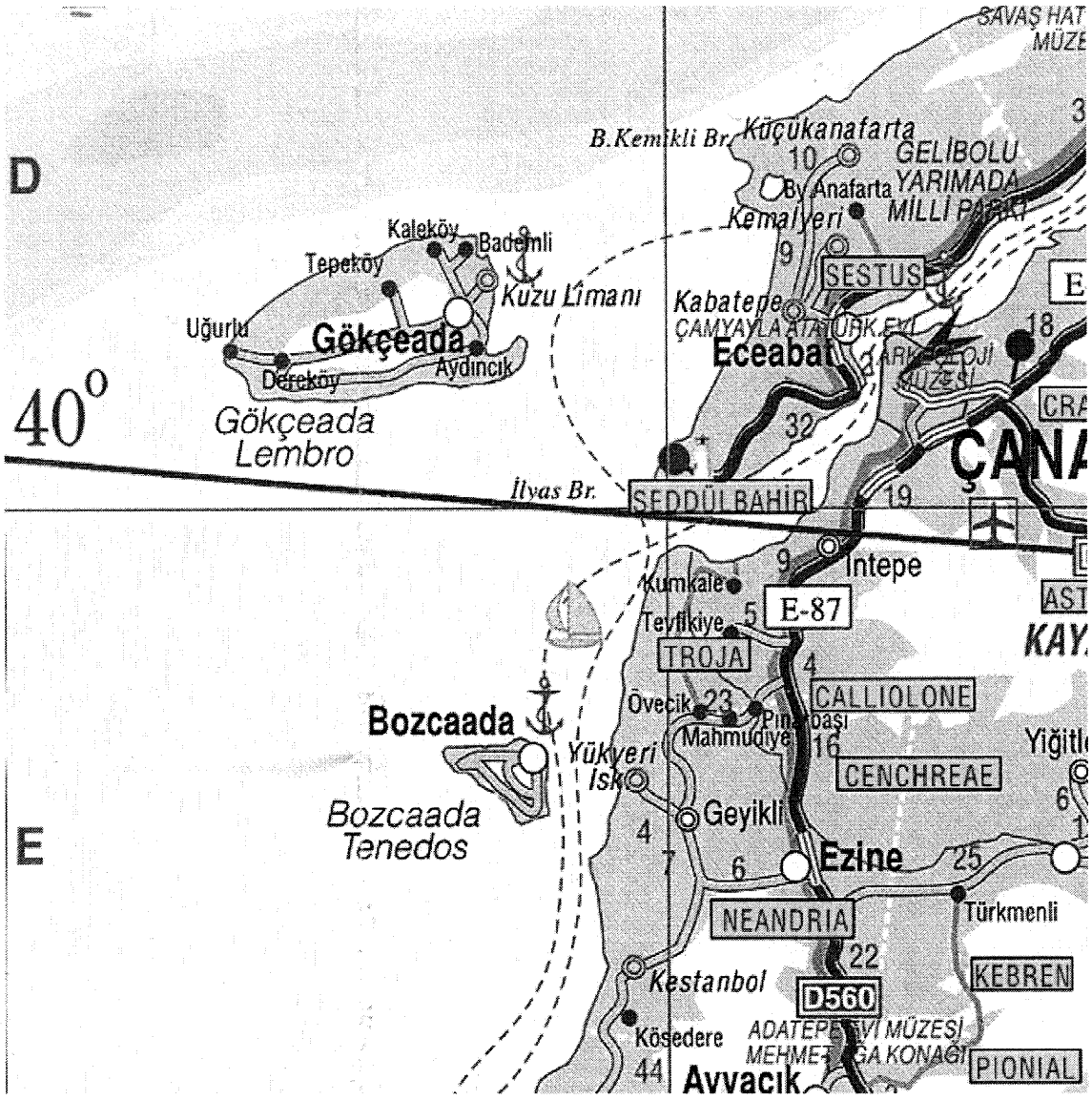


Fig.1 Map of the region

The Dardanelles, which is a thirty miles long passage, separates Europe from Asia. Its narrowest point is less than a mile wide and it leads from Aegean Sea to the Sea of

Marmara which is an inner sea. İstanbul or Constantinople, is situated on its northeast coast, and was once a capital of Byzantium and then of the Ottoman Empire. It guards the entrance to the Bosphorous, which is a waterway narrower than the Dardanelles and provides access to the Black Sea. The strategic location of the Dardanelles had brought armies and navies to the region throughout history. At Adrianople (Edirne), its hinterland, there have been fifteen recorded battles. The first of these was in AD 378, when the Emperor Valens was killed by the Goths; this event resulted in the collapse of Rome's empire in the west. Most recently in 1913, the Turks repelled a Bulgarian attack aimed at İstanbul. (Keegan 234) The first time that the Dardanelles became a scene in the international arena due to its strategic location was when the Persian King Xerxes crossed over the straits his armies by forming a bridge by ships between the straits to reach Greece and the Western Mediterranean. In the later periods, Roman Emperors had passed from there on their military expeditions to Anatolia, Syria, Egypt, Iran, and India. Afterwards, the Byzantines possessed this passage until the Ottomans took it over in the fifteenth century. (Tuncoku 7)

The fortress of Seddülbahir was built under the patronage of Hadice Turhan Sultan, who was the mother of the Ottoman Sultan, Mehmed IV. She was captured in Russia when she was twelve and she came to the Topkapı Palace as a concubine. She was serving Kösem Sultan who was the mother of the reigning sultan. Turhan began to rise in the ranks of the harem and she gave birth to a male child from Sultan İbrahim. She became 'valide sultan' or queen mother when her husband died and her son rose to the throne at the age of six. From 1648 to 1683, she was de facto ruler of the Ottoman Empire. "During this time she shaped many of the political and cultural agendas of the Ottoman court and assumed much of the power, wealth, and traditional privileges of the sultanate." (Thys-Şenocak,1) Under her patronage, there were many architectural projects. The fortresses of Kumkale and Seddülbahir

of the Dardanelles were among these and the construction of these buildings began in 1658. Kumkale and Seddülbahir were built for the Ottoman defense of the Dardanelles during the prolonged Ottoman-Cretan war, against Venetian naval attacks on the Straits. They have served as an important Ottoman defense post against their enemies who wanted to reach warmer seas by conquering Gallipoli. Also, they contributed to Ottoman revenues by collecting tax from merchant ships which were passing from the Straits. Along with natural causes like earthquakes and erosions, both fortresses were seriously damaged during the Gallipoli campaign of the World War I. They were given back to the Ottomans at the end of World War I, after the withdrawal of the British and the French. Seddülbahir had been used a naval base by Turkish navy until the spring of 1997. (Thys-Şenocak, "Kumkale ve Seddülbahir Osmanlı Kaleleri", 275)

The Dardanelles have been a naval base during the Ottoman period and the seat of the 'kapudan-ı derya' or the admiral of the navy. The name Gallipoli is derived from Greek Kallipolis, Kallioupolis or Kallipolis. The Turks of Anatolia first came to this area around 1300; it was among the strongest Byzantine fortresses in Thrace. During the winter of 1304, the Catalans who were in the service of Byzantium were stationed here. Their leader Roger de Flor was killed the next year, and they seized and fortified this place. Five hundred Turks from Karasi came to join them and on their way back from these attacks of the Catalans in Thrace, they decided to pass to Anatolia from the Gallipoli peninsula. They had to stay in Gallipoli two more years as they were attacked by the Byzantines. In the year 1352, the Ottomans occupied the region north of Gallipoli and its hinterland as well as the fortresses in the area which were under the command of Süleyman Pasha. Gallipoli became the base for the conquests in Thrace and allowed the Ottomans to gain territory within Europe. In 1366, the Duke of Savoy, Amadeo VI attacked Gallipoli with a Crusader fleet and seized it. The

Crusaders handed Gallipoli to the Byzantines. In 1376, Andronicus IV returned the fortress back to the Ottomans. (İnalcık 983-984)

150 years between the founding of the Ottoman Empire until the conquest of Constantinople, the Ottoman naval activities can be divided into three phases. The first phase was devoted reaching to the Sea of Marmara and getting in contact with maritime principalities. The second phase involved establishing Gallipoli as the main naval center and arsenal and competing with the Venetians for supremacy in the Aegean. And third phase was the conquest of Constantinople by Mehmed II, which enabled the Ottomans to reach to the Black Sea and the Mediterranean. (Bostan 13)

Despite the fact that the Ottomans started as a land based principality, once they reached the sea by conquest, they tried to increase their naval capacity. The Ottomans had benefited from conquering the principalities of the Western Anatolian shores in terms of learning seamanship skills. With the Turkish principalities such as the Menteşeoğulları, the Aydınoğulları, the Saruhanoğulları and especially the Karesioğulları contributed greatly to the naval experience of the Ottomans. (Bostan 14) Especially after adding the Karesioğulları Principality to the Ottoman lands, the Ottomans were considered as having a navy for the first time. (Bostan, Kürekli ve Yelkenli Osmanlı Gemileri, 21)

Under the reign of Murad I, Gallipoli was the crossing point of the Ottoman armies as well as the main base of the Ottoman fleet. Venice sent her fleet in 1388 to Gallipoli and made threatening moves against the Ottomans. The Crusaders have tried to blockade the Straits and destroyed the Ottoman fleet based in Gallipoli. Having understood the importance of Gallipoli, Bayezid I rebuilt the ruined citadel completely and fortified it with a strong tower. Bayezid I aimed to have full control over the Straits, and make foreign ships stop and pay fee to pass the Straits. However, Venice refused to pay the fee and attacked the Ottoman fleet. When the Ottomans were defeated in Ankara in 1402, the Venetian fleet was ordered to

seize Gallipoli. The Venetians even encouraged the Byzantines in their hopes of recovering Gallipoli. There were many disputes and fights between the Ottomans and the Venetians over Gallipoli. In the peace negotiations of 1419, Venice was granted free passage from the Straits. During the reign of Mehmed II, a long war between the Venetians and the Ottomans started. As a result, the Ottomans built two fortresses; 'Kilid al-bahr' (Kilitbahir) on the European side and Kale-i sultaniyye on the Asian side. Gallipoli remained as the main naval base and arsenal of the Ottoman Empire until a great arsenal and base was constructed at İstanbul, in Golden Horn in 1515. During the war for Crete, the Venetian fleet continued to fight over Gallipoli and this event led to constructing two more fortresses on the Straits. 'Sedd'ül-bahr' or 'Sedd al-bahr' (Seddülbahir) and 'Kum-kalesi' (Kumkale), also called as Khakaniyye and Sultaniyye. Gallipoli, known as 'Dar al-mudjahidin' had been principal naval base of the Ottoman Empire until sixteenth century, and as a result, its population consisted of fighting men. It was also the principal customs house of the Empire until the capture of Constantinople. (İnalcık 984-986)

The Ottoman Sultan, Murat I, who ruled between 1359 and 1389, had established his main policy to expand the empire to the Balkans. However, the Ottoman Empire did not have a strong enough army to achieve his aim at that time. He took measures to strengthen the navy and to train mariners, and until this was accomplished, he took measures to protect the Dardanelles. The small navy was situated at the Gulf of İzmit and was soon moved to Gallipoli. During this time the Ottomans were granting trade privileges to Genoese and Venetians in order to make up for the Ottoman naval inadequacy. After Murat I, in 1389, Bayezid I came to the throne and started to build a naval yard in Gallipoli. (Mütercimler, İmparatorluğun Çöküşüne Denizden Bakış, 27) The construction began in 1390 by repairing fortresses, cleaning the artificial harbor, as well as building two towers at the entrance of the harbor which could be closed by a chain. With the establishment of ship building facilities,

storages, fountains near the harbor to meet ships' needs, bakeries and gunpowder factories, Gallipoli became a fully equipped government naval yard. Despite the establishment of a naval yard in Constantinople after its conquest, the Gallipoli naval yard continued to be the main naval yard of the empire until the end of Sultan Yavuz Selim's reign. (Bostan, Osmanlı Bahriye Teşkilatı: XVII. Yüzyılda Tersane-i Amire 14-15) After taking over the navies of several principalities like Germiyan, Saruhan, Aydın and Menteşe, the Ottoman navy became much capable. The navy at the Gallipoli base, which was composed of sixty ships, attacked the Aegean islands and proved its power there in 1391. (Mütercimler, İmparatorluğun Çöküşüne Denizden Bakış, 27)

When the Ottomans had seized Gallipoli, they started the conquest of Thrace. As they were expanding towards the Balkans, they were also developing new policies to strengthen their naval power. Gallipoli provided them a safe passage from Anatolia to Thrace; therefore they had to keep enough ships in order to transport the army. As the Venetian and the Genoese were big threats, the Ottomans established a naval arsenal to establish their navy in Gallipoli. Bayezid established Gallipoli as a naval base and appointed Saruca Pasha as 'kapudan-ı derya'. Gallipoli became a port which could house many boats, serve as a shipyard, and meet many other needs for the ships. The Straits were announced to be under Ottoman control and the ships that passed the Straits were to be checked by the Ottomans. The Ottoman navy had sixty ships then. (Bostan 14-15)

Simeon (the Pole), who came to visit Gallipoli at the beginning of the sixteenth century, wrote that the ships and boats which were to go on an expedition or conquest gathered at Gallipoli. After finishing their preparations there, they left for their journey. (Bostan, Osmanlı Bahriye Teşkilatı: XVII. Yüzyılda Tersane-i Amire, 15)

It is possible to follow some of the activities of the Gallipoli naval yard by looking at records known as *harc-ı hassa defterleri* (imperial records of expenditures) which were kept

at the end of fifteenth century. According to these records, between the years of 1496 and 1497, 52% of all the costs of Gallipoli naval yard consisted of shipbuilding expenses. This reveals that at the end of fifteenth century, Gallipoli was a very active naval yard. (Bostan, Osmanlı Bahriye Teşkilatı: XVII. Yüzyılda Tersane-i Amire16-17)

During the preparations of Mehmed II's conquest of Constantinople, Gallipoli played an important role. The old ships were repaired, and new ships were built. The ships which numbered around four hundred played an important role in the conquest, if not a vital one. The conquest of Constantinople, led to new policies of naval protection of the city. The Ottomans made naval expeditions both to the Black Sea and the Aegean. (Bostan, 17-19)

Gallipoli was an important naval post for an empire which had İstanbul as its center. Being situated on an important passage between Thrace and Anatolia, it preserved its commercial and military importance after its conquest by the Ottomans. Gallipoli was not only the gateway to the Balkans, but it was also the preparation post of the Ottoman navy. (Bostan 33)

Between the years 1453 and 1841 the Ottoman Sultan had the right to determine the rules of passage from the Dardanelles of other states. There was no shipbuilding in the records by 1530s as İstanbul became the main naval yard. In the following years, ships were built according to need. In the last quarter of the eighteenth century, the Gallipoli naval yard was totally ruined, due to earthquakes; its stones were used for buildings by the locals was also recorded. (Bostan, Osmanlı Bahriye Teşkilatı: XVII. Yüzyılda Tersane-i Amire16-17)

Starting from the sixteenth century Gallipoli lost its importance as a naval arsenal, and at the last quarter of the eighteenth century, the arsenal was in ruins especially after the earthquakes. (Bostan 43) Until 1774, no merchant or military ship of other states could pass from the straits besides the countries that had special permissions by capitulations. Russia

earned the right to pass for her merchant ships in 1774. This meant the end of unlimited Turkish power on the straits. (Tuncoku 7

1.2-Turkey's Entrance to the War

It was easy to predict that Britain and her allies were going on war with Turkey and Germany. Since the Crimean War (1854-56), Britain's main effort was to prevent the disintegration of the Ottoman Empire, not to let other states, especially Russia to take a piece from it which would result in Russia's entrance from the Black Sea to the Bosphorous and Dardanelles (Carver 1).

The Turkish rule was dissolving in the Balkans after the Congress of Berlin in 1878. Also in 1898, after a war with Greece, Turkey had to remove her troops from Crete, some Aegean islands and almost all of Thessaly. After five years, this was followed by a rebellion of Macedonia against Turkish rule. These events lead the Ottoman Empire to disintegrate which caused restlessness among young Turkish men who were influenced by Western education. In 1869, the Committee of Union and Progress was founded by students of the military school of medicine and similar colleges, which later became the Young Turk movement. Some members were serving in Salonika, where control and censorship was less strict than Constantinople and Mustafa Kemal was one of them. Among their leaders were army generals such as Enver Pasha and Cemal Pasha and Talat Bey, a postal official; recorded that "Provoked by the news of an Anglo-Russian Entente sealed by King Edward VII's meeting with the Tsar in June 1908, they spearheaded a revolt in Salonika at the beginning of July." (Carver 2) This event was followed with a military coup in April which resulted with Young Turks replacing the Sultan with his brother Reşad, who took the title Mehmed V. (Carver 2) The Young Turks wanted to save the national prestige by modernizing the old

political and economic system which was gradually decreasing after a century of degeneracy, defeat, and humiliation. (Howard 51)

The Young Turks took control on 23 January 1913 and put an end to constitutional government. They realized that they needed foreign support to modernize their country. (Carver 3) Russia was enemy for a long time, but Talat was willing to approach her in this regard. Cemal Pasha, who was the Navy Minister favored France and Enver Pasha, the War Minister favored Germany, and Cavit Pasha favored Britain. Winston Churchill encouraged Cavit Pasha with his visits to Constantinople in 1909 when he was president of the Board of Trade and in 1911 as the First Lord of Admiralty. When Turkey wanted to sign a permanent treaty with Britain, Churchill was in favor, but Foreign Secretary, Sir Edward Grey opposed it. (Carver 4) Churchill was actually rejected twice in his efforts to establish a closer Anglo-Turkish relationship. His representative in Constantinople, Rear-Admiral Limpus who was helping the Turks since 1912 in building Dardanelles defenses had been using his influence since the beginning of August 1914 to prevent Turkey from taking Germany's side (Gilbert 14).

In 1913, seventy officers of German military under the command of General Otto Liman von Sanders came to Constantinople to reorganize and train the Turkish army. There were a total of 150-200,000 men in the army, which formed thirty-six divisions and were capable of increasing to 800,000 men on mobilization. The army was divided into four parts to fight on the different fronts of Thrace and Anatolia, Kurdistan, Cilicia and Syria and Mesopotamia. Liman von Sanders was appointed as commander of Thrace and Anatolia Corps and after Russia's objection, he became Inspector-General and he served as a field marshal in the army. (Carver 4) At the beginning of 1914, the German military aid came with all of its power. German officers, technicians, and trainers came, taking in charge of

ammunition factories in İstanbul as well as the batteries of İstanbul and the Dardanelles Straits. (Moorehead 17)

At the same time, Britain was training the Turkish Navy under the command of Rear Admiral Arthur Limpus. After the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand by a Serbian nationalist Gavrilo Princip, Germany already had good relations with Turkey. When Austria declared war on Serbia on 28 July 1914, Churchill took action vis-à-vis Turkey. This action was to determine the future of Turkish-British relationship during the war. There were two dreadnought ships built in Britain for Turkey. These dreadnoughts were paid with public funds in Turkey to be used to take the Aegean and Dodecanese islands back from Greece and Italy. When these ships were ready to go to Turkey, Churchill raised the possibility of requisitioning them. (Carver 5)

The Turks had tried three times in 1908, 1911 and 1913 to sign an agreement with Britain. With the last one, in June 1913, Turkey offered Britain a defensive alliance. But Turkey was too weak and risky as an ally to Britain. (Strachan 663) The decisive point of the Anglo-Turkish relations was after the event of German battle cruiser Goeben and her escort light cruiser Breslau. These ships had been in the Mediterranean since 1912 and their duty was to attack the ships which were transporting troops from North Africa to France. Goeben and Breslau were ordered to come to Constantinople and, with pressure from the German mission which was stationed there; Enver gave the order for them to pass through the Dardanelles. When they arrived in Constantinople, there were arguments among the Turkish government officials who favored Germany and who did not. Even though the Turkish government claimed that they had bought the ships to replace the ones Britain had confiscated, Britain, France, and Russia offered a guarantee to Turkey's independence and integrity if they let the German ships go and opened the straits to merchant ships. Otherwise, these ships were going to be regarded as enemy ships and fired upon when encountered. On

27 September 1914, the British naval mission was withdrawn from Constantinople as the Turks did not reply to this offer. Enver was pro-German and his belief in Germany became stronger as the Germans were winning over France and Russia at that time. (Carver 6) The Germans were now in charge of both the Turkish military and the navy. Another event which led to a problem between the Turkish and the British was an Ottoman torpedo boat which was stopped by British boats at the entrance of the Dardanelles. When the British found out that there were also German soldiers in the boat, they forced the boat to return back from the straits. Weber Pasha, the German commander of Çanakkale units, took the decision to close the straits. New mines were placed and warnings which indicated that the straits were closed were hung on the slopes. This was the most daring decision that was ever taken by the Germans. Both İstanbul and Dardanelles Straits were run by international alliances and any interference against these was considered as a declaration of war. (Moorehead 23-24) As the Goeben passed through the straits (which were closed to Britain), the war was declared on 31 October, 1914. (Hart 1)

The Dardanelles campaign was mostly a personal scheme planned by Winston Churchill, then First Lord of the Admiralty, which he had to force on the skeptical Cabinet. During the previous century, British warships often came to the Straits to support Turkey against Russia. They have even passed the Straits to warn Russia, and entered the Sea of Marmara, without the Sultan inviting them. The Admiralty had decided already by 1896 that if there was going to be a future war with Turkey, the Straits should not be forced only by the warships, but with support of the army. However in January 1915, the War Council had decided that the navy should force the straits without the support of the army. The Admiralty was told to be ready for a naval expedition to Gallipoli in February. The objective was to pass the Dardanelles and reach Constantinople to defeat Turkey and help Russia. This was a complete reversal of the pattern of nineteenth-century alliances of Britain. (Clayton 221-222)

As the Royal Navy had recently started to convert from coal to oil-burning ships, the oil refineries at Basra were attractive to her. Britain could turn her occupation of Egypt into full protectorate. Britain was so self confident that she promised Constantinople to Russia. (Howard 53)

For Britain, the defeat of the Ottoman Empire was a very important goal as it meant control over the Balkans as well as access to agricultural resources of Russia. However, the Straits were not easy to conquer with the narrows and strong currents. (Hart 1) Initially, Britain had wanted to keep the Ottoman Empire neutral. Her nominal sovereignty over Egypt and loyalty of Muslims in India to the Turkish Caliphate were her two considerations. However, by December 1914, Britain had to make up her mind as the Ottoman Empire, under German control, was a threat to British security. In addition, Russia was desperate for help. Success against the Ottoman Empire would insure the existence the Eastern Front as well as to secure the Middle East. Overall, this success would end the German-Ottoman moves against Suez Canal and towards the Gulf as well as opening a supply route to Russia. In addition, this could impress the Balkan states which could lead to an alliance of Bulgaria, Rumania, and Greece, with Serbia, against Austria-Hungary. (Clayton 222-223) In London, the discussion about an operation to the Ottoman Empire had started. British Minister of War, Lord Kitchener, and First Lord of the Ministry of Naval Forces, Winston Churchill were talking about convincing the Greeks to make a landing at the Gallipoli Peninsula. This would open them the way to İstanbul; however, the Greeks changed their mind. (Moorehead 28)

When the French learned about Britain's intention of sending military forces to Dardanelles, they were not very enthusiastic about it. They believed that the Western front was their main priority. However, they feared that if French troops did not join the British, it could lead Britain to establish herself in the Levant. The French formed a new division very

quickly called Corps Expéditionnaire d'Orient which consisted of Europeans, French colonials, Foreign Legionnaires and Senegalese.(Cassar 71-78)

The Commander of the Russian army Grand Duke Nicholas had requested Britain to make either a naval or a land operation in the Ottoman Empire, which could result in the Ottoman Empire's withdrawal from the Caucasus. Kitchener sent a letter to Churchill which claimed that the Dardanelles was the best place for such an operation. The First Lord of the Navy, Lord Fisher believed that an operation on the Dardanelles could succeed if it took place immediately. Kitchener stated that he could not provide a single soldier from the Western front which meant that there could not be any reinforcements from the British Army in France. An operation against the Ottoman Empire should only be naval. (Moorehead 29-30) The campaign was launched in a cloud and with indecision as well as a lack of real commitment. Fisher turned against it and Kitchener played an indeterminate role. (Clayton 223)

According to Britain, once the Dardanelles were passed, it would be easy to capture İstanbul as there were two ordinance plants in the Ottoman Empire which were situated on the shores of İstanbul and this made them easy targets. Also, İstanbul was the center of commerce, military, and politics as well as the transportation of the Ottoman Empire. The fall of İstanbul meant the fall of the Ottoman Empire in that sense. Britain started her preparations for this operation. Ships from as far as China were ordered to go to the Mediterranean and the whole armada was expected to be in the Aegean, at the island of Lemnos, by the end of February. Final approval of the War Council was the only thing that as left to start the operation. (Moorehead 34-35)

Enver believed that the Ottoman Empire could recover the territories that she had lost by fighting on the side of Germany which was foreseen as the victor. Finally, when Germany paid two million Turkish pounds to support Turkish armed forces on 17 October 1914, Enver

was totally convinced. Talat and Halil Bey suggested that they should still be neutral after accepting the money. Enver planned a conspiracy plan with the German Ambassador Wangenheim and Admiral Souchon, without his colleagues' consent. According to this conspiracy, the German ships Goeben and Breslau would attack the Russian ships in the Black Sea by claiming the Russians attacked first. Admiral Souchon went further with this plan and started to bomb the ports of Odessa, Sebastopol, and Feodosia on 27 October 1914 to force the Ottomans to join the war. Three days after this event, British and French ambassadors left Turkey and Turkey declared war on 31 October 1914 which was followed by Russia, Britain, and France. When Turkey joined the war, Talat remained in Constantinople, Enver went to the Caucasus to fight the Russians, and Cemal went to be the Governor and the Commander-in-Chief in Syria. (Carver 7)

1.2- The World War I

The Dardanelles had been fortified through the history since the Trojan War. The Ottomans had been fortifying the region since the 1400's. The fortifications dating back to the 1600's can still be seen on the Asiatic shore at Kumkale and on the European shore at Seddülbahir. (Erickson, "Military History", 985) In the late nineteenth century, the fortifications were modernized with concrete and earth indented gun positions were built on both sides of the straits. Until 1913, the Çanakkale Straits Forces and Fortification Command directed these installations. In the winter of 1912-13, during the First Balkan War, this command was given a full workout. As the Ottoman Army was reorganized in 1913-14, the Straits command was renamed as the Çanakkale Fortified Command. The new defensive planning was based on the plan developed in 1912, and also a larger defensive area was included in the plan and reinforcement of the command by the Ottoman Army's III Corps was also included. When Greek warships off the mouth of the Dardanelles were seen at 11.45 a.m.

on 31 July, 1914, the Ottoman Ministry of War issued an order to the fortress commander to be prepared for the war. Full mobilization of the fortress was ordered on 3 August 1914 although they entered the war in early November. By 27 August 1914, the heavy artillery regiments were already at war and III Corps' 9th Infantry Division began to move toward the peninsula. On the 4 November 1914, the 7th Infantry Division as well as the III Corps had taken their position. When the Royal Navy Bombardment took place on 3 November 1915, Turks already had strong defenses that they had been preparing for three months. There were also 500 coastal defense specialists, including a vice admiral, sent by the Germans to help the Turks in building defenses. The Çanakkale Fortified Command was organized into the 2nd Artillery Brigade at 14 permanent forts. Three regiments were assigned to the brigade: 3rd, 4th, and 5th Heavy Artillery Regiments. (Erickson 164) "In spite of these preparations, the defense of the Dardanelles remained weak due to the poor condition of the fortifications, the antiquity of many of the cannons, the scarcity of ammunition and supplies, and the lack of good coordination between the Fortress Command and the corps headquarters." (Erickson, "Military History", 991)

The Dardanelles were partly closed on 3 August 1914 and totally closed to war ships. One day later, the first line of mines started to be laid. On 6 August 1914 there was a second line of mines laid. On 10 August 1914, Goeben and Breslau passed from the Dardanelles. (Göncü and Aldoğan 15)

Ten days after the Goeben and Breslau had passed the Dardanelles, the Greek Prime Minister, Eleutherios Venizelos, was offered to join Britain, France and Russia. Russia asked him if Greece could land an army on the Gallipoli peninsula while the Russians attacked there. (Carver 14) Venizelos had demanded a very high price for Greek support; Constantinople, which had already been promised by Britain to Russia. (Howard 55)

> On 31 August Churchill discussed the possibility of an attack on Turkey with Kitchener and wrote the next day to the chief of the Imperial General

> Staff, Lieutenant Sir James Wolfe Murray, suggesting that the War Office and Admiralty should together work out a plan to seize the peninsula, using a Greek army in order to open the straits to enable a British fleet to enter the Sea of Marmara. (Carver 14)

The Dardanelles were totally closed to the outside world by 27 September 1914. On the following days, there were activities of inspection and exploration, preparing the batteries which were removed from the ships and taking precautions against submarines took place. (Göncü and Aldoğan 16) The Ottoman Navy was very weak. Besides Goeben and Breslau, the Ottoman navy consisted of three old battleships, two cruisers, two torpedo cruisers, eight destroyers, ten torpedo boats, and seven mine boats. (Aspinall-Oglander 40)

There were different opinions in Britain about how to conduct the war in general and which front to stress. After Russia's demand for help against Enver in the Caucasus, Kitchener and Churchill decided for a naval action in the Dardanelles. The Admiral of the Fleet, Sir John Fisher, who was the First Sea Lord agreed with the naval attack on the Dardanelles. (Carver 15)

Major General Charles Callwell who was the Director of Military Operations and Intelligence believed that there should be 60,000 troops to overcome the Ottoman forces which would be around 27,000. Britain told Greece before that if the Ottoman Empire joined Germany and Austria-Hungary, Greece could join the Entente and with Britain they could attack the Gallipoli peninsula. The plan was to land the 60,000 men on the west coast south of Kabatepe and to move to southern tip of Cape Helles. After clearing the Ottoman troops from the western shores of the straits, they would start to clean the mines. On the east side of the entrance of Kumkale, there would be a small landing which would be followed by a landing of 30,000 men near Bolayır to cut the neck of the peninsula. The Ottoman Empire declared war on 31 October 1914 and completed mining the Straits on 2 November 1914. (Carver 14)

1.3.1- The Naval War

On 3 November 1914, Churchill had sent the Eastern Mediterranean Squadron of the Royal Navy to bombard the forts at the entrance of the Dardanelles in response to the Ottoman Empire's declaration of war. (Keegan 236) The squadron which was commanded by Vice Admiral Sackville Carden, started to bomb the Turkish forts of the straits on both sides at Seddülbahir and Kumkale. (Carver 14-15) This operation took place with two French ships under Churchill's instructions. This bombing lasted for 10 minutes and a shot at Seddülbahir destroyed almost all its heavy guns. This bombardment was later seen as wrong as it drew the Ottomans' attention to the strategic importance of the Dardanelles forts. (Gilbert 17). This led the Ottomans to improve their fortifications with the help of Germans. (Hart 2)

After the bombing of 3 November 1914, there was not a significant event in the Dardanelles except the Ottoman battleship Mesudiye being hit. Mesudiye was a forty year old ship which was brought the Dardanelles to be used as a floating battery and was moored at Sarısığlar Bay. On the day of 13 December 1914, Mesudiye was hit by British submarine B11. There were 24 casualties. (Apuhan, 25)

The commanders of the Allies were: The Commander of the Eastern Mediterranean Squadron Vice Admiral Carden, the Assistant Commander of The Eastern Mediterranean Squadron Vice Admiral John de Robeck, the Commander of the first British fleet Rear Admiral Thursby, the Commander of the second British fleet Colonel Hayes-Sadler, the commander of the third British fleet Rear Admiral Wemyss, the commander of the French fleet Rear Admiral Guepratte, flotilla commander Lieutenant Colonel Courtois, commander of the mine sweepers Captain Blanc. (Ali, 22)

Hill has categorized the naval operations in three phases:

1- The bombardment of the Narrows in November 1914.

2- Bombardment in the Straits in March 1915

3- Naval gunfire support of troops ashore on the peninsula.

After the bombardment, there was a long period of calmness in the region. For the Allies, this time passed with the discussion of how the attack on the Dardanelles must be undertaken by the Allies; and defense preparations by the Ottomans. The Ottomans started to bring various guns. The Dardanelles and the Marmara Sea was observed by submarines. When Liman Von Sanders came to the region on January 15 1915, he inspected the first land batteries which were placed and he also visited the fortress of Seddülbahir. On the same day at 13.00, the French submarine Sapphire was hit and sank. New military staff and batteries kept on being transported to the region. (Arıkoğlu 154)

The First Sea Lord, Admiral Fisher, urged a joint military and naval attack on the Ottoman Empire on January 3 1914. (Keegan 237) Fisher believed that the attack on the Dardanelles should immediately take place and he made a plan of eight different military operations. What he wanted was a combined military and naval operation as well as a Grand Alliance of the Balkan states. Churchill believed that such a big alliance was not realistic. (Gilbert 20-21)

Kitchener believed that the only alternative outside the Western Front was an attack on the Dardanelles with the assistance of the fleet. If the Dardanelles could be passed, communication with Russia would be reassured, the Near Eastern problem could be solved, and Greece, Bulgaria, and Romania could join them. (Gilbert 23)

Churchill and his advisers believed that the Royal Navy could destroy the Ottoman Empire easily, which would relieve Russia and turn the Balkan states against the Central Powers, which would finally bring an end to the war. The Admiralty War Group wanted to use the ships which were launched before 1906, when the first of the new Dreadnought class was launched. (Macleod 25)

> The pre-Dreadnought battleships sent to the Dardanelles by 18 March 1915 were Majestic (launched in 1895), Prince George (1896), Canopus (1899),

> Ocean (1900), Irresistible and Vengeance (1901), Cornwallis, Swiftsure and Triumph (1904). Also sent were Agamemnon, Inflexible, and Lord Nelson (all launched in 1908), all of pre-Dreadnought design. (Gilbert 26)

When the German navy was defeated outside the German waters at the Falkland Islands there was a release of a large number of ships that could be used by Britain. Fisher said that in addition to the old ships the newest and most powerful ship of the fleet, the Queen Elisabeth, should also be used in the Dardanelles. The 15 inch gun of the Queen Elisabeth could be tested on the Ottoman forts. (Gilbert 26)

As the planning of the naval attack continued, Vice-Admiral Oliver completed the list of ships that would be used at the Dardanelles. Canopus had left South America and was approaching Cape St Vincent, Albion had left St. Helena, Triumph was taking on supplies in Colombo, Ocean, and Swiftsure were in Egypt. Rear-Admiral de Robeck, Carden's second in command was in Gibraltar, waiting for the arrival of his flagship, Inflexible. The ships that belonged to the British Navy from all over the world were getting prepared. (Gilbert 29)

On 16 February 1915, the War Council decided to send the 29th Division to the Lemnos Island which Greece had taken from the Ottoman Empire in 1912 and which was situated forty miles west of Cape Helles. Two days later, the Royal Naval Division was also sent there. A division of French and North African troops, Corps Expéditionnaire d'orient were to join them to support the naval operation by small scale landings. (Carver 17) The Admiralty began to believe that a naval attack alone would not be enough and there could be need for the army's support for a successful campaign. At the War Council on 19 February 1915, Kitchener said that he could not allow 29th Division to go to the Dardanelles which was opposed by Churchill, Lloyd George, Grey, Balfour, and Asquith. (Gilbert 32-33) Kitchener finally decided that troops which reached to the number of 10,000 men and which were already in the eastern Mediterranean should get together and be ready and be prepared for the outcome of the naval attack. (Gilbert 35)

Vice Admiral Carden gave the final orders of the naval attack on February 14th 1915, which outlined seven main phases for the Eastern Mediterranean Squadron from Aegean to Marmara Sea. The first phase was to reduce the outer defenses by shooting with long range guns from the ships. This would continue with moving into closer range giving them an opportunity to continue bombing with secondary armament. (Hart 3)

The fleet collected by the Allies was the biggest naval force that was ever seen in the Mediterranean. In addition to the dreadnoughts, destroyers, mine sweepers, and some other boats, fourteen warships, two pre-dreadnoughts (Lord Nelson and Agamemnon), one ironclad (Inflexible) and the brand new Queen Elisabeth were among them. The French flotilla under the command of Admiral Guépratte contained four war ships and boats for assistance. Despite the fact that most of the ships were out of date, they were still prevailing when compared to the Turkish defenses on the land. The Queen Elisabeth was especially intimidating with her 15 inch batteries. It was possible for the Navy to hit the Turkish batteries without entering the Straits, but it was ambiguous how precise these bombings would be to in hitting the targets. (Moorehead 46)

The planned attack started before 10.00 on February 19, 1915. The first ship which opened fire was the battleship HMS Cornwallis. The long range bombardments started successfully, but the Turkish gunners were waiting for them to approach and started firing. This phase of attack was planned by Carden to be finished by the next day, but it had to be delayed because of the weather. This gave the Turks the opportunity to repair the damages. The outer forts were finally silenced on 25 February and were abandoned by the Turks. The entrance to the Straits was swept of mines and Royal Marine demolition parties landed to destroy the rest of the guns. (Hart 4)

Commander of the sea mines group Major Nazmi Bey wrote in his diary about 19 February 1915: "At 08.45 the navy of the enemy started to bomb the entrance to the

Dardanelles. At 13.30 they stopped shooting and restarted forty-five minutes later until 17.15. We shot back from our fortresses with some hits at the ships. We had eighty three martyrs." (Binbaşı Nazmi Bey, 39)

On February 26 1915, the second phase of Carden's plan started which was to sweep off the minefield at the entrance of the Straits and reduction of the Intermediate Defenses. The ships which had been firing at the forts at the entrance of the Straits turned their guns to the forts along the shore between there and Kepez Point. (Hart 5) In the early morning of 26 February 1915, Albion had bombarded Seddülbahir for a while. (Arıkoğlu 164) But, there were hidden mobile guns along the shore and they kept on firing through the first ten days of March despite the shootings aimed at them from the ships. A new tactic was started by 5th of March 1915. The Queen Elisabeth was stationed off Kabatepe and started bombing forts and their unprotected rear areas around Çanakkale. The Royal Air Service (RNAS) proved ineffective due to mechanical problems as well as not being able to reach to enough altitude to shoot. Bombings from huge 15 inch shells of Queen Elisabeth caused significant damage and the operations were carried on the following day. However, Queen Elisabeth had to move away from the coast as a Turkish battery opened fire on her. The next day, this operation proved unsuccessful as the Turkish guns regularly caused damage to the ships and their crews. These damages were generally not huge, but sometimes effective as the howitzer shells were able to spot vulnerable points on the ships. (Hart 5) There were also difficulties in the mine sweeping operations both because of firings from the shores as well as the strong current. (Hart 6) Another problem about minesweeping was the usage of civilians; defenseless North Sea trawlers were used repeatedly without changing any tactics even after their failure. (Hill 171)

March had started with bad weather. Albion, Triumph, Ocean, and Majestic bombarded the rear of Kumkale and Seddülbahir on 1 March 1915. On 4th of March 1915,

Ocean, Lord Nelson, and Majestic bombarded Seddülbahir. The battalion, which disembarked on Seddülbahir, had to go back due to strong resistance with one dead and three wounded. (Arıkoğlu 164-167)

On 3 March 1915, the Turks did not fire at minesweepers, but Carden was using three battleships out of eighteen as he was becoming more worried about the hidden batteries of the Turks. He believed that the hidden batteries made minesweeping impossible, and this prevented the Navy to move in to bomb the inner forts. The solution he proposed was to land the army on shore to clear the hidden guns. Carden started to look for help. The Queen Elisabeth proved only partially successful with her long range indirect fire. The landing of Marines at Seddülbahir and Kumkale on 4 March to deal with the guns and the fortresses met with strong resistance from the Turks and they had to be re-embarked. However, there were later landings the next few days which became successful as they destroyed most of the guns of Seddülbahir, Kumkale and Fort 4. Carden wrote a letter to Churchill on 10 March about the difficulty that they were facing with mobile guns and they needed air support to spot these guns and destroy them. Churchill believed that the operation should gain speed and Carden should start taking risks such as landing parties to destroy guns, continue with minesweeping and ships should approach the forts to shoot their targets. (Travers 26-27)

There was a second meeting the next day called by Carden, which set forth an operation which should not be rushed but a concentrated attack on the guns and forts which had been protecting the minefield to be able to sweep the mines. Landing at Seddülbahir and Kumkale Forts would also be beneficial. The plan was circulated among the fleet on March 15th 1915. (Hart 8)

The attack on 18th of March was very different from any other attacks in both of the world wars as it contained a feeling of adventure for the Allied soldiers. The ones who were present in the attack do not recall that day as dreadful, but as the most important day of their

lives. They were proud to be there and to risk their lives. The most important naval wars of the century were fought in the open sea and the area of war could never been observed as a whole. However, in Çanakkale, the land was nearby and from a hill or deck of a boat, an observer could see every detail of the war which was changing every hour. Even at night, the surface of the sea was lit up. Another significance of this war was it was between land and sea, there were no Ottoman or German ships at the area, neither side could use planes efficiently, and there were no surprises. Both sides knew the forces of each other in terms of bombs, ships, and mines. All the fighting took place within a one mile width and four miles long water way in front of Kilitbahir. If the Ottomans lost this tiny piece of water, it meant the loss of war. (Moorehead 52-53)

Carden was overwhelmed by these events and was on sick leave and on March 17th 1915, De Robeck took the command of the Eastern Mediterranean Squadron as the Vice Admiral. On the 18th of March 1915, the operation began by dividing the fleet into three lines of attack: A, B and C. Line A consisted of more modern ships (Figure 2) Queen Elisabeth, Agamemnon, the battleship HMS Lord Nelson and the battle cruiser HMS Inflexible. This would be the first line to proceed into Erenköy Bay, to be positioned 14,000 yards from the forts of Kilitbahir and Çanakkale. The second line, Line B consisted of the French battleship Gaulois, Charlemagne, Bouvet, and Suffren would proceed as soon as Line A became effective and pass them while aiming at the same targets as close as 8000 yards. The ships of Prince George and Triumph were going to cover the contours of Lines A and B aiming at the forts of the Intermediate Defenses as well as the mobile guns of both shores. The remaining ships were Vengeance, Irresistible, Albion, and the battleship HMS Ocean. These were to form the Line C to assist and form a new Line B. Also, HMS Majestic and HMS Swiftsure were to replace flank guards when necessary. (Hart 9) There were a total of eighteen

battleships and their armada of cruisers, destroyers, and minesweepers steamed through the eaters of the Straits. (Broadbent 33)

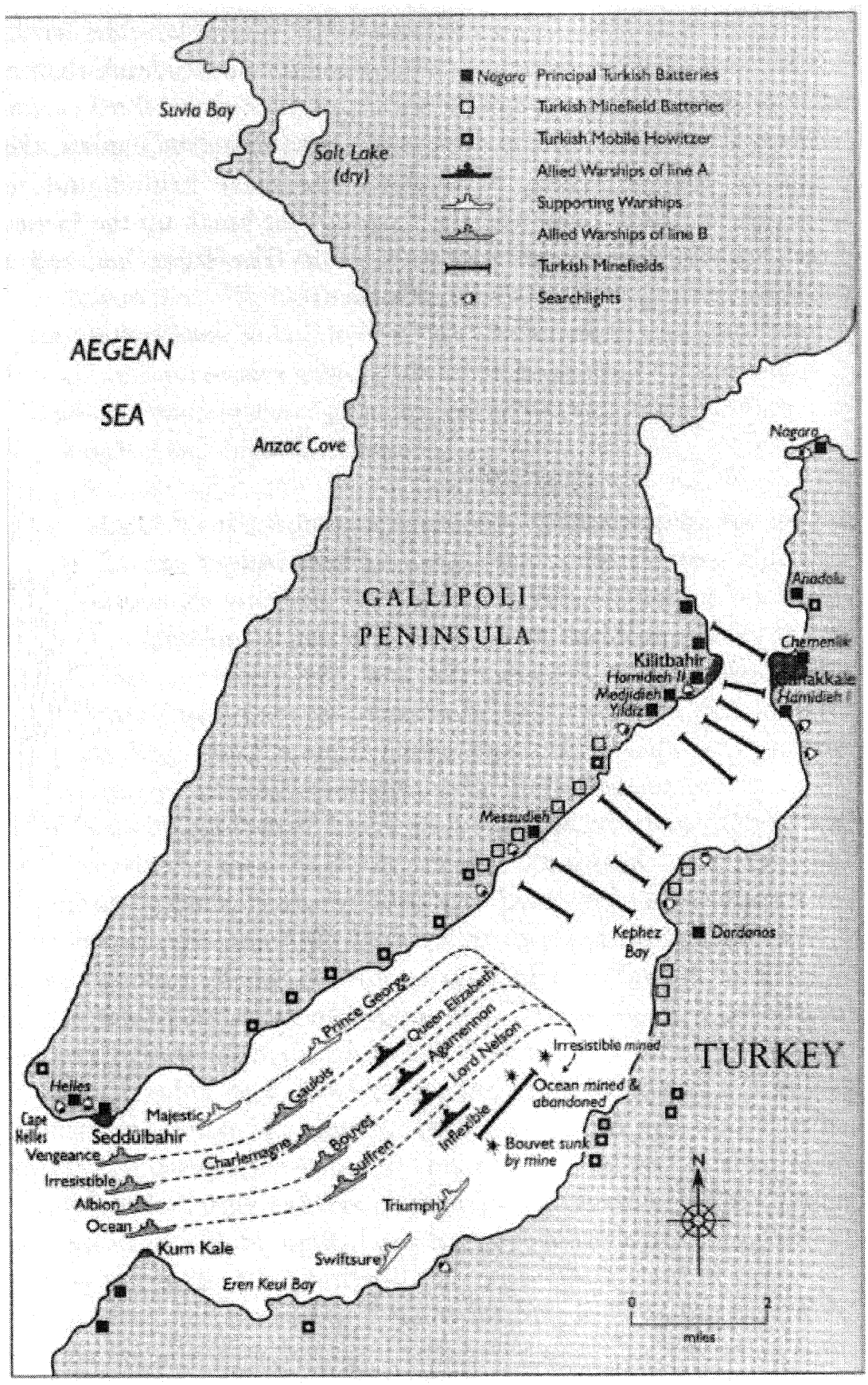


Fig.2 The Naval Attack

The Ottoman Defenses were strong. The six main forts of the Narrows were known to contain 42 guns of at least 8 inch caliber, including six of 14 inches. The number of mobile guns had increased since the beginning of the naval bombardments. With the help of the bombardment of the ships, the Allies planned to start the mine sweeping after two hours. (Hart 9)

The Dardanelles were cleared of mines by the morning of March 18th and the fleet could make its move. However, on March 8th 1915, Nusrat, the Turkish minelayer had laid a new line of 20 moored mines which was parallel to Erenköy Bay. In the morning, at 10.30 Line A proceeded through the Dardanelles. In the front were the picket boats and the Chelmer and a second destroyer HMS Colne which had a light mine sweeping gear to do a final check. The battleships took their firing positions. (Hart 9)

They were under howitzer and light artillery fire which was not effective. By 11.30, fire was opened at the forts; Queen Elisabeth fired at the forts of the Asian side, and Agamemnon, Lord Nelson and Inflexible on the European side. Even though the ships fired well, the forts kept on holding their fire. The bombardment proved to be effective especially after a huge explosion in the Çanakkale Fort. By 12.06, De Robeck ordered Line B to pass through Line A to start closer bombardment of the forts. Concealed Turkish batteries began to shoot at British ships as the French ships moved forward. Agamemnon and HMS Inflexible had been hit and the Inflexible temporarily fell out of line. (Hart 10)

Hamilton tells about Inflexible being hit in his book Gelibolu Hatıraları 1915:

> Inflexible dreadnought which was 200-250 meters away from us was slowly moving away from the Straits. It got shot on its mast, destroying the radio with the mast, and had holes from shrapnel shots. After a sudden explosion, Inflexible leaned on a 45 degree angle. The water pumps were trying to empty the water that she was taking in to stop her sinking. Finally the whole crew gathered on the deck waiting for the order to leave the ship. As it was the first ship that was lost many other dreadnoughts and destroyers came to her help. And suddenly they had to move to help Gaulois. (Hamilton 31-34)

The French ships of the Line B got as close to the shore as 10,000 yards. They were shooting at their targets of Turkish forts and the Turks were shooting back. De Robeck ordered the minesweepers to open the way for the ships to approach further at 13.45. The British ships in reserve were also to approach to help the French of Line B. As they started to approach, the bombardment from the Turkish forts got more intense, and Bouvet was hit and sank. The British ships continued to approach and replaced the French line as well as the two British flank guards which headed the attack. The firing continued from both sides. (Hart 10) There were 21 who could be rescued from Bouvet out of 700. (Apuhan 59)

The Allied trawlers had moved in front of Line A to sweep mines. Three exploded in the area which was considered clear. De Robeck was not informed about these mines which were probably laid on March 8th, until the next day. Inflexible ran into a mine at 16.11 in Erenköy which was unswept and was severely damaged on her starboard bow. After three minutes the Irresistible also struck a mine. (Hart 12)

The Captain of the Ocean, Arthur Hayes- Sadler was ordered to tow the Irresistible as Albion tried to cover the fire. The destroyer HMS Wear provided assistance and took 28 officers and 582 crew on board as the captain and a few volunteers remained aboard to assist in towing of the ship. After unloading the rescued crew to Queen Elisabeth, Wear reported to De Robeck that the damage was done by a mine. Therefore Line B was ordered to withdraw from the Dardanelles to eliminate further threats. Keyes was to accompany Wear back to Irresistible and he was to direct the captain of the Ocean to tow Irresistible as soon as possible. Irresistible was under heavy fire from the forts of the Intermediate Defenses, when Wear came back. The rest of Line B was also withdrawing. The only chance of saving Irresistible was to pull her into the current down the Dardanelles as it was still drifting towards the Asian shore. (Hart 13)

When the Ocean began to withdraw, she was first struck by a mine at 18.05 and then hit by a heavy shell. As there was no chance for the Ocean, she was abandoned by 19.30 with the help of destroyers nearby. Keyes believed that both the Irresistible and the Ocean could be saved, however, when he came back to Dardanelles by HMS Jed to rescue these ships he saw that Irresistible and Ocean had already sunk. (Hart 14)

Meanwhile, the only obstacle between the Allied Fleet and the Sea of Marmara were the Turkish and German gunners who were using their final power. They defended their posts with success until 18th of March. The attack on the 18th of March was very intense and they used half of their ammunition in one day knowing that new supplies would not arrive so soon. They were wondering about how many days their ammunition was going last and if they will be able to hit the mine sweeping boats with light artillery left in their hands. Kilitbahir was in ruins as it was attacked from a plane. The town of Çanakkale of 16.000 became a ghost town in ruins. Also, the fortresses had received a lot of damage and the soldiers worked on repairing walls, telephone lines, fixing cannons etc. (Moorehead 65-66)

The attitude of the Turkish soldiers during the bombardment which lasted for seven hours was admirable. On the shores of the Gallipoli peninsula, the Turkish artillerymen in Kilitbahir were fighting with a religious fervor encouraged by prayers of the imams. The Germans on the shore across at Hamidiye redoubt were also fighting with courage. They were mostly the crew of the Goeben and Breslau. They were carrying their belongings with water buffalos and cattle in the lack of motor or horse carriages. The heavy cannon balls were placed at the top of the hills in order to deceive the enemy. The pipes to sprout black smoke with the firing of the cannons were also replaced in this sense. As a cannon fired, black smoke came from one of theses pipes which were replaced away from the cannons, to deceive the enemy about the spot of the cannon ball so it would not be a target. However, no matter how clever these tricks were they did not change the fact that they would soon run out of

ammunition. The Turkish side was sure that the Allied Fleet was going to attack the next day. They did not know about the worry that the loss of Bouvet, Irresistible, and Ocean had created on the other side. (Moorehead 66-67)

The British Navy has been always victorious during last two centuries, and had become an unbeatable force around the world. A bunch of old batteries at the Gallipoli peninsula was never considered as a serious threat. At the beginning of March, preparations to escape were taking place in İstanbul by the Turkish government. Government archives and gold in the banks had been transported to Eskişehir, valuable works of art were buried, at the Haydarpaşa train station which is on the Asian side of İstanbul. Two trains were made ready in case the Sultan and his retinue as well as foreign diplomats had to escape and wealthy people began to send their families to Anatolia. Even Talat Pasha was very hopeless and in early January he had already organized a meeting with Liman von Sanders and other generals which was concluded with the belief that an attack on the Gallipoli peninsula by the Allies would succeed. (Moorehead 62-63)

Despite all these disasters Keyes believed that the campaign was successful unlike the rest of the naval commanders. Among the other wounded ships, Inflexible was saved and ran aground at Tenedos. Gaulois which was badly hit had taken water in and was beached on one of the small islands in the area. Despite the belief of Keyes, 18 March was a defeat for the Allied Fleet. Three ships had sunk and three among sixteen capital ships no longer functioned. Bouvet, Ocean, and Irresistible were at the bottom of the sea. (Hart 15) Keyes was happy at that at least the lost ships were not in Turkish hands, but at the bottom of the sea. When he went to Queen Elisabeth to meet De Robeck, he saw that Admiral was furious and was almost sure that he would be relieved of duty due to the losses. Keyes told de Robeck that he was misinterpreting the situation. Keyes believed that Churchill was not going to lose his hope and would send reinforcements soon and support the Navy whenever needed. Except the 639 men

who had drowned in the Bouvet, the losses were very low: less than 70 in the whole fleet. The three ships which were lost were old ships. In a few hours, there was a message from the Naval Forces soothing De Robeck on his losses and encouraging him to continue the operation. The losses were going to be replaced immediately by new four war ships- the Queen, Implacable, London, and Prince of Wales. In addition, the French Naval Forces were going to send Henri IV to replace the Bouvet. (Moorehead 73-74)

The War Council decided on 19th of March 1915 that the attack could be repeated if the Admiral wanted to. At the same time, the Ministry of the Navy, ordered new ships to be sent to replace the ones which were lost on 18 March. An investigation council was gathered on Queen Elisabeth on March 19, which questioned the crew of the sunken ships. One of the crew rescued from Irresistible noted that he saw a torpedo mark on the ship right before the explosion. The ones who saw Bouvet sinking said that she was hit by a missile. (Mütercimler 214)

The French flotilla was seriously damaged. The Gaulois had to run ashore on Tavşan Island, Suffren was still taking water in. Water was pumped out of the Gaulois, enabling her to function again and was sent to Malta accompanied by Suffren, and the Inflexible had to be fixed. At the same time a new crew who was to sweep mines was also getting organized. 115 of the civilians from the mine sweeping boats were sent back to their countries. They were replaced by a voluntary crew from the Ocean and Irresistible. The materials which were needed were ordered from Malta. The Greek fishermen of Tenedos were put in charge of taking the destroyers with English soldiers back to the mine sweeping boats. Despite the strong waves, this operation was carried out the whole day. So, on 20 March 1915, De Robeck reported to Naval Forces that he had 50 English and 12 French mine sweeping boats all run by voluntaries which were going to be ready in few days. For the next attack there would be a steel net placed across the Straits to protect the boats from running into mines

drifting with the current. De Robeck was hoping that the new operation was going to start in three to four days. (Moorehead 75)

At the same time, under the command of Air Commodore Samson, a new air force was coming to the region. New planes created a sense of hope in finding the artillery hidden by the Turks. (Moorehead 75)

The War Council was gathered on 19 March 1915 with terrible news. The naval attack on the Straits had failed with the loss of two old battleships; Irresistible and Ocean and of the French battleship Bouvet. The Gaulois had run on shore, and the modern battle cruiser Inflexible was disabled, but was able to reach Malta to be repaired. However, the loss of life was small. The Council decided to leave the decision about continuing the attack to the man on the spot, as they did not have enough information to evaluate the situation at Gallipoli. Churchill was to inform the Commander-in-Chief that he should decide on whether he wanted to continue the operation or not. (Lord Hankey 292)

After the attack of 18 March 1915, Enver met Liman von Sanders and offered him to be the commander of Gallipoli forces. Liman accepted that he had no time to lose and took off for Gallipoli on 25 March 1915. He believed that defending the Gallipoli Peninsula was not a very difficult task. The fifty mile long peninsula extends into the Aegean Sea, and is very narrow in the north, 12 miles in the middle, and very narrow again at the edge at Cape Helles. The hills and shores of the peninsula were of great importance as the enemy would land on the shores and will try to move uphill. There were four important beaches: Bolayır on the neck of the peninsula, Suvla Bay in the middle, Arıburnu below and Cape Helles at the tip. The important hills were: Tekke Hill which drew a crescent around Suvla Bay, Sarıbayır right behind Arıburnu, and Ahibaba Hill on the north of Cape Helles which dominated the whole shore. The eastern shore of the Gallipoli Peninsula also had similar shores and hills, but Liman believed that the enemy would not land here as they would be within the range of

gunners on the Anatolian side. The most important point here was to estimate where the enemy would land first. (Moorehead 89)

Lord Fisher was the most important advocate of using land power at Gallipoli. He had written on a note that he sent to Lloyd George stating that without land forces, Gallipoli is a waste of effort. However, Naval Forces was not the institution to make this decision; it was under Kitchener's responsibility. Kitchener had been declaring that he had no extra soldiers for a land operation. Yet, he had soldiers from the 29th Division in England. (Moorehead 69)

On the other side, under the command of Liman von Sanders there was the 5th Army which was composed of six divisions. According to him dispersion of these divisions was dangerous because the enemy was going to face resistance everywhere, but there was not enough force anywhere to resist a forceful attack. He ordered to divisions to collect their soldiers together. (Moorehead 89)

The Turks were aware that the Allies were soon going to attack. They were informed about the purchases they were making from Greeks in preparation of the attack; newer planes were flying over the peninsula as well as the shadows of the ships which went back and forth in the sea. In the morning of 17 April 1915, right after dawn, the Turks noticed an English submarine above water. The submarine was drifting ashore due to the strong current and it was trying to reach Sea of Marmara while underwater. The Turkish guns pointed to the submarine and when the submarine hit the shore, its crew jumped into the sea while under fire. The following days Turks fought with the British to take over the submarine wreck and the fight ended with an English torpedo that destroyed the wreck. (Moorehead 91)

On 19 April, a Turkish force camping on the west side of the peninsula woke up with flying bullets. What they saw was a yellow balloon in the sky over the sea. They discovered that this balloon was Manica, one of the first English balloon ships and it was used to identify direction for cannons. The balloon was attached to a ship and two observers on top of it were

marking the places of the Turkish camps on their maps. One or two days later, the first airplane attack of the war targeted the town of Eceabat. Then there was another phase of silence. (Moorehead 92)

After the defeat of 18 March, there was a meeting on the Queen Elisabeth. The British Admiralty was going to order four pre dreadnoughts to replace the casualties. The Royal Navy was going to wait until the British Army captured Ahi Baba, the low but dominant height over the Helles plain. It was expected that the Army would take Ahi Baba the first day, but nine months of terrible fighting couldn't even realize this plan. It was decided that, the Army was going to be responsible for taking control of the Gallipoli Peninsula while the Navy would provide any support needed. Initially, the reason that the army could exist in Gallipoli was thanks to the naval supremacy provided by the Royal Navy over the entire Mediterranean and the Aegean Sea. The transfer of troops from Europe, Australasia, and North Africa and establishment of bases at Lemnos and Imbros islands, transfer of munitions, supplies started to take place. The security of small bridgeheads at Helles, Anzac Cove, and Suvla Bay were also undertaken by British naval supremacy. The troops had moral and material support from the presence of fleet there. This situation changed after many attacks to the Navy by the Turks. The first attack was launching of a torpedo-boat raid on the two battleships and five destroyers which were to guard the army's flank in the Dardanelles. On 13th of May, Goliath was hit by three torpedoes fired from Muavenet-i Millet on Morto Bay. (Hart 16)

Another threat came from the German submarines. U21 was among the active ones; under the command of Lieutenant Commander Otto Hershing, it set off from Wilhelmshaven, Germany on 25th of April 1915. As U21 was already spotted on her way, her arrival led to a withdrawal of battleships at Cape Helles. When U21 reached Gallipoli on 25th of May, she

started her action. As she had been spotted, her attack on Swiftsure and Vengeance was avoided. (Hart 17)

At 12.25 U21 hit Triumph which resulted in the death of 75 men. After the loss of Triumph, the remaining battleships were taken under protection to Imbros. However, the next day, De Robeck thought that there should be ships to support the bombardment at Cape Helles, one at Y Beach, and one in the Dardanelles facing the Asiatic batteries. The Majestic was stationed at W Beach and 43 men were lost when she was hit. The German submarine boats were effective, so the British Navy decided to keep the battleships and cruisers in a safe place, in Kephalo Bay at Imbros. The British troops on land were affected both physically and psychologically by the lack of support troops. (Hart 18)

1.3.2- The Landing

The soldiers of the Allied Forces who were collected in Egypt were very excited especially by the idea that they would be fighting for the first time in their lives. Their letters and diaries show how the feeling of adventure was being spread in the army. (Moorehead 97) These forces were made of different nationalities. There were the French with their impressive costumes, Zouaves from Africa-Algerian forces serving in the French Army, legionnaires, Sikhs and Gurkhas from India, Levantine Jews and Greeks as well as English and French marines, Scottish, English and Irish soldiers and there were the Australians and New Zealanders. Australians and New Zealanders were the most unknown group. They were all voluntaries. They were very different from their English ancestors who migrated a century ago from England which was in economic crisis. They were tall and well-built with strong muscles. They were talking in their own tough dialect. They did not adapt well to the military discipline of the British army and believed that the English officers were effeminate and did

not respect them. Birdwood who was in command of the Anzac forces, was worried that their free spirit might create a problem. He did not know how they would react under enemy fire. An intense training had started, but there was not much time left. (Moorehead 100-101)

> The ANZACs, staging through Egypt to Europe, were citizen soldiers, products of the most comprehensive militia system in the world, which trained every male from early school age upwards for military service and enrolled all fit men in their local regiments. A comparable military obligation, accepted in Australia, was taken with deep seriousness by the tiny colonial community of the New Zealand, strategically the least vulnerable settled place on earth. Out of a male population of half a million, New Zealand could provide 50,000 trained soldiers aged under twenty-five. Australia furnished proportionate numbers. (Keegan 242)

In order for Hamilton to keep his promise for an attack at the end of April, the time was quite limited. When he reached Alexandria, it was 26th of March which meant that he had three weeks left. His task was to prepare the biggest amphibious operation of history. The only operation similar to this one would be thirty years later in Normandy which was to be prepared in 2 years and not in three weeks. Hamilton had about 75,000 soldiers under his command: 30,000 Australian and New Zealander divided into two divisions; the 29th Division of the English who were 17,000; the French division of 16,000 and Royal Navy Division of 10,000. All these divisions were to be transported with 1600 horses, donkeys and mules, 300 vehicles were to be organized in such a way that they could land under intense Turkish fire. (Moorehead 101-102)

There were also problems about information as they did not know where they were going to land, they did not have a detailed map, they did not know if there was water where they were going to land, if they would have to dig trenches or just attack, what kind of guns they needed, what kind of boats they needed for landing and many other details. As they did not know what kind of difficulties that they were going to face, they tried to make the best of the materials they had and hope for the best. Soldiers were sent to the markets of Cairo and Alexandria to buy leather, barrels, and gasoline cans- anything that would hold water. Others

started bargaining in the port to buy towing boats and lighters; some were sent to libraries to find maps while others bought donkeys and recruited some donkey owners with their donkeys into the military. In a short period of time the Alexandria port was filled with boats of every size and type. (Moorehead 102-103)

As the plan for landing was discussed, the Asian shores seemed much easier as it was a sea shore level, but Kitchener was against this as he believed that the Turks could easily get support from the vast hinterland. Kitchener wanted the forces to land on the European peninsula which had a more difficult topography. Five beaches at the peninsula, at Cape Helles were selected and lettered Y, X, W, V, and S, with Y three miles from the point on the Mediterranean side, S within the Dardanelles, and X, W, and V under the Cape Helles itself.(Fig.3) (Keegan 241)

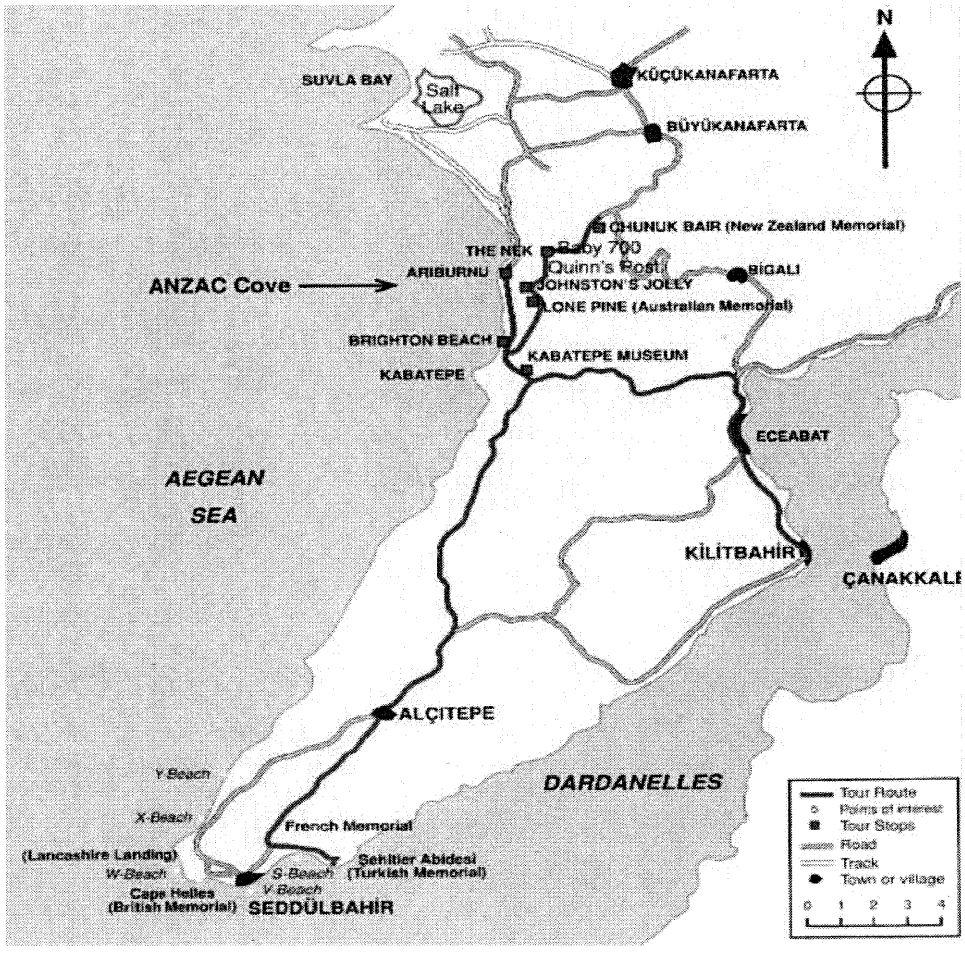


Figure 3- The Landing Beaches

On April 8 1915, Hamilton believed that the preparations were going well and he decided to leave for Lemnos to share his plan with De Robeck and his admirals. On April 10, they had a crucial meeting on Queen Elisabeth. Hamilton's plan was simple. It was going to be an attack on the Gallipoli Peninsula. The main force that was going to deployed was going to be 29th Division under command of Hunter-Weston. This division was to land on five different points of the Helles Point at the tip of the peninsula and will try to capture Ahibaba Hill at the end of the day. At the same time Birdwood will land his divisions to 13 miles north of the shore which aimed to cut support for the Turks who would be fighting against Hunter-Weston at Cape Helles. Meanwhile there were going to be two fake landings to surprise the Turks. One landing was going to be by the Royal Navy to Bolayır and another by the French to Kumkale at the Asian side. These two divisions were to be brought at Cape Helles to join the rest. It was believed the second, or by latest the third day of the attack, the peninsula would be under control and ships could pass through to the Sea of Marmara. (Moorehead 105)

The only change in the plan was to use a boat as a Trojan horse which was developed by Lieutenant Colonel Unwin. He proposed to load 2000 soldiers into River Clyde which was an innocent looking coal boat which was to be run ashore at Cape Helles. Two lighters-a boat type which were used to carry items from boats and to land with a straight bottom- were going to work as bridges to the land. The soldiers were going to leave River Clyde from the doors which were prepared on both sides which would enable them to land very quickly. There were going to be sand bags replaced at the front of River Clyde with machine guns behind them to stop the enemy from intervening in the landing procedures. (Moorehead 106)

On a clear sunny morning of 23 April 1915, De Robeck ordered the operation to start. On that day and the next day, the freight ships which were slower than the rest, left the Port of Mudros to applause. On the night of 24 April 1915, 200 ships were moving in the Aegean Sea: The Royal Naval Division to Gulf of Saros; Anzac Division to Imbros, and English and

French soldiers to Tenedos. The war ships of the divisions which were to land first reached their destinations. The engines were stopped; everyone was given coffee and biscuits and afterwards went to their places on the deck. From there by sliding through ropes and nets they were to transfer to boats waiting for them below one after the other. Every boat that was filled was to move to the back of the ship. The moon had set and the boats started to move to the shore shortly after 4.00. As they started to see the shore and the hills behind them, they did not hear any noise or see any movement. (Moorehead 110-111)

Hamilton had already decided that before the operation he would not intervene unless he was asked to. He assigned running the operation to Hunter-Weston who was the commander of British forces at Cape Helles and to Birdwood who was the commander of the Anzac forces at Kabatepe. Both of these commanders did not have detailed information about the operation as they had decided to stay on the ship. It was impossible to receive accurate information from the front and this led to a lack of coordination between different areas of the front. (Moorehead 115)

In the south, the landing at Seddülbahir and Cape Helles succeeded easily due to information provided from mariners who had landed there in February and March 1915. But, the Kabatepe region where the Anzac forces were going to land did not have a map and it was the most difficult part of the region. (Moorehead 119)

Hunter-Weston was the commander of the forces –most of them were of 29th Division- who were going to land on five different points around Seddülbahir. After many examinations from the sea, the site of Seddülbahir was believed to be a perfect target to shoot at from the ships. There was a tiny village behind the fortress. The land next to the fortress ended with a small slope creating a 300 m. long and 10 m. wide shore covered with pebbles. It was known that this natural amphitheater was surrounded by trenches and protected with barbed wire. It was still believed that bombing Seddülbahir from the sea during the landing would destroy the

defense there. Albion, the war ship, moved accordingly with the plan and bombarded both the shore and the village with the first light of the day. As there was no response, it was believed that the Turks had either escaped or died. River Clyde, filled with 2000 soldiers, along with small boats filled with soldiers, set forth. There was a delay in this movement as the small boats could not move fast enough due to strong currents. They had to start the landing under day light due to this delay. The River Clyde landed with a great amount of noise at 6.22 a.m. while the shore was very calm. Turkish fire started at that moment which was particularly frightening due to the silence that had existed. Under intense fire, very few of the English soldiers could make it to the shore. The boats started to drift as there was no one left to control them. (Moorehead 125-126)

Seddülbahir was defended by the 9th Division and this division's 26th regiment's 3rd battalion commander Major Mahmut Sabri described the day of attack: "The war ships had approached to our shores between Eski Hisarlık and Tekke Bay and started shooting. There were hundreds of explosions and we could not tell from the smoke the situation of soldiers and destruction of different parts. The 3.4 cm. battery which was the only heavy gun of the battalion was hit during the first bombings." (Mütercimler 318-319)

Cape Helles was an ideal landing post because it was at the tip of the Gallipoli peninsula and was and easy target from the ships. It had been observed from the sea many times, and distance from different points as well as roughness of the land was correctly estimated. The landings were to be supported by the war ships of Eurylaus (Admiralty ship), Implacable, Cornwallis, Swiftsure, Albion, Vengeance, Goliath, Queen Elisabeth, and cruisers of Talbot, Dublin, Sapphire, and Amethyst. (Mütercimler 312)

"The landing places selected were S at the northeast corner of Morto Bay, V and W (called Lancashire landing) on each side of Cape Helles, X (called Implacable landing) just above Tekke Burnu, and Y, just above Gurkha Bluff, and due west of Krithia." Z landing later

to be known as Anzac was on the north of Kaba Tepe. (Coates 54) The landings at V, W and X were going to be the main landings and S and Y landings were going to serve to spread the enemy forces, interrupt their reinforcements, and protect the flanks. (Coates 55)

V Beach was 300 meters wide and ten meters long beach, situated between the redoubt of Ertuğrul and fortress of Seddülbahir. There is a one and a half meter terrace right after the beach. Behind the beach, there were the hills of Gözcü Baba and Harapkale. The landings were going to include more than one regiment at a time and would be followed by the next regiment. (Mütercimler 314) The majority of the Allied Navy bombed the line of Seddülbahir-Kirte. (Mütercimler 316)

The Anzac landing was planned in such a way that the troops would be transferred from war ships to boats after the moon had set. This would make the landing more discreet. The appropriate time for this was 3.00. The landings took place further to the north of the peninsula than planned, to Arı Burnu and north of it. The rest of the troops landed at Anzac Cove. (Carver 22) The reason that the Anzac landing did not receive any opposition by the Turks is that they did not expect the enemy to land on such an inhospitable spot; the landing parties soon discovered that the terrain was as hostile as a defending enemy. The thick scrub and ravines led to separation of the troops from one another and they could only move a mile and a half, before they came under Turkish attack. (Keeagan 243-244)

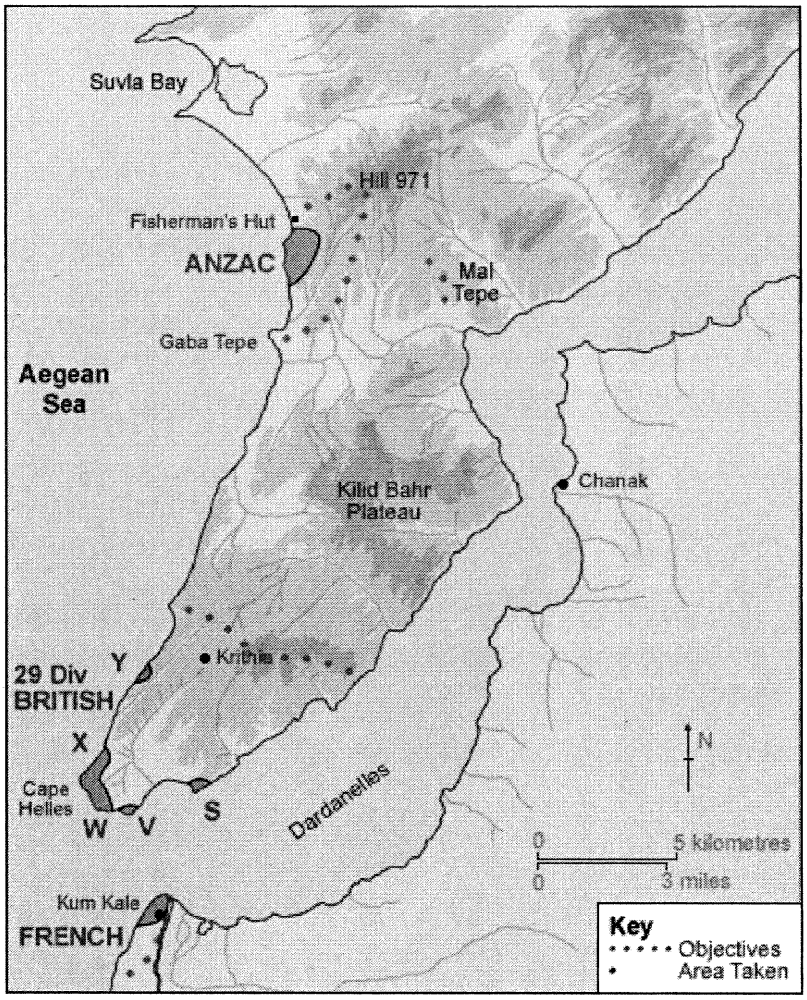


Figure 4- The Landing Beaches

More men were going to land at the V Beach than W Beach. The first group, the 1st Royal Dublin Fusiliers with three companies, would land at 06.00. The rest of the battalion would land half an hour later with the 1st Royal Munster Fusiliers and two companies of the 2nd Hampshires from River Clyde. They were to capture the village of Seddülbahir and join the 2nd South Wales Borderers at De Tott's Battery and finally join the landing of the Lancashire Fusiliers on Hill 138. (Carver 29) This was going to form a continuous line across the tip of Cape Helles from Morto Bay to X Beach. V Beach was a naturally strong defense position. It was in the shape of a wide bowl which had a slope from the rim to the sea level. There were four Turkish 37 mm guns of which two were destroyed during the landing. The remaining two were located at the left of the center of the beach. The Dublin Fusiliers began

their approach as well as the Lancashires before 06.00. (Hart and Steel 91) The landing of the first group was delayed due to the current and the River Clyde waited for the boats to get ahead. But the boats were still behind the River Clyde when the bombardment started at 6.00. (Carver 29) The bombardment of V Beach was continued by Albion as well other ships until around 06.30. (Hart and Steel 91) Commander Unwin, the Captain of River Clyde took the decision to go slightly ashore and ahead to the right of them. (Carver 29)

> Unfortunately the steam hopper, with its towed lighters, which was meant to form a gangway between the bows and the shore, swung sideways. Commander Unwin himself, with Able Seaman Williams, entered the water and gallantly managed to pull the lighters into position between the ship and the shore, but Williams was wounded and Unwin had to let go, so that the lighters drifted away. Meanwhile both the exits from the ship and the boats to the left of it came under intense fire. A series of attempts to disembark the Munsters and the Hampshires from the ship only led to piles of dead and wounded, and by 09.00 the two commanding officers, Lieutenant Colonel Henry Tizard of the Munsters and Lieutenant Colonel Herbert Carrington-Smith of the Hampshires, who was in overall command, decided to make no further attempt. Only 300 out of the 700 men of the Royal Dublin Fusiliers from the boats had managed to get ashore, but they could get no further forward than a bank about ten yards inland. (Carver 30)

As the first men were landing, Unwin and Williams could hold the lighters in position. When Williams was hit and the lighters drifted away, the Munsters who were led by Captain Geddes were on to the port gangway. When Captain Geddes found out that the lighters had drifted away, he pushed on as best as he could. (Hart and Steel 93)

Air Commodore Samson was flying over Seddülbahir at that time, seeing that the calm blue sea turned blood red in 50 meters from the shore. (Moorehead 127)

Meanwhile, General Hunter-Weston was on the deck of the Euryalus Cruiser and did not know anything about how the landing was evolving. Because of this, he applied the second phase of the landing. Brigadier General Napier was ordered to land with the remaining main part of the soldiers. The ships move to the point where they were to meet the boats that would transfer the soldiers to the shore. There were only six boats left with their crew alive and after loading the dead and the wounded they got prepared to return back to the shore.

others fewer or none: At Y Beach none, at X twelve men, at S a single platoon. At Anzac there were 200 men, and V and W Beaches had single platoons. (Keegan 245-246)

By the 4th of May 1915, both sides at the site of the ANZAC beach landing were exhausted. The Turks had lost 14,000 soldiers and ANZACs almost 10,000. When Mustafa Kemal realized that they were not going to be able to drive the enemy into the sea, he ordered his men to dig trenches. The scene reminded one ANZAC's officer "of cave dwellings of a tribe of large and prosperous savages who live on the extremely steep slopes of broken sandy bluffs covered with scrub." (Keegan 247)

By midnight, the English were not aware of the fact that they could proceed and even destroy the Turkish forces around the peninsula. There was no officer with a high rank who could give this order to the soldiers. Without knowing the fact that they outnumbered the Turks by six fold, they were afraid that the Turks could attack at midnight. However, the Turks were in no situation to plan an attack. Among the 200 soldiers at Cape Helles who had been fighting against five landings, half was either dead of wounded. Nothing happened. The Turkish fire started and ended. The English soldiers waited for the morning. (Moorehead 132)

One day after the landing, the village of Seddülbahir was taken by the Allies. Turkish forces began to withdraw from every front. Hamilton believed that capturing Ahibaba Hill before Hamilton got support was very important. On 28 April 1915, the French on the right and British on the left began walking. Due to increasing resistance from the Turks, this push ended after two miles. All the soldiers were extremely exhausted, they hadn't slept the previous 2-3 nights, food, water and ammunition was about to finish. All Allied Forces on land were under Turkish fire from both the upper peninsula and the Asian side of the peninsula. The shores resembled shipwrecks with scattered war materials and ammunition. Until a reorganization of this chaos and receiving support, it seemed impossible for the Allied

Forces to continue fighting. By 28 April, the excitement of the first day was gone and battles through the fronts came to a stop. (Moorehead 142)

The five landings at Helles were difficult in each case and eleven Victoria Crosses were awarded to troops who fought on that day, six to the Lancashire Fusiliers at W Beach, five to the members of the Royal Navy at V Beach. The landings at Y and S Beaches were completely successful as was the landing at X Beach. When the troops reached the top of the cliff, the situation changed. At W Beach, the strong defenses were overcome, but the landing battalion lost strength and could not advance as planned. At V Beach the defenses could not be overcome. (Hart and Steel 96)

By 10.00 it could be seen from the S Beach that the troops at V Beach could not make headway into Seddülbahir and the overall expected advance up into the peninsula was already seriously delayed. They were ether going to stay in position or would try to go around Morto Bay to repell the Turks. As they believed that Turks were strong they decided to stay in position. (Hart and Steel 96-97)

In the meeting that took place on 9 May 1915, all the admirals including De Robeck believed that there should be a new attack on Gallipoli as they believed there was a good chance to succeed. In London, Churchill and Fisher had a meeting about De Robeck's message on May 11 1915. Fisher was against the attack and Churchill was supporting a limited attack which included sweeping the mines and the Navy getting ready to pass the Straits after the Army would take over the peninsula. In the middle of this discussion, they heard the news from Gallipoli that Goliath had been hit and sunk drowning 500 men. (Moorehead 147-148)

In the morning of 24 May 1915, Albion ran ashore outside of Kabatepe. While the English were trying to rescue the ship, the Turks started to shoot at it. By firing all of the bombs, Albion got lighter and rescued herself. This event created a feeling of insecurity even

though it was not linked with a submarine. The next day, while Nasmith was bombarding İstanbul shores, Vengeance reported that a torpedo passed by while she was between Cape Helles and Anzac Cove. Hersing had come to Gallipoli which created a chaos among the Allies. All the valuable ships were ordered to come back to Mondros immediately. As the ships were disappearing one after the other on the horizon, everyone was waiting for the attack which was soon to begin. Lieutenant Colonel Hersing hit Triumph at noon. As the destroyers ran to help her, she leaned at a 45 degree angle for 8 minutes and then sank. Both sides were watching this event: Turks with applauses and Anzacs with grief. Triumph was 11800 tons, a 12-year-old ship, and 71 men died while she sank. De Robeck issued an extra withdrawal order to the rest of the ships. The next day, there was a heavy storm, and De Robeck believed that it was not just to leave the military alone. Majestic was sent back to Cape Helles. The following day at 06.40, Majestic was shot by a torpedo. Majestic sunk near the shore and 48 of her crew died. The two submarines; German U21 and English E11 added a new dimension to the war on the same day; 25 May. (Moorehead 187-189)

The British submarine E 15 (E was a new and larger class of submarine), left Harwich on 29 March 1915, and reached the Dardanelles, but when it entered the Straits, it ran aground on a sand bank on 17 April. The Captain of E 15 was T. S. Brodie and he had surveyed the Straits from an airplane before. The submarine was quickly shot by the Turks when it ran aground. (Travers, Liman von Sanders, the Capture of Lieutenant Palmer, and Ottoman Anticipation of the Allied Landings at Gallipoli on 25 April 1915, 973)

The operations in the peninsula were concentrated at three different zones as Helles, Anzac and Suvla as aforementioned. One of the main problems of the Allied attacks was that these three zones were not in direct communication with each other which created problems. The attacks in August started the same day at all three zones: 6 August 1915. The British attack at Cape Helles on that day had failed, but the fighting continued for about a week. The

operations at Suvla and Anzac were more closely connected with each other than the one in Helles. The attacks here also continued with no solid success. (Coates 90-91)

1.3.3- The Retreat

The Turks had a victory at the Dardanelles front. They were well prepared. On the other hand, the Allies under estimated the difficulty of fighting in the region. The victory at this front changed the destiny of the Turks.

After the first failures in Gallipoli, Churchill had to resign in May and the Liberal government collapsed and was replaced by a coalition headed by Asquith; Balfour took over the Admiralty. Uncertainties in England lead to hesitation by commanders at the Gallipoli front. The Navy had failed to pass the Dardanelles despite the fact that they had assembled the strongest fleet that was ever seen in the Mediterranean. The landings also failed due to bad organization and the Turks were given enough time to get prepared for the attacks. In February and March, they were very few Turkish troops on the peninsula. When the Allied forces landed in April, the British at Cape Helles, the Anzacs to the north of it, and French on the Asian side of the Straits, they had difficulty holding their positions even on the shore. Further landings at Suvla Bay did not succeed either. Finally in December, the Allies decided to withdraw from Gallipoli. This damaged Britain's naval prestige as well as her position in the Middle East. Russia was still short of supplies, Bulgaria joined the Central Powers in October 1915, Serbia was defeated in November. Therefore, the plan to bring the Balkan States against Austria-Hungary to collapse her in order to free Russia, Britain, and France against Germany had failed. (Clayton 224-225) When Hamilton was removed from command on 15 October 1915, he was replaced by Lieutenant-General Sir Charles Monro, who recommended the evacuation of the peninsula. After several weeks of hesitation in London and Kitchener's visit to Gallipoli, the evacuation was finally approved. It took place in two

stages: Anzac and Suvla on 18-19 December 1915, and Helles on 8-9 January 1916. (Macleod 3)

The Allies remained on the peninsula during an extremely hot summer, moist autumn, and freezing early winter. Even though the French had opposed it, the War Council had decided to send more troops to Egypt and the base on Lemnos, and the French also added forces. Ian Hamilton decided to make a new amphibious attack on the north of ANZAC at Suvla Bay. This attack took place on 7 August 1915 and the bridgehead was quickly seized. (Keegan 247) "The landings at Suvla Bay took place successfully with the help of new armored landing badges called 'Beetles'. Designed by Admiral Fisher, they were the forerunners of World War II landing craft." (Lyons 141) Mustafa Kemal, who was now commander of all Turkish troops in the north, was still pushing hard to draw the Allies to sea. He was successful by 9 August 1915 and no additional force of the British, including the 29th Division which was brought by sea from Cape Helles, could gain ground. The Dardanelles Committee of the War wanted to evacuate the region. After many discussions, finally evacuation was approved. From 28 December to 8 January, they evacuated the region quietly without any major opposition from Turks. ANZAC Cove, Suvla and Cape Helles were finally empty by 9 January, the adventure was over. (Keegan 247-248)

The land campaign of Gallipoli, which started in the morning of 25 April 1915 ended on the morning of 9 January 1916, lasted 259 days. It is recalled as a war which took place on a very small piece of land and which resulted with many casualties. The geography made this war very distinctive. The Seddülbahir front in the south which was five kilometers long and the Arıburnu (or Anzac) and Anafartalar front which was fifteen kilometers long, made a total of twenty kilometers of line. In this line, there were times when 350,000 soldiers on each side were fighting. The Allied forces could not move more than five kilometers inside from the shore. This made the deployment of the soldiers very difficult as well as affecting the

psychology of the soldiers. Unlike the rest of the fronts which were large in the World War I, there was a very narrow no man's land between the fronts of Gallipoli peninsula or it did not exist at all. There were fronts which were as close as twenty meters to each other and sometimes they connected. (Göncü and Aldoğan 142-143)

Among the reasons of the Turks to be successful was the feeling of defending the homeland against the enemy. Also, the Turks were physically very strong in terms of coping with the conditions on the Gallipoli peninsula as 90% of them were farmers who were used to these conditions. They were not as affected as their Western counterparts. Another important aspect was their commanders were young and were always on the front together with their soldiers. (Göncü and Aldoğan 147)

The Allies analyzed the reasons of their failure. John de Robeck had sent a telegram to the Admiralty on May 9th 1915, stating that he believed that the British Navy could only be of small assistance when the Army was to fight with trenches and machine guns. The War Office had taken this telegram seriously. The landings on Anzac and Cape Helles were disappointing. The troops had suffered great losses during disembarkation and they could not precede much from the beach due to the steep topography as well as precautions and the defensive of the Turks. The combined operations in August also failed due to similar reasons as well as shortages of water, wrong plans and so on. The Allied plans were continuously delayed from the beginning and there was no cooperation among the attacking units. (Coates 284-286) The Dardanelles Commission concluded their report with the reasons of the failure of the Gallipoli campaign. There was no sufficient consideration given to measures about how the operation was going to be carried. The operation should have been organized and studied more carefully. Also, the difficulties of the operation were underestimated, with a belief that after the landing, the opposition was going to be weak and the troops were to advance into the peninsula quickly. The bombardment of November 1914, as well as the naval attacks of

February and March 1915 had led Turks to increase their defenses. The attacks on Suvla and Anzac should have been known before the attack that they were going to be difficult due to topography of these places as well as the strength of the Turks. During May, June and July, severe fighting took place, which resulted with dramatic losses and no important gains. At Helles, there was lack of adequate artillery preparation which prevented the troops from gaining effective results. (Coates 291-313)

There was also Ottoman military effectiveness besides the mistakes of the Allies. The Ottoman army had the best led and trained infantry divisions at the Gallipoli peninsula, contrary to the belief that they were weak. The defense of the peninsula had been worked on for a long time, over thirty years, by the Turks. Especially, during the First Balkan War, they had strengthened and integrated their defenses. (Erickson, "Military History", 983)

The Turks were looked down upon by the Allies, which had contributed to the Allies to ignore their ability to follow a high command down to the individual soldier. The arrogant attitude towards the Ottoman army had its roots in history. In the 1820's Russians, Greeks, Serbs, Romanians, and Bulgarians started to take pieces from Ottoman lands in the Balkans and the Caucasus. And, the losses of the Ottomans in the Balkan Wars of 1912 and 1913 proved that the Ottomans had come to an end militarily. Their incorrect strategies and the bad performances of the Ottoman army were noted and reported to the European military staff. Once mobilized and deployed, the Ottoman Army could fight well, but this was ignored by the observers. (Erickson, "Military History", 983-984)

The Turks are estimated to have lost around 300,000 men and the Allies 265,000. Among the Allies, the Australians were the most affected by the war, and they remember it deeply even until today. It is often remarked that being citizens of a newly federated county in 1915, they went as soldiers of six separate states and came back as members of one nation. They started to commemorate the war the following year and today 25 April has became a

sacred event for Australians with a dawn ceremony. They commemorate it at the ANZAC Cove every year. Few British visit the region which is preserved as a Turkish national park, with memorials and statues which commemorates the sufferings of all sides. Two-thirds of the Australians who went to the Great War became casualties and the first of the nation's heroes of Great War. The medals that they had won are often brought to Gallipoli by their grandchildren on their pilgrimage. (Keegan 248-249)

The Gallipoli campaign is known as the Battle of Çanakkale in Turkey. Çanakkale is the town situated on the Asian side of the Straits which the Europeans call the Dardanelles. According to the Turks, they won the war because of the naval victory of 18 March. However, the Australians and New Zealanders name the campaign as Gallipoli as their forces fought an unsuccessful land campaign on the Gallipoli peninsula. Just like the Turks, they are using the name in which they were most successful. The British and the French call the campaign both Gallipoli and Dardanelles as they have fought both on the land and the sea. (Fewster, Başarın and Başarın, 7)

> Yet nothing at Gallipoli can fail to touch the emotions of those who descend from the soldiers of any nation that struggled there. The village of Kumkale, under the walls of medieval fortress, had disappeared but the overgrown cemetery of Muslim headstones remains to mark the furthest limit of the French advance of 25 April. The war cemetery above W Beach is full of the dead of Lancashire Landing, while at Sedd el-Bahr the Dublin and Munster Fusiliers lie in graves only a few yards above the water's edge where they gave their lives for a state many of their countrymen, at Easter 1916, would confront with rebellion. Most poignant of all Gallipoli memorials, perhaps, is that of the white marble column on the Cape Helles headland, glimpsed across the water from the walls of Troy on a bright April morning. Troy and Gallipoli make two separate but connected epics, as so many of the classically educated volunteer officers of the Mediterranean Expeditionary Force ...had recognized and recorded. It is difficult to say which epic Homer might have thought the more heroic. (Keegan 249)

The meaning of Gallipoli campaign differs for different nations. For the British, French, Canadians, Indians and Germans it is one of the tragic fronts of the World War I

battles, but for the Turks, Australians and New Zealanders it is totally different. For them, it is a very significant event in the self development of their individual nations. Gallipoli has a special place in their national memory. On 25 April of each year, the Australians and New Zealanders remember their war as it is the date that their soldiers had first landed on the Gallipoli peninsula. It is a public holiday and it is remembered with veterans' marches and memorial services held in New Zealand and Australia as well as in Turkey. The Turks commemorate 18 March 1915 when they had won a decisive victory over the Allied fleet. The most important feature of the Gallipoli campaign according to Turks is launching the career of Mustafa Kemal, the young officer who displayed brilliant leadership in the campaign and who became Atatürk (which means "father of the Turks"), the inaugural president, and the founder of modern Turkey. (Fewster, Başarın and Başarın 7-8)

Gallipoli is still the main point of contact between Australian-Turkish relations. Australian education teaches school children about Gallipoli campaign as well as the Turkish education system. However, in recent years, Australian Anzac Day emphasizes less on the battles and more on human values of the war as Australians and Turks sharing the same fate. It is an interesting friendship between Australians and Turks that is born out of a war. (Fewster, Başarın and Başarın 9-11)

Chapter 2

Introduction

I have summarized the Gallipoli campaign in my first chapter in order to understand the historical background of the region. As the Seddülbahir Maritime Museum has to present this history, this information will be helpful in the realization phase of the museum. I have emphasized the naval war especially, as I will be proposing a maritime museum and an underwater archaeological center. This chapter will be giving a short introduction to the museum concept today and underline what is expected from a museum. I also have included a section about maritime museums, with examples from the world and from Turkey. Moving from the history of the region to museums and maritime museums, and underwater archaeology centers, I have tried to first give an introduction to the region's history then to museums and maritime museums to be able to identify the type of the museum that I propose for Seddülbahir.

Museums and Maritime Museums, Underwater Archaeology Centers

2.1-Importance of the Museum: A General Introduction

Museums play an important role today due to their various functions. They are places to learn both for adults and children. Many people spend their leisure time in the museums both to visit galleries and attend activities like seminars, or attend gallery tours. In order to explain in more detail the importance of museums today, I have divided this subject into chapter's sections: My first section is the history of museum education. This section explores how to understand the changes in museum education since the museums were first established. The second chapter section is learning in the museum, which is a very important function of the museum. The third subtitle is the community aspect of the museum to

understand better the visitors of the museum. And finally, the new museology is examined to understand the changes and to adapt to these changes in the museum field today.

There is a changing function of the museum which comes from the fast changes in the cities, which created an urge to save the past for the understanding of future generations. The archeological units have been established, local museums have been set, protective organizations flourished, and a new industry called "protection of the cultural heritage" has been created. However, these efforts were limited to the protection of cultural heritage for the future rather than today. Recently, society is being taken into more consideration and its interaction with the museum as well the accessibility of the collections by the society has taken greater importance.

There is a new approach to the museums today. There is more effort to have interactive exhibits, new ways to measure public relations and create educational activities. These new developments have been carried on by both educational and curatorial staff. New ways of communication and management in the museum are also exercised. (Hooper-Greenhill 188) Technology plays a very important role in terms of new museology. The web pages of the museums help the visitors to be prepared to learn about the exhibitions in advance. They can guide parents and teachers on their web pages. A good example to this is the handbook which can be downloaded from the web page of the Rahmi Koç Museum.

Museums are changing from static storehouses of artifacts into active learning places for the visitors. This change brings a radical reorganization in the museums. Museums today also research their audiences as well as their collections. (Hooper-Greenhill, Museums and Their Visitors, 1) The products of the museum are its temporary and permanent exhibitions, education and outreach programs, catalogues, or publications. The consumers of the museum are the visitors of all types. An important duty in museum marketing is the research of actual and potential audience of the museums and identifying the difference between the actual and

the potential to understand why they do not match. (Hooper-Greenhill, Museums and Their Visitors, 19)

2.2- The History of Museum Education

The public museum was initiated in the eighteenth century as a means to display objects to the public, but its expansion into public institutions started in the nineteenth century. This occurred at the same time with the nation-building process, as the welfare of the citizens which included education, was considered the duty of the government. As education and knowledge spread beyond the wealthy class, so did the public museums. (Hein 3)

In the early nineteenth century, the museums had limited access to the public. They reflected the wealth and power of the government in terms of their displays such as exotic materials and items brought back home from the colonies. The imperial countries of Europe and North America had the largest international collections of both paintings and natural history artifacts. In the second half of the nineteenth century, with industrialization, the populations moved into cities and government was responsible for their social services and education. Museums were among the institutes of education which could also help the public to better themselves and appreciate the value of the modern life. Public schooling developed at the same time resulting with uniform education for the majority of the population. (Hein 3-4) The world transition from an industrial to knowledge-base economy meant that the knowledge became the key to economic and social well-being. The museums became one of the major sources of knowledge for the knowledge-thirsty public. (Falk and Dierking 1)

Hooper-Greenhill points out:

"During the nineteenth century, education had been the primary function of the museum. The ideal museum was understood to be 'the advanced school of self-instruction' and the place where the teachers should 'naturally go for assistance' ". (Hein 5)

> For a variety of reasons, ranging from changing definitions of learning and pressures on museums to justify their existence to expanding socio-political roles of museums in increasingly self-conscious societies, museum education is increasing in significance. What is learned in museums and how learning takes place is more than a matter of intellectual curiosity? Learning in the museum and understanding visitors' learning has become a matter of survival for museums. (Hein 12)

In order to educate people efficiently, museums need to have a conscious educational policy because their visitors may be confused and the educational aim would not be fulfilled. There should be a pattern for the museums to follow in order to fulfill their aim of education. (Hein 14-15)

"In 1992, the American Association of Museums' Task Force on Museums Education issued a landmark report that affirmed (American Association of Museums 1992, 6)":

"Museums perform their most fruitful public service by providing an educational experience in the broadest sense: by fostering the ability to live productively in a pluralistic society and to contribute to the resolution of the challenges we face as global citizens." (Hein and Alexander 9)

"Participants at a recent conference developed the following list of 'what people learn as a consequence of museum experiences'" (Falk and Dierking, Public Institutions for Personal Learning, 20-21):

> 1. Museums make content and ideas accessible, facilitating intellectual "connections" and bringing together disparate facts, ideas and feelings.
> 2. Museums affect values and attitudes, for example, facilitating comfort with cultural differences or developing environmental ethics.
> 3. Museums promote cultural, community and familial identity.
> 4. Museums foster visitor interest and curiosity, inspiring self-confidence and motivation to pursue future learning and life choices.

5. Museums affect how visitors think and approach their worlds, in contrast to what they think. (Hein and Alexander 9-10)

In order to create an environment which is conductive to learning, here is the outline of the list that Hein and Alexander has written:

- ✓ Comfort is a necessary, although not sufficient, element for learning in the museum.
- ✓ Telling visitors what they might learn increases learning in exhibits.
- ✓ Attention to ergonomics and other visitor needs can dramatically increase interest and engagement. Effectiveness of the labels must be viewed in the context of the entire museum experience.
- ✓ Visitors greatly prefer interactive elements-and other means of participation- in exhibits. (Hein and Alexander 11-16)

2.3-Learning in the Museum

Museum education is considered as a vital part of all well-managed museums. (Hooper-Greenhill 65) In order to understand what the visitors make from their museum experiences, one must consider the increasing role of the educational role of the museums and increasing pressure on the museums to justify their existence. In order for museums to realize their aim, they should know who their audience is and organize their displays according to its visitor's interests. (Hein 3)

In order to maximize the educational function of the museum, there should be some activities taking place in the museum. For example, workshop sessions which can provide many different kinds of experience for school students, university students, written and audio-visual material to plan the classes for the teachers, lectures, talks, demonstrations, events and other leisure activities for children, families, or the adult public. Museum education staff

should work jointly with curators and designers to be able to maximize the learning opportunities of exhibitions and displays. In order to achieve this, the exhibition texts should be reviewed as well as advise on the relevance of the exhibitions to the schools. Ideally, educators must be involved in the exhibition planning from the start, including the target audiences, and discussions on teaching points and, the narrative style. (Hooper-Greenhill 78)

The visitors of the museum can have a great range of experiences. The power of the museum comes from the experiences which change its visitors. The experience in the museum must not be routine, it should challenge and stimulate its visitors in order to be educational. These experiences must not only be "hands-on" but also "minds-on". These experiences must also be vivid and interesting as well as having an educative organization. (Hein 2) The possibilities for learning in the museums are vast. The objects themselves can be studied as sources of information as well as being part of a less specifically focused learning process. The objects can arouse interest just by the way they look and the attention given to the object can be very different than the attention given to the explanatory text of the object. Learning in the museums can be related to the collections, but it can be directed by the museum itself. (Hooper-Greenhill 98)

It is very important for the education staff to work with professionals outside the museum such as teachers, as well as working in collaboration with the other museum staff. Museum educators must be aware of duties and priorities of the other staff. Equally, other staff must understand the needs of the museum educator. In many museums, curators have very important roles in educational services. This is possible through lectures, organization of events and activities as well as enabling access to behind the scenes area of the museum. Some museum objects are often open to visitors to handle. (Hooper-Greenhill 95-96) The museum's educational role can not be limited to the schools. There are many families who visit the museums, therefore programs aimed at parent's guidance of their children in the

museum must also be considered. Adults have been provided with many services in the museum like lectures, gallery talks, film shows, and concerts. Even there are programs of studies in the museum related to the parts of the collection and their history. (Hooper-Greenhill 147)

Looking, touching, feeling, and smelling are ways to explore an object. (Hooper-Greenhill 103) All of these are not generally possible in a museum with some exceptions. Some museums have some objects that the visitors can handle. This experience is very helpful especially for a younger visitor to improve learning about the object. School groups are the largest groups which visit the museums. It would be very valuable to have the opportunity to use the museum generated information technology in the classroom. (Hooper-Greenhill, Museums and their Visitors, 104-106)

> Although museums and galleries are fundamentally concerned with objects, these objects are always contextualized by words. Museums are in fact perhaps as much concerned with words as they are with objects, although in many ways, because of the focus on the material object, the words have become invisible. However, in the classifications used for documentation, in exhibition themes and in the ideas about the museum presented through publicity posters and leaflets, language is necessarily used. (Hooper-Greenhill, Museums and their Visitors, 115)

The texts include labels, interpretative panels, leaflets, and catalogues. These texts can be divided into two as practical texts that give directions and information, and knowledge texts that explain the artifacts, history and so on. The knowledge texts are either only used in the museum as the labels or can be used outside as well as in leaflets. It is very important for these texts to be written clearly, with familiar vocabulary and to inform the readers. (Hooper-Greenhill, Museums and their Visitors, 124-125)

2.4-Community Aspect of the Museum

Communicating with the visitors and understanding their needs is very important. This communication can be face to face, written or recorded. It is also important to find out what was most enjoyable with a visitor's experience. (Hooper-Greenhill 97)

Museums must be able to meet the needs of visitors with physical and mental impairment. Museums can even be difficult places to visit already as they are generally exhausting and demanding both physically and mentally. For handicapped people museums must consider their facilities from parking to lighting with detail. (Hooper-Greenhill 136)

The museums attract a variety of visitors from a broad spectrum. In order to understand the needs of its visitors, it is important to divide the target groups into categories of common interests and characteristics. In terms of learning, different groups of different ages, interests or educational levels will need or to be interested and satisfied with different aspects of a museum. (Hooper-Greenhill, Museums and Their Visitors, 84)

2.5- Conclusion

The reason that I have written about various aspects of the museum is to be able to summarize the development of the museum as an institution and how it functions today. This theoretical introduction forms the foundation upon which I have built my proposed museum. The importance of the museum helps to understand where the museum stands and what role it plays in our lives. New museology outlines the understanding of museums today. It also explains what is expected from a museum today. The history of museum education outlines how the museums became learning institutions and whom

they have served. The different methods and aspects of learning in the museum can give ideas about educational programs of the Seddülbahir Maritime Museum and where they should lead and how they should function. Community is also important for a museum, especially for Seddülbahir as the regular visitors and the community are very different groups. The programs to include the community in the museum are a very important task to be accomplished at Seddülbahir Maritime Museum. In conclusion, this chapter has introduced the concept of new practices museums and explains different facets of the museum such as its history, educational role, role in the community. As we move into examining a conceptual plan in Seddülbahir Maritime Museum, all the aspects of the museum need to be considered in any conceptual plan.

2.6-Maritime Museums

Maritime museums are among the many different types of museums in the world. As the name indicates, maritime museums are built in order to reflect the maritime culture or history of a nation, a state or a region by displaying various objects related. Among the maritime museums, some of the exhibited items can include real boats or submarines, boat parts, maps, costumes of sailors, underwater life, fishing tools. Naval museums focus on navies and the military use of the sea.[2] What makes a maritime museum different than a naval museum is that, it looks at different subjects that are related to the sea and explore different topics other than naval history, such as boat types used by the people, types of fish, and parts of ships. Sometimes, maritime museums include naval history as navies have taken a large part in maritime activities. It can be difficult to distinguish between maritime museum and

[2] http://www.reference.com/search?q=maritime%20museum

They only had space for Napier and a few of his soldiers. When they approached the shore, the soldiers in the River Clyde tried to explain to Napier that it was useless to try to land. Napier did not understand the situation, and when he approached the lighters and saw they were filled with soldiers he jumped in one of them to help the soldiers to land and he realized that they were all dead. They shouted at him from River Clyde telling that it was impossible to land and Napier replied that he wanted to try and he died soon after. Napier's effort was the end of the Seddülbahir landing. (Moorehead 127-128)

The second wave of troops who tried to land on V Beach was as unsuccessful as the first. The defenses were strong and there were many casualties on the boats. Unwin's adaptation created a very difficult and dangerous landing for the soldiers. As the connection to the land was narrow, the disembarking soldiers gathered at a point where the enemy's fire was strongest. This resulted in more than half of the disembarking men either being killed or wounded. A little more than three hours of attempts to land at V Beach had come to a halt. (Hart and Steel 95-96) When the rest of the soldiers finally reached the land, they were welcomed with applauses by the soldiers who were already there. The Turks started to bomb the shore and it became evident that they were not going to make any more movement until it got dark. At night the soldiers could finally get out from where they were hiding. They unloaded the corpses from the lighters as well as collected the wounded. The remaining soldiers also disembarked from River Clyde. They tried to secure their places, dig trenches in the rocky land, and cut the barbed wires. Bombing from the sea started again and the boats filled with new ammunition, soldiers and food started to approach. (Moorehead 132)

The British commanders, Hamilton of Mediterranean Expeditionary Force and Hunter-Weston of the 29th Division, should have been alarmed at the damage experienced by their soldiers for such a few number of enemy. The area that was attacked was defended by only a fraction of the Turkish soldiers; in some places there were single platoons of fifty men, in

naval museum. However, the naval museums are often owned by the navy, and they include naval pieces such as warships, guns from these ships, the activities, and wars that the navy had taken part, overall items related to naval history. However, maritime museums include the civilian life, such as boats used by the people, fish and sea life of the region, shortly marine activities and history that is related to civilians not to the navy. It is striking that in the USA, Australia, and England there were such a variety of maritime museums. Their displays as well as programs and outreach activities varied. I tried picked among those examples when searching for possible models for the Seddülbahir Maritime Museum, I also created new models, which I will discuss in the fourth chapter of this proposal for the Seddülbahir Maritime Museum.

Below is the list of museums of sites which have constructed my internet based research:

2.6.1- Mystic Museum, Connecticut, USA.

http://www.mystic.org/

This seems like a very big museum which has various sections like sea history, sea life, and sea exploration. The various exhibitions include a replica of an ancient shipwreck found on the floor of the Black Sea. There are video projections of deep-sea archaeological expeditions, as well as ancient artifacts collected from the Mediterranean illustrating ancient Phoenician culture, and a maritime art gallery. The museum also has an aquarium section which would attract children. There are extensive education programs in the museum and even sleep over programs for the children and the families in the museum. Overall, this museum is very extensive, has an informative web site, and various education programs.

2.6.2- Hong Kong Maritime Museum

http://www.hkmaritimemuseum.org/

What took my attention on the web page of the museum is the way its galleries are displayed on the web. There are the maps of different galleries and it is possible to click on different sections on the map to get more information on that section. I think this is a very good idea that makes the visitor acquainted with the museum's plan before even coming to the museum, which would help during the visit.

2.6.3-San Diego Maritime Museum

http://www.sdmaritime.com/

What I liked most about this museum were the educational programs. There are different programs for different ages and different groups and they are highly participatory. For example, they have a program called 'living history' for 4th to 6th grades. And there are different sections under the living history such as 'voyage of hope' or 'gold digger express' which all seem like interesting and educational activities for the children. Below is an explanation of one of these programs from the web page of the museum:

> This program offers many challenges to youngsters during an 18-hour imaginary voyage from Great Britain to the West Coast of the United States, via New Zealand. Students relive the lives of 1870's emigrants who have signed aboard as sailors "before the mast" in exchange for passage. Through role-playing and cooperative learning techniques, students are immersed intellectually, physically and emotionally in shipboard activities. These include hoisting barrels and sails, riding a boatswain's chair, singing chanteys, standing night watch, swabbing the decks and dealing with a demanding, yet fair, Captain and crew. This award-winning living history program is designed as a hands-on exploration of history, literature and group problem solving.[3]

[3] http://www.sdmaritime.org/contentpage.asp?ContentID=64

2.6.4-The Naval Museum of Manitoba, Canada

http://www.naval-museum.mb.ca/

I have been researching the maritime museums, as I am conceptualizing a maritime museum; however, the Naval Museum of Manitoba also provided me information with some of its sections which I can use in Seddülbahir Maritime Museum. First of all, there is list of old ships in the museum's web page, with pictures and explanations. The same format can be used at the web page of Seddülbahir Maritime Museum, as there are many ships involved in the history of the region. There is also a search engine in the web site, where you can find information about a ship. This can also be applied to Seddülbahir's web page. It can serve as a database for research about ships.

This museum does not have a very interesting web page. However, it has a lot of collections and a lot of different sections like 'Battle of the Atlantic', 'Merchant Navy', 'Naval Air'. This museum caught my attention due to its various historic collections. Here's the mission statement of the museum that can give a better understanding of the museum:

> The goal of the Naval Museum of Manitoba is to promote the history of Canada's Navy, especially as it pertains to those Manitobans who have served with the Navy. The Naval Museum captures a moment in history, remembering the lifestyle, sense of duty and patriotism of Canadian sailors during times of peace and war. In creating this archive, many Manitobans have served their community by donating artifacts, time and energy to a successful effort. [4]

2.6.5-Australian National Maritime Museum

http://www.anmm.gov.au/site/page.cfm

The web page of this museum is very informative and provides easy access to the collections. It has variety of education programs, for school children of different grades, for

[4] http://www.naval-museum.mb.ca/index.htm

teachers, and adults. The maritime archaeology program is of particular interest that the museum has. The museum has conducted many maritime archaeology projects in Australia as well as abroad. On its web page, the practice of maritime archaeology practice of the museum is explained as: "The Australian National Maritime Museum's Maritime Archaeology Program advises and assists Commonwealth and State authorities responsible for shipwreck material, and has been actively involved in a number of underwater projects."[5]

2.7- Conclusion

Among the many museums that I could explore over the internet, I have found the ones I have listed above the most inspiring. Looking at them gave me the opportunity to see the wide range of displays, activities, collections, educational programs that are possible in a museum. These museums have included different aspects of a maritime museum such as ship replicas, fishing boats, marine life, sea trade, changing ship technology, and underwater archaeology.

2.8--Examples from Turkey

Unfortunately, there are no maritime museums in Turkey. There are a few naval museums which are run by the Turkish military. The naval museums differ from maritime museums as they are devoted to the naval history of a country and do not often house any civilian collections which are collections outside military or navy, collections of the daily life. The museums I have chosen in Turkey, for comparative analysis are the Beşiktaş Naval

[5] http://www.anmm.gov.au/site/page.cfm?u=116

Museum, Bodrum Museum of Underwater Archaeology, and the Çanakkale Military Museum. The reason I chose the Beşiktaş Naval Museum is that it is the biggest naval museum in Turkey and it provides an introduction to naval museums in Turkey and can give some ideas about the future exhibits of the Seddülbahir Maritime Museum. As my proposal in the Seddülbahir in the future is to become a center for underwater archaeology, the Bodrum Museum of Underwater Archaeology is an interesting example to look at. Not only is the Bodrum Museum the only underwater archaeology museum in Turkey, but it is also located in a fortress which is similar to Seddülbahir, and it is a center for underwater archaeology which displays the findings from underwater excavations among many items. The Çanakkale Military Museum was chosen both for its location and the collections. It is located across from the Gallipoli Peninsula and its collections are related to the First World War.

2.8.1- Beşiktaş Naval Museum http://www.dzkk.tsk.mil.tr/muze/English/Ana_Sayfa.htm

The Naval Museum was first initiated in the year 1897 as "Naval Museum and Library" and was situated at the Imperial Dockyard in Hasköy. With the start of the Second World War, the objects of the museum were transported to Anatolia to ensure their security. In the year 1946, the objects were brought back to İstanbul to be displayed at Dolmabahçe Mosque. Finally, the museum moved to its present place at Beşiktaş in 1961.[6]

There are three different sections in the museum. The first section is the main exhibition building which consists of three floors; the second section is the open-air exhibition in the garden of the museum, and the third section is located at the back of the museum towards the sea, and houses the exhibit of imperial caiques. The main exhibition building consists of three floors. At the entrance floor, there is the main entrance hall to which

[6] http://www.dzkk.tsk.mil.tr/muze/Turkish/Tarihce.htm

the smaller exhibition halls are opened. These smaller halls have different themes which are marked on their entrances, such as Atatürk room, which is devoted some personal belongings of Atatürk, as well as the impressive cabin from his yacht Ertuğrul, his bed from his yacht Savarona, and models of the yachts. The other halls include, The Hall of Charts which houses different historic maps and sea charts, The Room of Martyrs, which is devoted to the Ottoman martyrs starting from the thirteenth century, as well as other halls which house paintings, photographs etc. On the upper floor, there are two main exhibition halls to which smaller exhibition halls open on. One of the main halls is devoted to models of the ships that have served in the Turkish navy throughout history. There are also different halls, with costumes, and uniforms that were used by the Turkish navy throughout history; there are halls with paintings, as well as a hall devoted to the Turkish naval academy. On the lower floor, there are different rooms such as the room of lanterns which displays lanterns from various ships, there is a ships and memorabilia room which has parts from ships that were used by the Turkish navy. There are even displays of diving history and underwater gear before SCUBA was invented.

At the entrance of the ground floor of the main exhibition building there is a gift shop. There are many souvenirs in the gift shop such as ashtrays, key chains, scarves, ties, lighters, medals etc. There are also books in the gift shop related to naval history of Turkey and the sea. There are also maps. The gift shop is among the best ones that I have seen in museums in Turkey with its diversity of items. Across the gift shop there is the cloakroom.

The open-air exhibition mainly displays cannons and some ship parts. The second building in the museum is devoted to the impressive imperial caiques. It is a very big hall displaying the original imperial caiques used by the Ottoman sultans starting from the time of Mehmed IV. Beşiktaş Naval Museum has a large range of collections which are organized into smaller halls each with a theme; the labels that are quite informative and helpful for the

visitor. What is lacking in the museum is a good pamphlet which could give some extra information as well as leading the visitor through the exhibits.

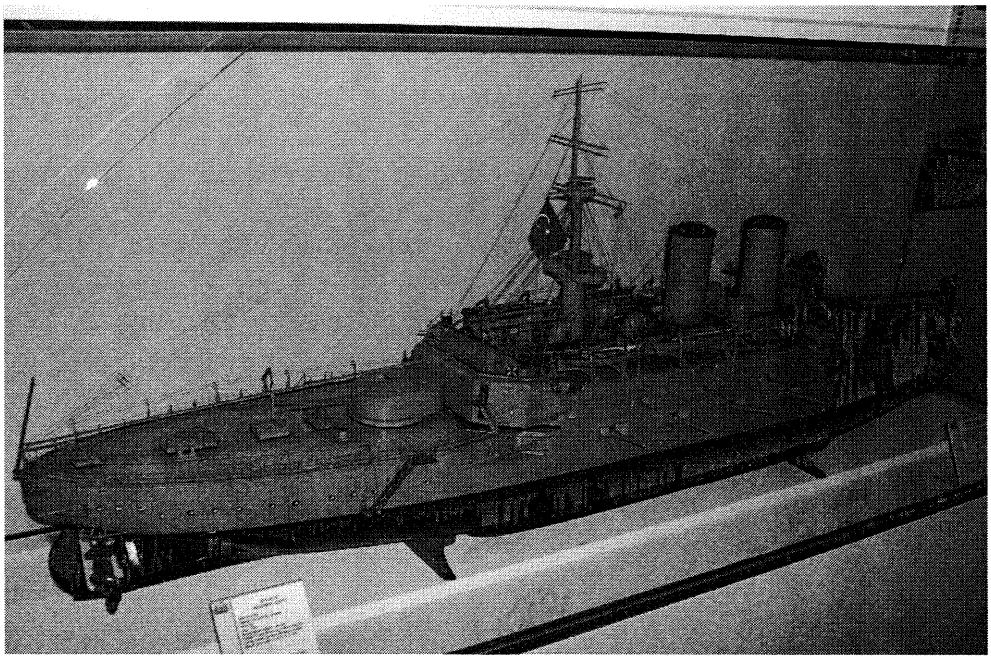


Fig. 5. Display of a ship model from the main hall of the upper floor

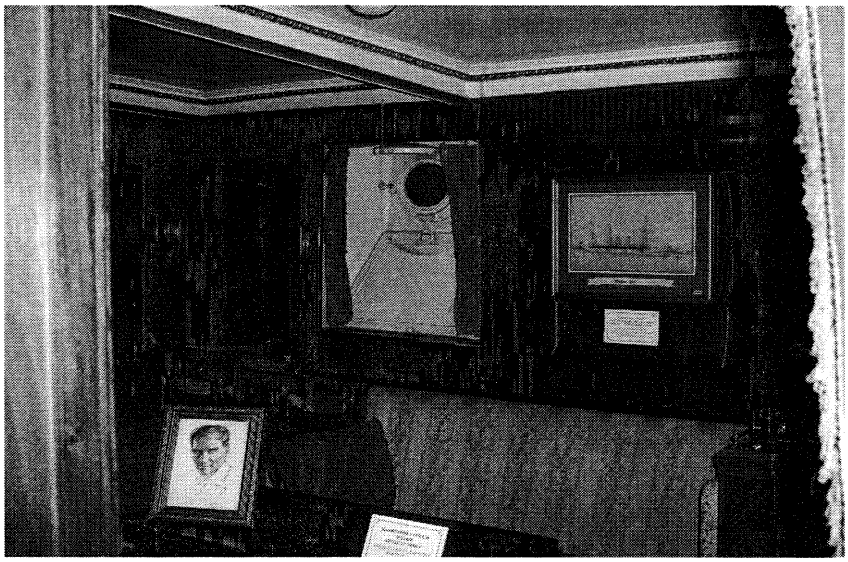


Fig. 6. Atatürk's room from his yacht Ertuğrul

are parts from the original Nusrat boat, original materials from the war, and original Ottoman newspaper articles about the war with their Turkish translations which were published during the war, as well as original parts from the famous Ottoman ships, the Mesudiye and Sultanhisar, and Ottoman documents like diplomas.

The third part of the museum is housed in the Çimenlik Fortress and can be visited by guided tours only. The tour starts with an interesting display in the courtyard of the fortress. There is a cannon ball which was fired from the Queen Elisabeth, which created a hole in the wall, but did not explode. They have put a light inside the hole and one can see the ball at the end of the hole. Inside the fortress, the tour begins with an eight minutes video that gives information about the naval war of 18th of March. After the video, the tour continues with information on the displays such as war materials like guns, bombs, documents about the war, as well as relief maps and models describing the war.

On the upper gallery there is a misé en scene about the war with one actor and mannequins. It tells the story of the difficulty of daily life in the Turkish front. In the garden of the museum there are also items on display like bombs, torpedoes, mines. There is a section in the middle for the children to teach them about sailor knots, ship parts and naval equipment.

The Çanakkale Military Museum is an interesting museum to visit. Its location is very pleasant by the sea. Even though the displays in the first section are quite old, they are well-organized into different halls with themes. And the panels are helpful to follow the history. The replica of the Nusrat boat is interesting to look at and the exhibitions inside it are very informative which explain the naval history of the First World War through panels and photographs. Also, there are original documents of articles from the Ottoman newspapers during the war. In the fortress, the displays are well organized and , they have informative panels and labels, and the collections are various. Also, the small presentations with models

are interesting way of informing about certain parts of the war. However, as the tour is guided, there is not enough time given to the visitors to look at the displays. Another negative part of the guided tour is that, it is told in a very nationalistic point of view. The main theme is bravery of Turkish side and lack of guns and equipment when compared to the 'enemy'. I believe a more objective way of describing the war in necessary in the guided tours. The misé en scene on the upper floor also has a very nationalistic rhetoric which can be changed.

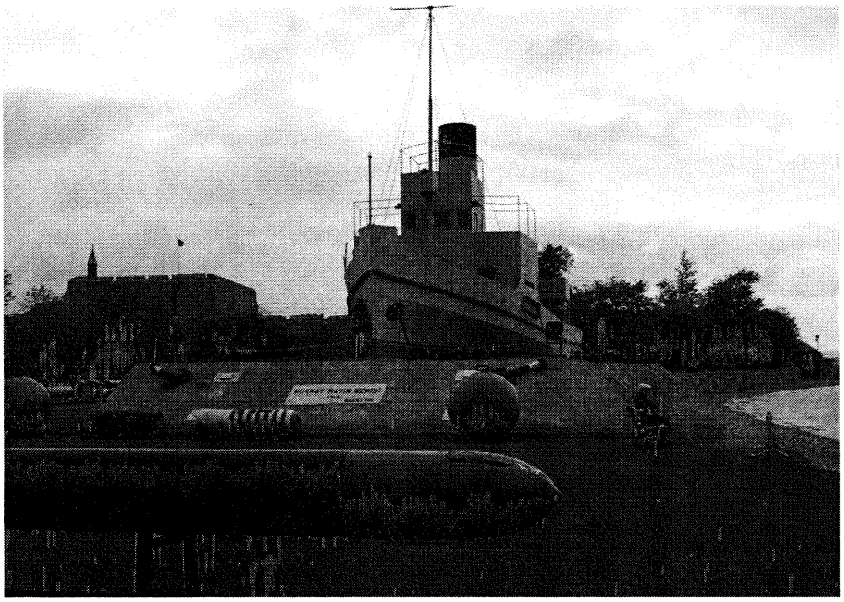


Fig. 8. The replica of the Nusrat minelayer ship and Çimenlik fortress in the background

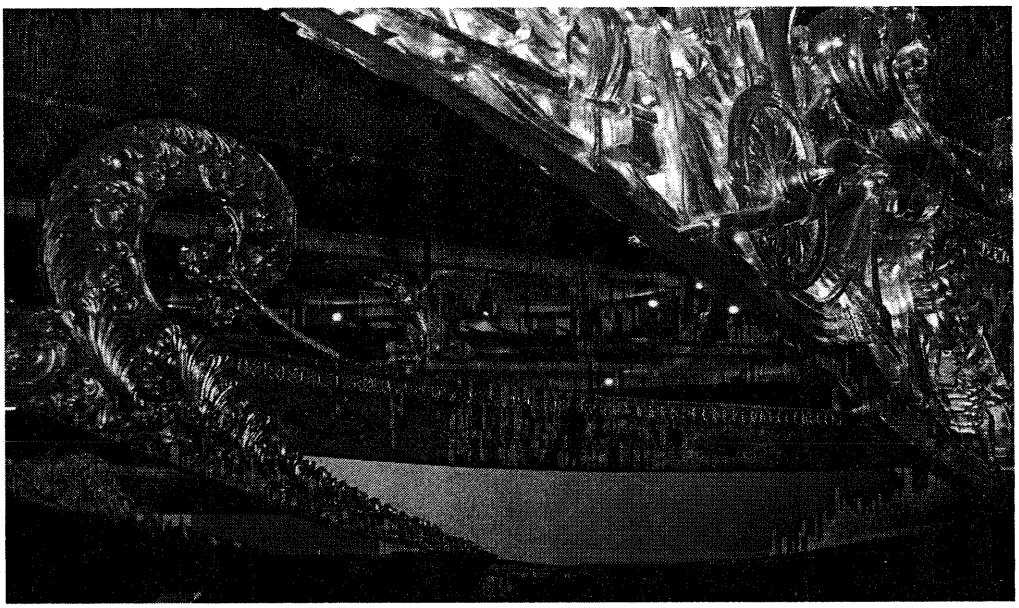


Fig.7. A detail from the hall of the imperial caiques

2.8.2- The Çanakkale Military Museum

The Çanakkale Military Museum is located in Çanakkale, across from the Gallipoli peninsula on the Asian shore. The museum was founded in 1982 and the section inside the Çimenlik fortress was opened in 2005. This museum consists of three parts:

The first part is the gallery with the history of the World War I and war materials like guns and bombs as well as uniforms and documents. It is a small section with an entrance hall and eight small exhibit halls organized with different themes such as naval wars, room of honor, bullets, land wars, Nusrat and the captain Nazmi Bey and so on. There are panels on the walls explaining the history of the First World War.

The second part is the replica of the minelayer boat Nusrat. On the entrance floor inside the boat, there is a glass case displaying Nusrat's plans. On the walls of this section, there are panels with Nusrat's history and activities during the First World War. The lower floor is much larger than the entrance floor. It starts with panels which give detailed information about the naval wars in the Dardanelles with maps and pictures. On display there

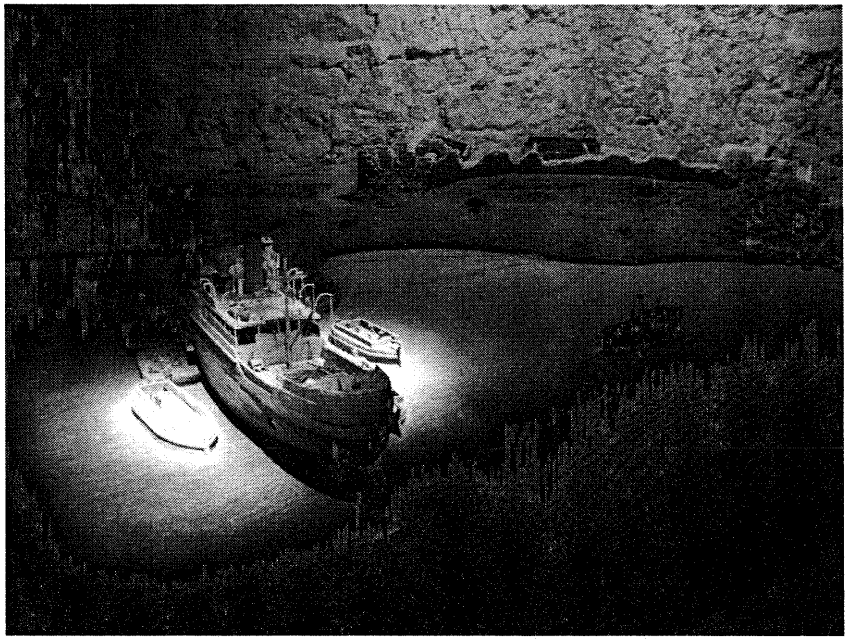


Fig. 11. A display with model ships about the landings in the Gallipoli campaign inside the Çimenlik fortress

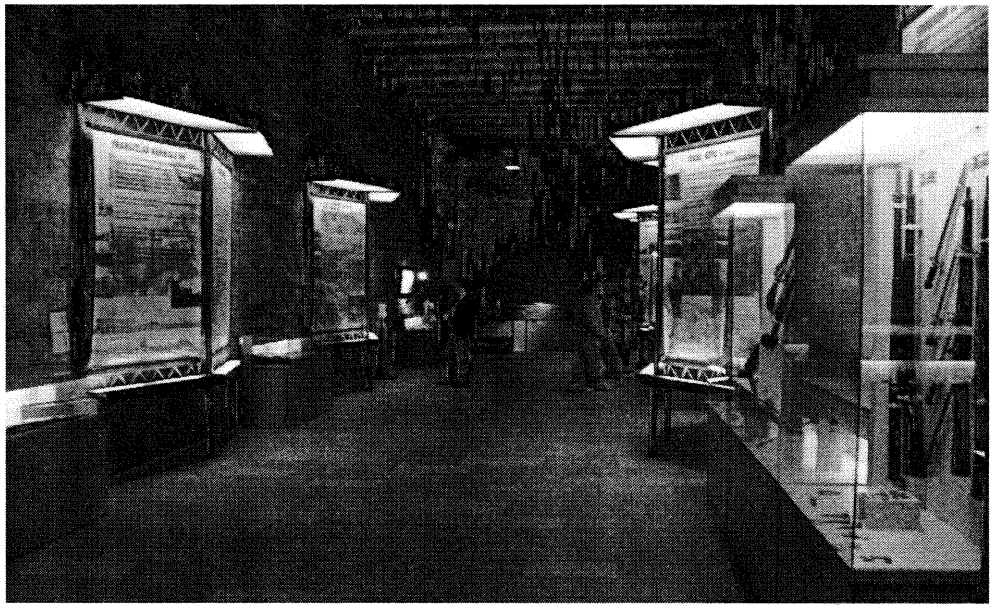


Fig. 12. Glass cases displaying guns inside the Çimenlik fortress

2.8.3- Bodrum Museum of Underwater Archaeology

http://www.bodrum-museum.com/

The reason that I chose to analyze Bodrum Museum of Underwater Archaeology is that it is both a fortress museum and also has underwater collections. This museum is very interesting especially the hall of glass wrecks, which includes glass items like vases, bottles etc. found in a shipwreck. It houses the findings from the world's earliest shipwreck which was discovered. The museum is situated in the castle and some parts of the courtyard have also become display areas. For example, there is a display of different kinds of amphoras with informative labels about where and how they were produced and why did they have the particular shape. The rest of my analysis will be based on the web page of the museum[7] as well as the article of T. Oğuz Alpözen, who was the former director of the museum.

The Bodrum Museum is located in the historic castle of Knights of St. Jean. This castle was founded in the 1400s, and continued with interruptions until 1513. Under the reign of Süleyman the Magnificient, the Ottomans had seized the castle without any fighting on 1 January 1523. It was used as a prison under the reign of Abdülhamid II. During the First World War, it was bombed by French dreadnought Dublex. In the year 1960, it became the storage of place of the Gelidonya wreck findings and renovation of the castle had started. After the renovation, various parts of the castle such as the towers, the dining room of the knights etc. have all became exhibition halls of the museum.

The building that was used as a chapel by the knights, and as a mosque by the Ottomans, is used today as an exhibition hall of the findings from the Gelidonya shipwreck excavation. This wreck is dated to the eleventh century BC, and it is known as the first scientific shipwreck excavation in the world. The part that was used as a dining room by the

[7] http://www.bodrum-museum.com/index.htm

knights is the Byzantium Hall. It is devoted to findings from the Byzantine shipwrecks. There is also a display of a replica of a shipwreck excavation displayed in an aquarium.

There are also different halls that display amphoras, jewellery, old coins, glass excavations found in a ship wreck as well as findings from archaeological excavations made on the land.



Fig. 9. Interior of replica of Nusrat, on the lower floor, a display of original pieces from Nusrat

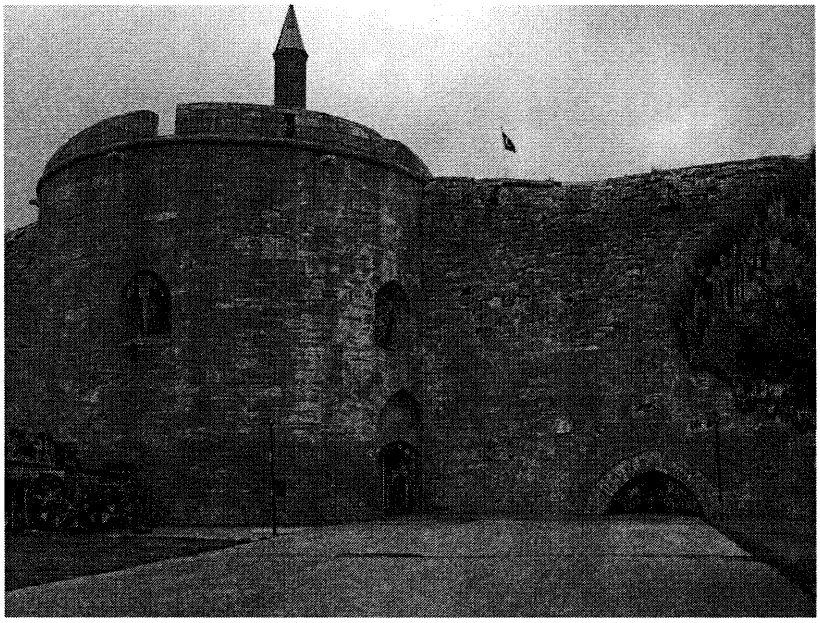


Fig. 10.The Çimenlik Fortress, exterior

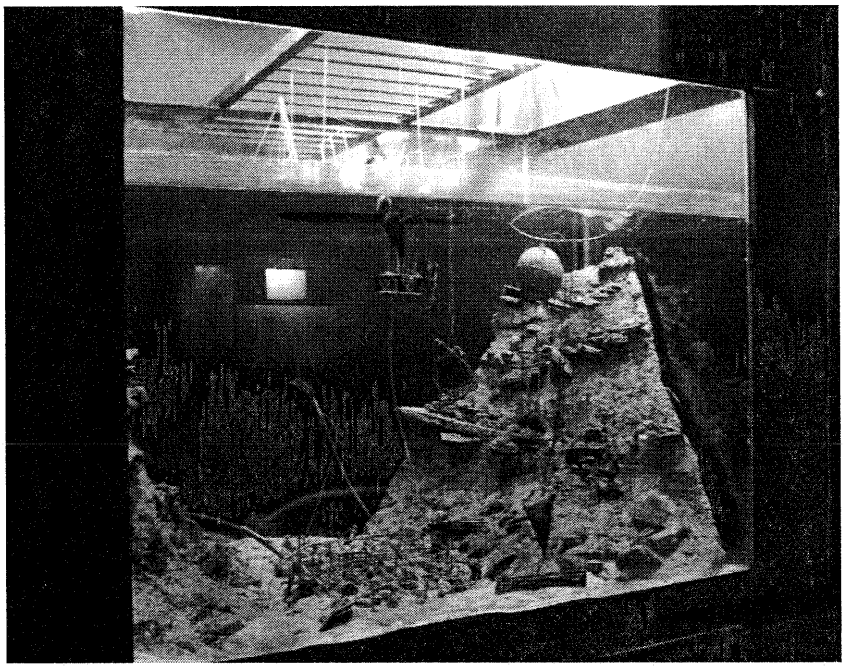


Fig. 13. A model displaying underwater archaeology practice.



Fig. 14. One of the displays of glass that was found in the shipwreck excavation.

Chapter 3

Museums in the Gallipoli Region

In order to understand the general framework of the museums in the Gallipoli region, and how the Seddülbahir Maritime Museum can complement them, it is necessary to analyze the museums in the region. I visited both the museums and war memorials, as part of my research for the museums. I will not include the war memorials in my analysis, as they are outside the scope of my research.

Among the museums of the peninsula, The Kabatepe Visitor Center and Bigalı Atatürk House are under the jurisdiction of the directorate of National Parks which is under The Ministry of Environment and Forestry. The Main Info Center at Kilye is also under the jurisdiction of Ministry of Environment and Forestry, but it has been rented by a private company from the ministry for 29 years. The Museum of the 19th Division (19. Tümen Müzesi) belong to the mukhtar or local municipal representative of the Bigalı Village and the rest are private museums which are actually called galleries. The private museums are funded privately by the owners. None of the museums in the region have humidity control, or proper lighting that is essential in a museum. They also do not have any pamphlets, or guides that can be used during the visit.

3.1- The Kabatepe Visitor Center (Kabatepe Tanıtım Merkezi)

The Kabatepe Museum was built in 1984. The museum facility is composed of a car park, a memorial, and a museum. It was transferred to the Ministry of Forestry in 1988. (Kara 28) The museum has one small exhibition hall, which starts with an exhibition of guns and

bombs from the war and which are displayed in the open without any protection. There may be plenty of these war materials, but I still think it is necessary to cover them somehow as people touch them and even hold them. Following the open exhibitions, there are glass cases which display war materials like bullets, bombs as well as materials used by the soldiers like flasks, medical equipments, forks, and spoons, tin containers that contained powder, cacao, and shaving tools. There are also medals, identification tags, post seals. Also on display are real human body parts like teeth, bones, a boot with the remains of a soldier's foot, and even a skull with a bullet in it. The glass cases at the end of the left hand side contain some letters from the soldiers in the front. Then there are well-known photographs of the war hung on the wall continuing towards the exit, until large glass display cases. These cases contain various soldier uniforms from the war. At the exit hall, there are various photographs, documents from the war as well as medals and plaquettes from both sides and a resting area with armchairs.

This museum looks very old in terms of its building and its displays. First of all, the glass cases should be restored with paint or changed with new ones. The collections inside the cases are dusty, the documents have faded, and the displays in the open are even worse in their conditions. The exhibition hall is very small and does not allow one to look at everything one wishes as when it is crowded as there is one path to follow from the entrance to the exit. The labels inside the cases are very limited; they just identify these items and have no information is provided about where and how they were found. Another important weakness is the translations of the labels in English which are often incorrect. There is no timeline or any informative panels about the Gallipoli campaign. The museum is like an old-fashioned assemblage of items without any goal to inform the visitors; it is just a place with items to look at. What I noticed in my second visit was that the air conditioners were working and it was not so hot in inside. The usage of air condition can also have negative effects on the

collections due to lack of humidity control. The newly added curtains are another positive aspect which must have also blocked the sun and gave the museum a more decent clean look as the windows were very dusty. On the other hand, these curtains will collect dust.



Fig. 15. The Kabatepe Visitor Center Exterior

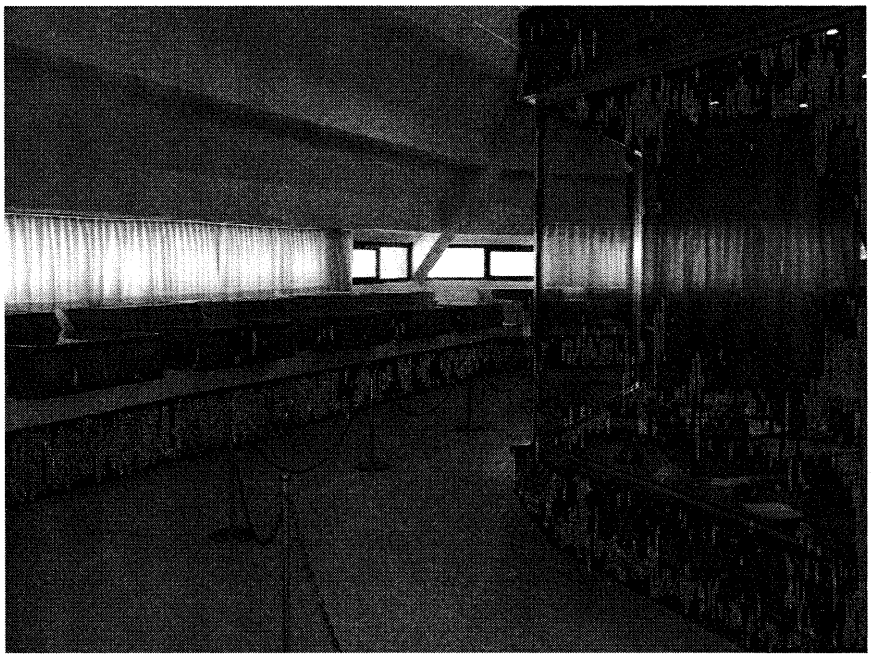


Fig. 16. The Kabatepe Visitor Center exhibition hall



Fig. 17. The exit hall and the resting area

3.2- Bigalı House of Atatürk (Bigalı Atatürk Evi)

This museum is located in the Bigalı Village. It has been used as headquarters for the 19th Division which was formed by Mustafa Kemal. The building was transformed into a museum in the year 1973 and was restored in the 1980's. The building is an example of traditional local architecture. The items on display are some furniture and objects used by Mustafa Kemal and his uniforms as well as photographs. (Kara, 34)

The museum is composed of two floors and a courtyard. The ground floor has an entrance hall with photographs and there are two rooms which are decorated with traditional village furniture. Upstairs, there is a bed room and a study where Mustafa Kemal worked. The courtyard of the museum has pictures of the Turkish commanders of the war. It is a small village house which does not offer much of a collection. In fact, it is difficult to call it a museum; it is rather a place of remembrance of an important post. It has a courtyard with pictures on the walls. This museum is under the jurisdiction of National Parks Directorate similar to the Kabatepe Visitor Center.



Fig 18. Bigalı Atatürk House from its courtyard

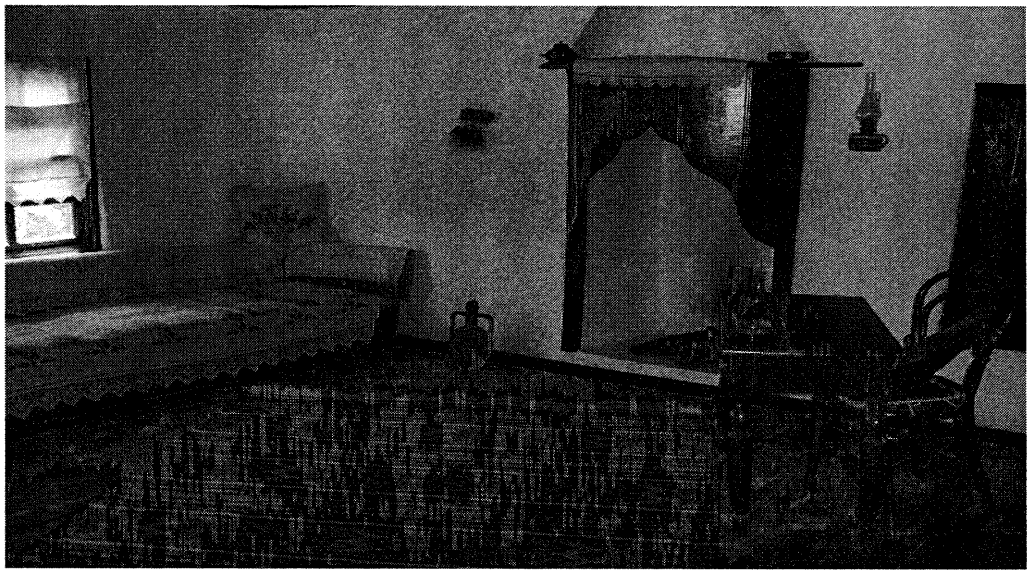


Fig. 19.Inside Bigalı Atatürk House- study of Mustafa Kemal



Fig. 20. The courtyard exhibition of Turkish commanders of the Bigalı Atatürk House

3.3- The Museum of the 19th Division (19. Tümen Müzesi)

This museum is also located in the Bigalı village in a village house. It is dedicated to 19th Division, which operated under the command of Mustafa Kemal. The museum belongs to the village. The museum consists of two floors. At the entrance hall, there is section of display of a living area of the village house, which does not have anything related to 19th Division, but a picture of Mustafa Kemal on the wall. On the upper floor, there are two rooms; one is very small and the other one is bigger. There are glass cases which display various war materials like bombs, swords, kitchen utensils which were used on the front. Apart from these, there are documents on display which show some orders written to the both 19th Division and other divisions of the Turkish front.

It is a very small museum which does not offer much different collections to the visitors than rest of the museums in the area. However, the building itself is a traditional village house and the museum shows the importance of the Bigalı village during the war. The village is partly restorated, and the visitors who come to visit the Atatürk house often visit the museum of 19th Division as well, according to the only staff working in the museum.

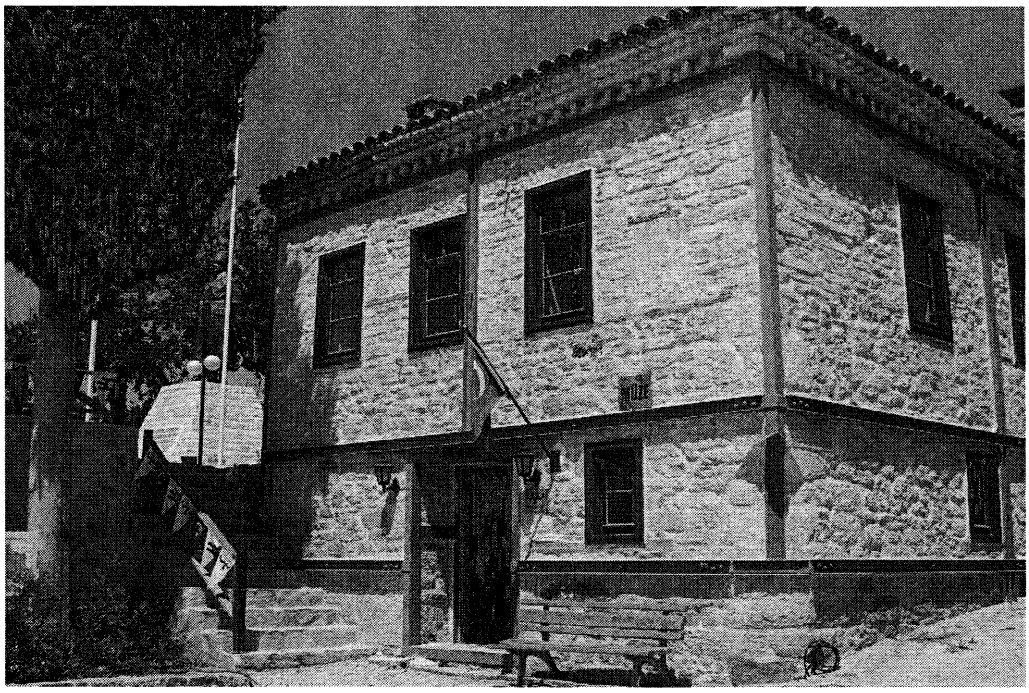


Fig. 21. The Museum of the 19th Division exterior

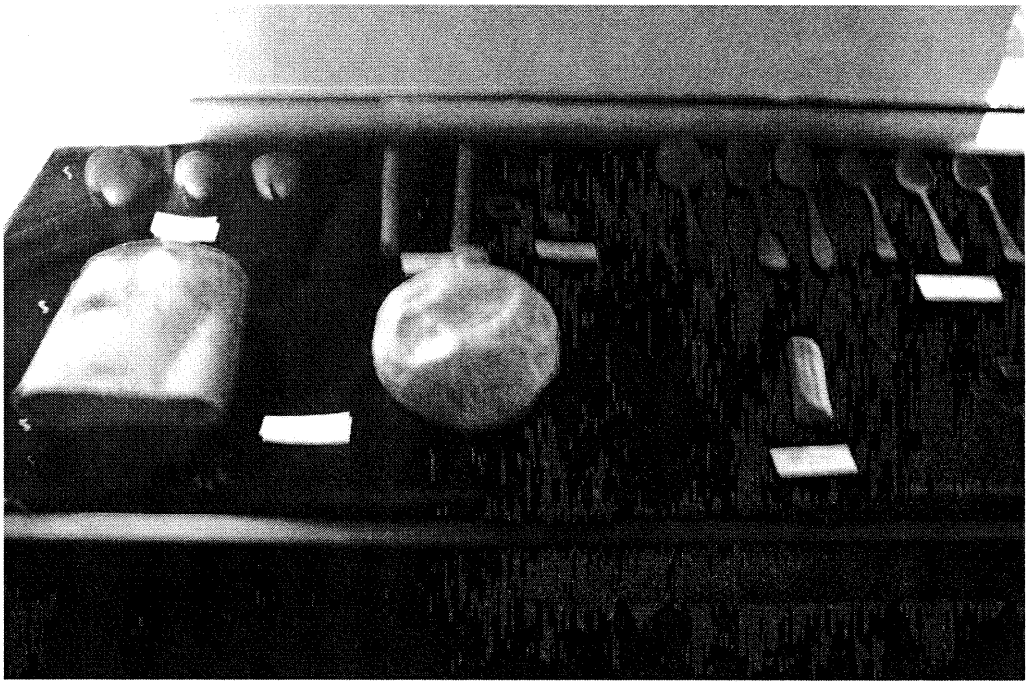


Fig. 22. One of the displays of the Museum of the 19th Division.

3.4- Seddülbahir 1915 The Gallery of War Materials (Seddülbahir 1915 Savaş Malzemeleri Galerisi)

http://www.canakkalesavaslari.com/galeri/default.asp?Page=10&ShowSub=GALERI

This is a private museum was founded by Ahmet Uslu. Like the rest of the private museums in the region, it is called a gallery and it is funded by the owners.The reason that they are called galleries is that because they are privately owned and it is easier to get an official permission under the gallery status. It was founded in 2004. The museum is located in the Seddülbahir village. The museum is composed of two floors. On the entrance floor, there are glass cases displaying various weapons like guns, bombs, bullets, uniforms and uniform parts such as buttons, belt buckles and kitchen utensils including forks, spoons, bottles, as well as photographs, letters, coins and banknotes, badges, emblems etc. On the wall, there are panels with anecdotes about the war on them. The lower floor is very similar to the first floor with glass cases and similar collections. On the exit, inside the museum, there is a corner where they sell beverages and a few guide books and history books about the peninsula.



Fig. 23. A display of uniforms of different armies in the museum.



Fig. 24.A general look of the gallery's interior with glass cases and pictures on the wall.

3.5- Salim Mutlu Museum (Salim Mutlu Özel Harp Anıları Koleksiyonu)

The Salim Mutlu Museum is located in the Alçıtepe Village. This museum was founded in 1961 by Salim Mutlu and it is the first private museum in the region. The museum building is a village house. At the entrance of the museum, there are many newspaper articles about the museum hung on the wall. After the entrance, there is a courtyard which leads to the first part of the museum. It is a small room displaying bombs, guns, bullets, kitchen utensils etc. Across the first room there is the second part of the museum which has similar war materials along with bones and a skull. There are also old photographs of the museum, hung on the walls displaying visits of leaders or generals to the museum.



Fig. 25. Salim Mutlu Museum exterior



Fig. 26. Inside the second hall of the museum.

3.6- The Live Gallery of the Gallipoli War (Çanakkale Savaşları Canlı Tarih Galerisi)

This museum is another private museum funded privately by the owner, located in the Alçıtepe village. It is a long hall which is divided into different sections. The exhibitions begin with a display of war materials and the rest are representations with mannequins, of different stories of Turkish soldiers and people. These representations include a Turkish soldier carrying a wounded Anzac soldier, Turkish soldiers praying at the front, a Turkish soldier reading a letter at the front and so on. There is also music played from speakers. On the prayer scene is represented, sound recording of a prayer is played. The representations in the museums are very simple. They are not very realistic. The events that are chosen to be represented are either highly nationalistic or Islamic such as the prayer scenes. The way the mannequins are dressed such as a child wearing a prayer hat is an example to the Islamic representation. Most of the events are not historical, but fictional stories.

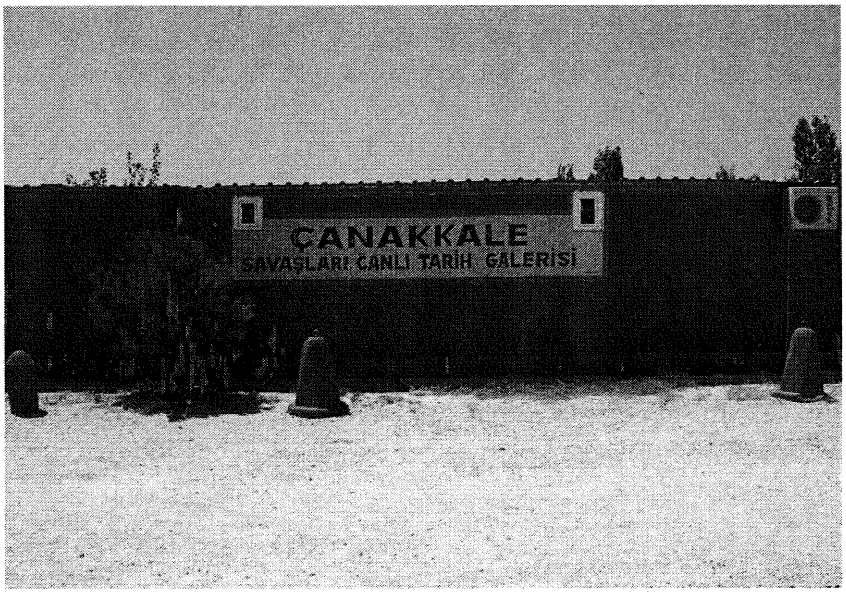


Fig. 27. The museum exterior.



Fig. 28. One of the exhibits , Turkish soldiers praying at the front.

3.7- The Main Info Center (Kilye Koyu Ana Tanıtım Merkezi)

. It is composed of a closed exhibition hall, an open exhibition area, a café, a cinema, a meeting room, a souvenir shop, and a library. The main hall introduces the history of the region through labels, maps, photographs, and panels with no original collection of its own. It is an information center, as its name indicates, which gives an introduction to the Gallipoli region and the National Park. Following these panels, there is an exhibit with dates and events of the naval wars of the Gallipoli campaign. The exhibit on the opposite side has the dates of events of the land wars. In the middle of the room, there is a big relief map of the peninsula, on which there are buttons that light different sections on the map like the Turkish memorials, the Allied memorials and so on. Above the map, there are flat screens that show a documentary about the war. This hall gives an introduction to the history of the Gallipoli Peninsula. Apart from the labels about the peninsula, there are few original documents related to the war such as a letter written by one of the Turkish commanders, on display. There are

two kiosks that have a variety of information from the history of the peninsula to names of Turkish martyrs. Unfortunately, on my second visit, neither of these kiosks was functioning.

It is a suitable point to get information before starting the tour of the peninsula both due to its location, general introduction to the history, as well as maps that are available in the shop. However, the maps and guide books sold on the gift shop are insufficient. The gift store in general is not very attractive with the items on sale. The café has a nice view with not much variety of food to offer.



Fig. 29. The main info center exterior.

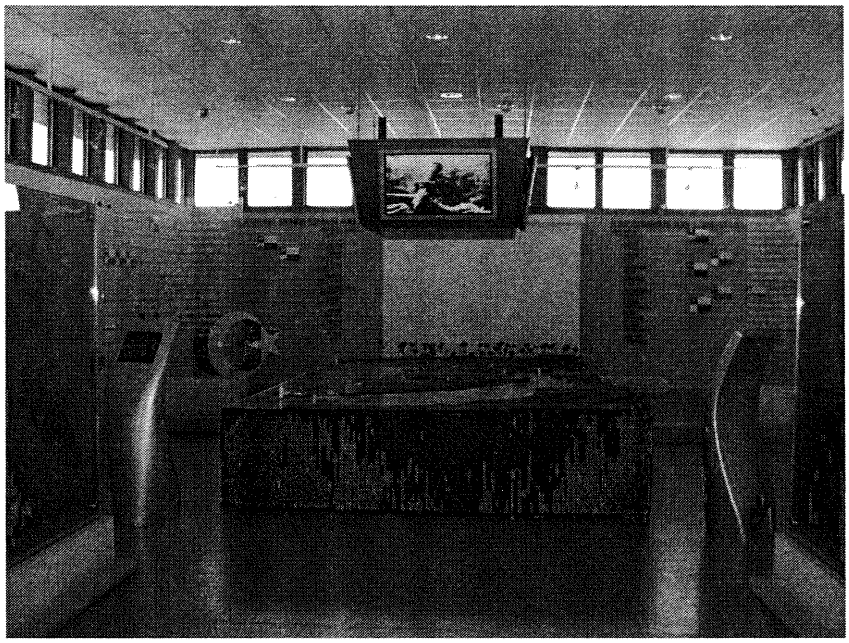


Fig. 30. Interior, with relief map in the middle, land and naval war labels on the sides.

Inside the main info center, with relief map of the peninsula in the middle, the two kiosks on both sides, the flat screens on the top, and at the back on the corners, the chronology of sea and land wars.

3.8- Kilitbahir Exhibition of the Gallipoli War (Kilitbahir Çanakkale Savaşları Sergisi)

This exhibition is housed inside one of the towers of the Kilitbahir fortress. It was opened on May 19th, 1998. There is one main hall, divided into five small corridors. It is a small collection of war materials like bombs, knives, bullets, bayonets, and kitchen utensils like forks, cups, spoons, medicine bottles, bones, skulls as well as photographs, letters and some information about the war. The information is displayed on the wooden stands.

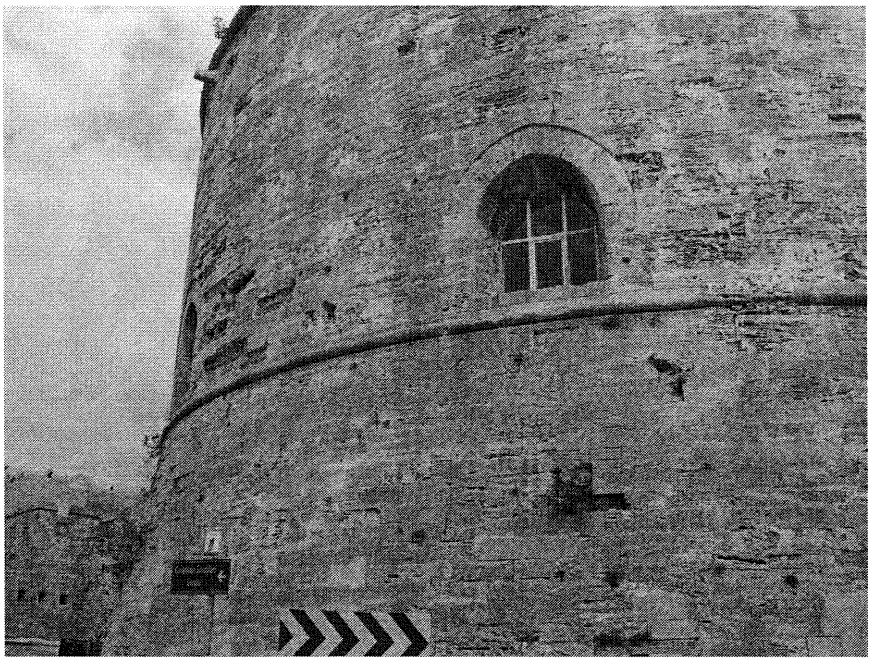


Fig. 31. Kilitbahir exhibition hall exterior.

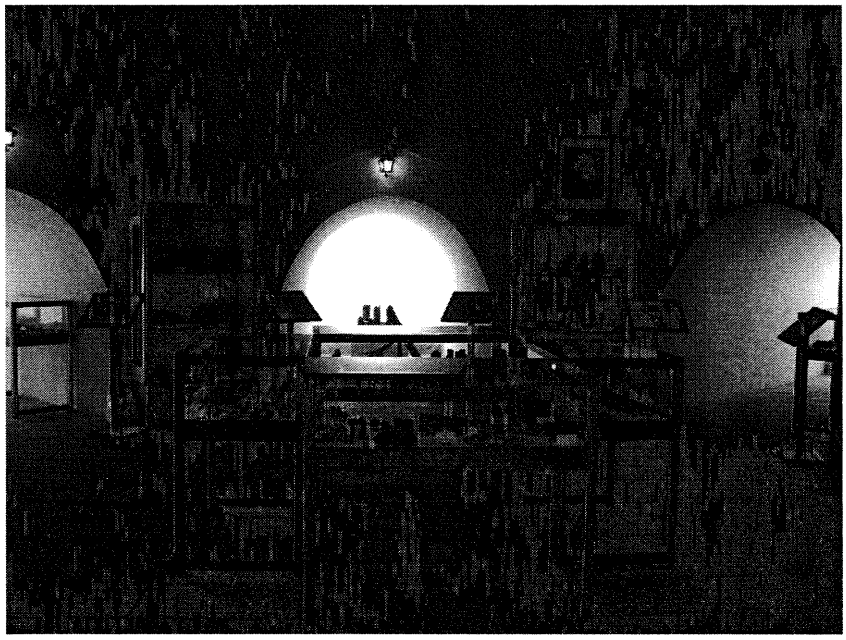


Fig. 32. Kilitbahir exhibition interior.

Chapter 4

Proposal for Seddülbahir Maritime Museum

After having researched the history of the region as well as visiting the museums there, I was convinced that there is definitely a need for a museum in the region. A Maritime Museum is very suitable for various reasons. First, the fortress is located right beside the sea, at a point which has witnessed many naval activities as well as wars. Secondly, all the museums in the region are similar, with the World War I as their main theme and war materials as their collections. Also, as the peninsula, which is being organized as a "Peace Park", it is better suited to have a maritime museum, which embraces different aspects of the war as well as the history of the fortress which is often neglected. The peninsula has a much older history than World War I, which will be presented in the museum. Also, Turkey is a country surrounded by the sea and still does not have enough research and display facilities about the sea. The region is under the protection of the Ministry of Environment and Forestry, the sea should also be protected. There can be a protection area in the sea and it can be an underwater park. This park will not only provide protection for the shipwrecks, but also the marine life there. Finally, establishing an underwater archaeology institute will be very beneficial as there are plenty of shipwrecks to be researched and excavated. The opening of such an institute can help underwater archaeology to be better known and understood in Turkey. Underwater archaeology is still a new practice in the world and Gallipoli can become one of the important centers for it.

4.1- The Collection

There is no available collection for this museum. However, there are findings from the excavations in the fortress conducted by the Kaletakımı. I believe a hall should be devoted to their work and findings. I have decided to create different halls devoted to different aspects in the history of the fortress. The first hall to be visited will be "History of Seddülbahir" section. In this section, I plan to lead the visitors through the time line of Seddülbahir with informative panels, old photographs of the fortress as well as, old maps and drawings. I believe starting with the earliest history possible will be a good introduction to history of the fortress. The next section in the history hall will be about Seddülbahir, how and when it was built, and the short history of Venetian-Ottoman wars which was the main reason that the fortress was built. Definitely, Hadice Turhan Sultan who is the patron of the construction will be emphasized. The final section of the historical timeline will be the World War I with special emphasis on naval wars and how was the fortress of Seddülbahir used during this time, its importance and its contribution to the war.

A separate section in the "History of Seddülbahir" will be reserved for the works of Kaletakımı with photos of what has been done in the fortress, the excavations, and display of artifacts which were found in the fortress.

Another section will be devoted to the community who live in the Seddülbahir Village. There can be exhibitions of their photographs along with their identification of the fortress, what they remember about its history, and what it means to them. There can also be exhibitions of the arts or crafts of the community.

There should be an underwater archaeological institute built by the museum to conduct survey, documentation, and excavation of numerous shipwrecks in the region. A hall should be devoted for underwater archaeology, to inform the visitors about underwater archaeology first, which is not a very well known discipline. The main purpose of the hall is

4.3-Outreach

In organizing the outreach programs, the visitors should be categorized in order to be able to create programs that are suitable for them. For schoolchildren, various games of learning about museum and history of the region are possible. Also, educational materials should be published in accordance with school curriculums that are downloadable from the museum's web page. These materials will help the teachers to get their students prepared for the visit.

There should be outreach programs for the adults as well, which include the tourists as well as the locals. Screening of documentaries, and panels related to the region given by the local as well as national and international historians. In order to attract visitors in the off season of winter and fall, there can be interesting seminars especially about underwater archaeology.

4.4- Activities

While I was looking at different activities of different museums, I realized that one of the best activities that can be organized in the museum is a boat trip. As the museum is located by the sea, a small port can be constructed. From this port, boat tours to the north of the peninsula can be organized. These boat tours will be of extra charge and will give opportunity to the visitors to see the landing beaches during World War I by a much enjoyable journey by the sea.

4.5-Underwater Archaeology Institute

Cultural heritage is not limited only to the land, but there is underwater heritage as well. Underwater archaeology is a relatively new discipline and it is rarely practiced in Turkey despite the fact that Turkey's seas house many historical wrecks. The underwater excavations in Turkey include the Bronze Age shipwreck found in Uluburun, the shipwreck found in the Serçelimanı and Cape Gelidonya wrecks. The important center of

underwater archaeology is the Bodrum Museum of Underwater Archaeology in Turkey. There is also the Turkish Institute of Nautical Archaeology (TINA), which is devoted to this field works on different wrecks all over Turkey. However, the First World War wrecks are not excavated yet. The advantages of these wrecks are they are more intact as they are not very old and they are located in the same area. I believe the underwater archaeology institute to be established at the Seddülbahir Maritime Museum will be first in that sense in terms of the date of the wrecks as well as being in the same region.

Underwater archaeology has still not 'crystallized' as a generally acknowledged field of research. It is partly because of economic constraints as well as the discipline not being well known. The 'Underwater Cultural Heritage Document', prepared for the Parliamentary Assembly for the Council of Europe notes six problem areas that must be addressed to realize the field's full potential:

1. The uncertain academic status of underwater archaeology.
2. Adequate training of technical support personnel and facilities.
3. Funding of research.
4. Protection through legislation
5. Implementation of the preceding points.
6. Improving public awareness of the underwater cultural heritage. (Gifford, Redknap, Flemming 374)

There is already an institution that practices underwater archaeology in Turkey, and it is located in Bodrum. It is called INA (Institute of Nautical Archaeology). It has mainly worked on the excavations that are now on display at the Bodrum Museum of Underwater Archaeology. It is a very good institute; however, I believe that there should be new branches of the institute all over Turkey. What interests me at this point is having such an institute at Seddülbahir to be able to work on the shipwrecks in the region.

Conclusion

There is an important project that was written for the region that is called the Long Term Development Plan or UDGP in Turkish. According to this plan the Gallipoli Peninsula is under protection due to its historical importance. It is a national historical park and its theme is devoted to peace according to this plan. UDGP covers variety of aspects of the peninsula such as management of the national park, protection, display of history, building and restoration for protection, protection of national heritage and many others. There is even emphasis on the underwater archaeology of the region. To summarize the underwater heritage protection that the plan aims, it says that underwater heritage must be marked, surveyed and protected, their visits should be controlled, and underwater archaeology methods should be learned and practiced. After looking at this plan which was initiated to have a policy about protection and management of the region, I was more convinced with my proposal for an underwater archaeology institute. The reason is that it even fits the general long term plan for the peninsula. Therefore, a maritime museum inside the fortress of Seddülbahir along with an underwater archaeological institute is my proposal.

Fortress of Seddülbahir was built in 17th century, under the patronage of an imperial woman, Hadice Turhan Sultan. It is located on the European side of the Dardanelles, on the Gallipoli Peninsula. The fortress has been under restoration, renovation, and reusage project of the Kaletakımı. For the reusage part of the project, a maritime museum is being planned to be built. In this thesis I tried to explain the historical background of the region, in order to understand it better. I tried to explore the whole history of the Gallipoli region and Seddülbahir to clarify what was important in its history which is well worth using in the museum. In my history chapter, I tried to concentrate on naval wars for the main theme of the museum. Additional research was needed in order to outline general characteristics of

maritime museums, which was completed by the research of various sites on the internet. I have also added an analysis of the museums in the region to understand what the region really needs in a museum. I have concluded my thesis with my proposals for Seddülbahir Maritime Museum.

Having done all the research, I decided that Seddülbahir is a unique case with its history, location as well as the availability of the shipwrecks in the region. Therefore, I decide to make a proposal that suits best to this unique case. An underwater archaeology institute may not be a usual component of a museum, but in the case of Seddülbahir, I realized it is very important. As half of the history of the region is related to the sea, ignoring it would leave the museum also unfinished. The rest of the museums all emphasize the war, but only with collections and war materials that were founded on the land. However, there is a big part of the World War I history, which is lying under the sea. It will be mission of the underwater archaeological institute to survey, document, and excavate them. The museum will be available for display of the findings from the excavations or even ships themselves. I know it is a very long and demanding process, but it will be a study field for the various scholars from around the world. I believe Turkey can not make use of its seas in terms of underwater heritage and this institution will start a new era. It can also serve as an example and initiate opening of new centers in Turkey.

Seddülbahir being an historical site itself, which is located by the sea which houses many wrecks which are not very old, are two important features of this museum. The institute that is devoted to the underwater archaeology will result in survey and research of the wrecks of the region along with increasing public awareness and knowledge about the wrecks and underwater heritage. There will be a better control mechanism on the wrecks as thy will be worked on. Overall, this is a unique opportunity for both the region and underwater heritage of Turkey.

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Allied Submarines*			
Name of Submarine	**Tonnes**	**Sinking Date**	**Artillery**
E-15	730	17.04.1915	Artillery unknown.
AE-2	800	30.04.1915	Artillery unknown.
E-10	730	02.05.1915	Artillery unknown.
E-2	730	19.08.1915	Artillery unknown.
E-7	730	04.09.1915	Artillery unknown.
E-20	730	05.11.1915	Artillery unknown.
E-14	730	25.01.1918	Artillery unknown.
E-82	730	31.01.1918	Artillery unknown.

British Warships*

Name of Ship	Class	Tonnes	Speed	Year of Construction	Artillery								Explanations
					38.1cm	30.5cm	25.3cm	23.4cm	15cm	15.2cm	10.2cm	7.5cm	
Queen Elizabeth	Drednot	28000	25	1914	8					16		12	Was damaged in 18th of March in Dardanelles
Inflexible	Battle Cruiser	17600	25	1908		8					16		Was damaged in 18th of March in Dardanelles Thought to have sunk afterwards.
Indomitable	Battle Cruiser	17600	25	1908		8					16		
Indefeatigable	Battle Cruiser	19050	26	1911		8					16		
Irresistable	Iron Clad	15020	18	1902		4				12		18	Was sunk in 18th of March in Dardanelles
Implecable	Iron Clad	15020	18	1902		4				12		18	
Agamemmon	Iron Clad	16750	19	1907		4		10				24	Was damaged in 18th of March in Dardanelles
Lord Nelson	Iron Clad	19000	19	1908		4		10				24	
Majestic	Iron Clad	14950	17.5	1895		4				12		16	Was sunk by a Turkish submarine in May 25 1915
Prince George	Iron Clad	15150	18	1894		4				12		16	
Albion	Iron Clad	13950	19	1902		4				12		12	
Ocean	Iron Clad	13150	19	1902		4				12		12	Was sunk in 18th of March in Dardanelles.
Vengeance	Iron Clad	13150	19	1902		4				12		12	
Canopus	Iron Clad	13150	19	1902		4				12		12	
Goliath	Iron Clad	13150	19	1902		4				12		12	Was sunk by Muavenet-i Milliye's torpedo in May 13 1915
Prince of Wales	Iron Clad	15250	18	1900		4				12		16	
London	Iron Clad	15250	18	1900		4				12		16	
Queen	Iron Clad	15250	18	1900		4				4		16	
Cornwallis	Iron Clad	14200	19	1899		4				12		12	
Swiftsure	Iron Clad	12000	20	1904			4		14			14	
Triumph	Iron Clad	12000	20	1904			4		14			14	Was sunk by a Turkish submarine in May 25 1915
Black Prince	Cruiser	13750	23.5	1906				6			10		
Duke of Edinburg	Cruiser	13750	23.5	1906				6			10		
Defence	Cruiser	14800	23.5	1904				4	10			16	
Warrior	Cruiser	13750	23	1903				6	4			24	
Orbals	Cruiser	12200	22	1898				2		12		12	
Dorris	Light Cruiser	5700	19	1896						11		9	
Tallbot	Light Cruiser	5700	19	1896						11		9	
Minerva	Light Cruiser	5700	19	1912						11		9	
Dublin	Light Cruiser	5500	25.5	1912						8			Four of 4,7cm gun
Catham	Light Cruiser	5500	25.5	1912						8			Four of 4,7cm gun
Weymouth	Light Cruiser	5300	25.5	1912						8			Four of 4,7cm gun
Gloucester	Light Cruiser	4900	26.3	1909							10		
Amethyst	Light Cruiser	3050	23.6	1902							12		
Topas	Light Cruiser	3500	23.6	1902							12		

to exhibit the findings from the wreck excavations as well as displaying the different phases of these excavations. For example, at the beginning, the maps with locations of the shipwrecks can be displayed, followed by surveys and documentations of the wrecks such as recent photographs and videos. This can give the visitors idea about the current situation of the wrecks in addition to archival photographs that show their original conditions.

There can be many different ideas adopted in terms of displaying the shipwrecks. There can be cameras installed in the wrecks which show them in real-time to the visitors. There can be cameras filming the underwater excavations; there can be tours to experienced divers to explore the wrecks to start with. After some parts are excavated and taken out to land, the different processes that they go through can also be in display or even archaeologists at work can be areas of visit. The main aim here is to inform the visitors about underwater archaeology and how it is applied. I do not know if there is any institution that applies any of these techniques, but I know that they can easily be applied with necessary equipment such as underwater cameras and lighting.

4.2- Display methods

The first collection that the museum has is the items that were foung in the excavations of the fortress by the Kaletakımı. The other main collections will be the underwater archaeological findings. Along with them, there will be a section to lead the visitors through panels with photographs, maps, and drawings followed by informative panels. What is important here is to create panels that are easy to follow, which complement each other and which give enough information. Accurate and short historical descriptions are necessary which are organized chronologically. As I have noted there can be live screenings, or screenings of some documentaries about the shipwrecks, as well as displaying different levels of how underwater archaeology is being conducted.

French Warships*												
Name of Ship	**Class**	**Tonnes**	**Speed**	**Year of Construction**	**Artillery**							**Explanations**
					34cm	30.5cm	27.4cm	16.4cm	14cm	10cm	6.5cm	
Soufren	Iron Clad	12730	18	1903		4		10		8		Was heavily damaged in 18th of March in Dardanelles
Vertier	Iron Clad	14900	19	1908		4		10		8	13	
Bouvet	Iron Clad	11205	17	1896		2	2		8	8		Was sunk in 18th of March in Dardanelles
Gaulois	Iron Clad	11300	18	1907		4			10	8		Was heavily damaged in 18th of March in Dardanelles
Charlemagne	Iron Clad	11300	18	1908		4			10	8		
IV.Henry	Iron Clad	8950	17	1908			2		7			
Saint Louis	Iron Clad	11300	18.5	-		4			10	8		
Lorrain	Iron Clad	23000	20	1912					22			
Provence	Iron Clad	23000	20	1912					22			
La Touche Treville	Iron Clad Cruiser	4800	18.4	1892				2	6		4	
Jeanne d'Arc	Cruiser	11300	21	1896					2	16		
Bacchante	Cruiser	-	-	-								
Ascold	Cruiser	6500	23	-								As a Russian Cruiser, she came from Far East to join the French navy

*Ali, Emin. "Çanakkale'ye Düşman Donanmasının Saldırıları". .
Yeni Mecmua Çanakkale Özel Sayısı 18 Mart 1918
Ed. Muzaffer Albayrak and Ayhan Özyurt. İstanbul: Yeditepe Yayınevi, 2006

Appendix for the Maritime Museums Worldwide

The Maritime Museums, United States

1. The Annapolis Maritime Museum: http://www.annapolismaritimemuseum.org/
2. The Mystic Museum, Connecticut: http://www.mystic.org
3. Los Angeles Maritime Museum: http://www.lamaritimemuseum.org/
4. The Maritime Museum of San Diego: http://www.sdmaritime.com/
5. San Francisco Maritime National Historic Park: http://www.nps.gov/safr/
6. Newport Harbor Nautical Museum: http://www.nhnm.org/
7. Chesapeake Bay Maritime Museum: http://www.cbmm.org/
8. Baltimore Maritime Museum: http://www.baltomaritimemuseum.org/

The Maritime Museums, Canada

1. Maritime Museum of the Atlantic: http://museum.gov.ns.ca/mma/index.html
2. Vancouver Maritime Museum: http://www.vancouvermaritimemuseum.com/

The Maritime Museums, Australia and New Zealand

1. Australian National Maritime Museum: http://www.anmm.gov.au/site/page.cfm
2. Maritime Museum Tasmania: http://www.maritimetas.org/
3. New Zealand National Maritime Museum: http://www.nzmaritime.org/home.html
4. Queensland Maritime Museum: http://www.maritimemuseum.com.au/index.htm
5. South Australian Maritime Museum: http://www.history.sa.gov.au/maritime/maritime.htm
6. Western Australian Maritime Museum: http://www.museum.wa.gov.au/maritime/

The Maritime Museums, Europe, and the rest of the world

1. Hong Kong Maritime Museum: http://www.hkmaritimemuseum.org/
2. Rotterdam Maritime Museum: http://www.maritiemmuseum.nl/website/
3. National Maritime Museum: http://www.nmm.ac.uk/
4. Maritime Museum of Antwerp:

   http://museum.antwerpen.be/scheepvaartmuseum/index_eng.html
5. Center for Maritime and Regional History, Denmark: http://www.fimus.dk/foseng.htm
6. The Maritime Museum of Finland: http://www.nba.fi/en/mmf
7. Hamburg Museum: http://www.hamburgmuseum.de/index_e.html
8. Genoa Museum of the Sea: http://portale.galatamuseodelmare.it/jsp/index.jsp
9. Maritime Museum, Barcelona: http://www.diba.es/mmaritim/english/index.htm
10. Maritime Museum in Sweden: http://www.marinmuseum.se/
11. Merseyside Maritime Museum: http://www.liverpoolmuseums.org.uk/maritime/
12. Inishowen maritime Museum and Planetarium:

    http://www.inishowenmaritime.com/index.shtml
13. National Maritime Museum Cornwall: http://www.nmmc.co.uk/
14. Shipwreck Center and Maritime Museum: http://www.iowight.com/shipwrecks/
15. The Hull Maritime Museum:

    http://www.eazhull.org.uk/summerschool02/towndocks/home.html
16. NYK Maritime Museum, Japan: http://www.nykline.co.jp/rekishi/e/

Underwater Heritage Websites

1. Bronze Age Shipwreck Excavation at Uluburnu: http://ina.tamu.edu/ub_main.htm
2. Advisory Council on Underwater Archaeology: http://www.acuaonline.org/

3. Institute of Nautical Archaeology: http://ina.tamu.edu/
4. National Historic Ships Committee: http://www.nhsc.org.uk/
5. The Maritime Heritage Project: http://www.maritimeheritage.org/
6. Turkish Institute of Nautical Archaeology: http://www.tinaturk.org/index.html
7. Underwater Times: http://www.underwatertimes.com/index.htm
8. Wrecks and shipfinds of the Mediterranean:

   http://www.abc.se/~m10354/uwa/wreckmed.htm

Glossary of ship types*

Pre-dreadnought: The term pre-dreadnought refers to the kind of battleship built in the closing years of the 19th century and the first years of the 20th century, and which was made obsolete by the launching of HMS *Dreadnought* in 1906.

The pre-dreadnought can be seen as the last ironclad warship or as the first modern battleships. During the 1890s, the use of steel construction and hardened steel armour made it possible to overcome many of the technical challenges which had dogged ironclad construction in previous decades, and reconcile heavy protection with speed, range and seakeeping. Only in the 1890s did it become possible to list a set of definitive characteristics shared by all battleships: steel armour; a main battery of very heavy guns supported by one or more secondary batteries of lighter weapons; and triple-expansion steam engines fed by coal-fired boilers.

Dreadnought: The dreadnought was a battle ship made in the early 20th century, of a type modelled after the revolutionary HMS Dreadnought of 1906. Dreadnoughts were distinguished from previous battleships, known as pre-Dreadnoughts, by an 'all-big-gun' armament and by the use of steam turbines for propulsion.

Battlecruiser: Battlecruisers were large warships of the first half of the 20th century first introduced by the British Royal Navy. They evolved from armoured cruisers and in terms of ship classification they occupy a grey area between cruisers and battleships. Generally, battlecruisers were similar in layout and armament to battleships but they traded off armour or firepower for higher speed, which showed in their more powerful engines and slender hulls; they still retained enough firepower and protection to be classified as capital ships. On the other extreme, considerably smaller vessels which were upscaled cruisers, such as large cruisers and pocket battleships, are often considered by some to be battlecruisers as well.

Cruiser: cruiser, large, fast, moderately armed warship, intermediate in type between the aircraft carrier and the destroyer. During World War II, battle cruisers operated as small battleships, combining in one vessel maximum qualities of gun caliber, armor protection, and speed. Upon the retirement of the battleship from the major navies of the world, the cruiser became the largest of the conventionally armed warships in commission. The cruiser's primary mission in modern warfare is to provide antiaircraft defense and gunfire support for aircraft carriers.

Light Cruiser: Light cruisers, lightly armed and very fast, are often employed in scouting, police duties, and other jobs where speed rather than defensive strength is important. The advent of guided missiles as the primary offensive weapon of modern warfare has led to the conversion of many cruisers into guided-missile cruisers.

Ironclad: ironclad, mid-19th-century wooden warship protected from gunfire by iron armor. The success of the ironclad when first employed by the French in the Crimean War sparked a naval armor and armaments race between France and Great Britain.

***http://www.reference.com/**