

# The Internal Situation in the Ottoman Court and Britain after the Defeat of the British Army in Rosetta 1807, an Analytical Study

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**Abstract:** Undoubtedly, the political scene and the international conflict after the English campaign on Egypt in 1807 witnessed decisive changes, especially after the denounced defeat of the British army, and the emergence of signs of inclusion and complicity between Britain and the Ottoman court represented by the Ottomans' failure to occupy Egyptian ports such as Alexandria, Rosetta and Damietta to extend military authority over them. This appealed to Muhammad Ali, who found in the defeat of the British army a reason to extend his authority over the ports, to eliminate the Mamluks, and to make efforts to ensure the stability of the rule. Many changes occurred in the Ottoman court after the battle that helped start the coups in the Ottoman palace, and caused the coup against the Ottoman Sultan Selim III, who blessed this campaign. As for Britain, the political and military features of this conflict have emerged, especially since the defeat of the British army has confused the global political situation, and has affected society, the government and the British House of Commons, in addition to the tragedies that befell King George III. This research deals with the disastrous results that affected the internal situation in the Ottoman sublime Court and Britain after the defeat of the British army in Rosetta 1807. The Ottoman Empire by the beginning of the nineteenth century, and presents the coups against the Ottoman palace and the removal and killing of Selim III. It also presents the internal situation in Great Britain after the defeat at Rosetta (1807-1812), where the repercussions of the defeat on the British king and the impact of the defeat on the political and military scene in Britain emerged.

**Keywords:** the English campaign, Alexandria, Rosetta, Damietta, the British army, Britain, the Ottoman court, Muhammad Ali, the Ottoman Sultan, Selim III, King George III.

## First: Coups against the Ottoman Palace (1807-1808)

### 1. The conditions of the Ottoman Empire deteriorated by the beginning of the nineteenth century

The Ottoman Empire lost much of the territory it ruled over the previous century, however, the threat of conservative and traditional Janissaries<sup>1</sup> [1-2] and the sultan's elite forces prevented reforms from being carried out by more liberal rulers [3].

The era of Selim III<sup>2</sup> [7], who sat on the throne of the Sultanate in succession to his uncle Abdul Hamid I in 1789, was the era that witnessed the international conflicts in which Egypt witnessed the most important events, namely the French campaign in 1799 and the British campaign in 1807, and the war battles were continuing, so he gave his time and effort to fight, he was one of the owners of high vigor and reformers of his time.

At the beginning of his rule, Russia continued its attack on the Ottoman Empire, as the wars contributed to the weakening of the Ottoman Empire significantly. Therefore, after this treaty, the Sultan emptied himself for reforms, so he appointed Koshak Hussein Pasha Qabodana as general, who worked to rid the sea trade routes with Europe of pirates, as well as He fortified the ports, built a number of castles, and built a number of warships on the French roads. He also brought skilled craftsmen from Sweden and France, and took advantage of Europe's preoccupation with wars with Austria in order to unify and strengthen his army significantly.

In 1799, France launched a campaign against Egypt led by Napoleon Bonaparte, with the aim of cutting off the trade route to the English, and Napoleon said that he came at the request of the Sultan to eliminate the Mamluks who wreaked havoc in the country. This campaign angered Sultan Selim III, who made an alliance with the Russians and the English in order to evacuate the French from Egypt, who had failed to control Acre, and after the allies dealt several blows to the French, and after the plague spread among the soldiers, France withdrew. After that, good relations between France and the Ottoman Empire were restored, and the commercial privileges that had been canceled during their occupation of Egypt were restored.

After that, England tried to force the Ottoman Empire to break its alliance with France, which was defeating Europe through its leader, Napoleon Bonaparte, and threatened the capital with artillery fire on ships in the Dardanelles, but it did not succeed in that. Britain took advantage of the war between Russia and the Ottoman Empire in which the Ottomans were busy defending Egypt, which called on the Ottoman Sultan not to be exposed to the campaign, but rather to bless it, as he was seeking to achieve interests in Europe as long as Egypt remained in his hand and he would not be harmed by the presence of British forces in the ports Egyptian as long as all of Egypt is under Ottoman control, and the best evidence of this coincided with the Russian-Ottoman war with the campaign against Egypt, and the Russian-British alliance.

As a result of the Russian army's move to occupy some Ottoman lands on November 11, 1806, and the forts on the left bank of the Danube, Sultan Selim III declared war on Russia on December 18, 1806, at a time when Britain was preparing for its campaign against Egypt.

When the British fleet led by Admiral Dekorot entered at the end of January 1807 the Dardanelles Strait and crossed to the Sea of Marmara, as the British asked the Sultan to allow the British Navy to pass the Dardanelles fortifications and to break the alliance with Napoleon I, the Turks refused, and the British fleet was besieged, forcing Admiral Decorot in late February 1807, to flee from the Dardanelles Strait under the fire of Ottoman artillery, and thus opened a front for the Ottomans against Great Britain, which was called (Anglo-Ottoman War 1807-1809), and the Sublime Porte allied with France, and in the spring of 1807 the Russian fleet besieged the Ottoman fleet in the Dardanelles Strait And he defeated him in a major battle on May 10-11, 1807, which resulted in the destruction of 3 Ottoman ships, and the losses in personnel amounted to 2,000 Ottoman soldiers. The Ottomans agreed to surrender, and on June 28, 5,000 Ottoman soldiers were transferred to the shore, and all weapons and guns were handed over to the Russian army [8]. All of these events precipitated the coup that overthrew Sultan Selim III in 1808 [9].

Selim III drew his ideas to a certain degree from the French Revolution, whose efforts at Westernization culminated in the conscription of the new regular forces in 1805. The reforms, especially conscription, angered the Janissaries and other conservative elements, which protested and killed the reformers.

After the death of the Mufti of the Ottoman Empire, who was a supporter of the Sultan, the Janissary soldiers led by the rebel leader Mustafa Kabakci on May 29, 1807, deposed Selim and quickly replaced him with his cousin Mustafa IV, who imprisoned his predecessor to the satisfaction of the royal palace, and Mustafa pardoned the rebels, and allied with Janissary soldiers, and he demobilized Salim's recently formed army.

Mustafa Pasha al-Bayraqdar revolted against them, so Mustafa IV's men took the initiative to kill Caliph Selim III on the 28th of July 1808, thus bringing down the curtain on the life of this sultan, whose reign witnessed two campaigns against Egypt: the French campaign led by General Napoleon Bonaparte in 1798 and the British campaign led by General Fraser in 1807, the two campaigns were defeated and both were forced to withdraw from Egypt.

Was it not for the Russians' preoccupation with fighting Napoleon in the West, and their harsh defeat at the Battle of Friedland, which effectively ended the battle of the Fourth Coalition War (1806-1807) against Napoleon. After nearly 23 hours of fighting, had it not been for this battle, the Ottoman army would have suffered the largest defeat in its history. Where the French took control of the battlefield and the Russian army retreated, and on July 7, 1807, Russia and France concluded the first treaties of Tilsit, where the Russian Tsar Alexander I met with Napoleon I after the battle, and they agreed on peace, and that Russia should stop fighting the Ottomans, and accept the French as a mediator between the two parties.

The French historian Lavalley states that the Russians and the French secretly agreed to divide the Ottoman European states between them in the event that the Ottomans did not accept French mediation, so that France would get Greece, Albania, Bosnia and Macedonia, and Russia would get Bulgaria, Wallachia and Baghdad, while Austria would be appeased with the territory of Serbia. It is evident that Napoleon betrayed the Ottomans, after his promises to Selim III of support in all its forms were the main reason for the country's entry into a land war with Russia and a sea war with England. The Ottomans accepted the French mediation, and a temporary truce was obtained between the two parties [10-11].

Sultan Mustafa IV (September 8, 1779 - November 15, 1808) was the Sultan of the Ottoman Empire between 1222-1223 AH (1807-1808). During the reign of Selim III, a favorite of the Sultan. And he assumed the caliphate after deposing his cousin Selim III [12]. When the Janissary revolution broke out against Selim III, Mustafa deceived the Sultan and supported the Janissaries who deposed the old sultan and made Mustafa the new ruler. As a result, the new regime's military dispersed, but there remained sympathy with Selim III. The new caliph installed the ministers who remained alive after the recent events in their positions, and also opened a school to graduate qualified translators.

The era of Sultan Mahmoud Khan II [13] (July 20, 1785 - July 1, 1839) witnessed extensive reform steps. He assumed the reins of the Ottoman Caliphate in 1808 at the age of twenty-three. While Selim was imprisoned in the palace, he taught reform ideas to Mahmoud, who by completing the reforms that had been halted by the Janissary coup in 1807, he witnessed the era of vast reform steps, and tried to awaken the Ottoman Empire, and push it to what it deserves of the status and appreciation it deserves.

He resolved to go on the path of reform that some of his predecessors took from the Ottoman caliphs, and he decided to start with military reform, so he commissioned the Grand Vizier "Mustafa al-Bayraqdar" - the leader of the rebellion that led to his assumption of power, and the reforms they implemented led to the anger of the Janissary soldiers again - Organizing the Janissaries and reforming their conditions, and forcing them to follow the old regulations established since the reign of Sultan Suleiman the Magnificent and gradually neglected. In an attempt to frighten Mahmoud, the Janissary soldiers staged a short revolt and killed the vizier, which prompted the Sultan to cancel the reforms and demobilize the army, which were carried out according to the model of Selim's reforms again.

As for the impact on the following events, Mahmoud was able to take over the rule for a greater number of decades, despite his anger at the Janissary soldiers earlier. By 1826 he had become less fearful of the Janissaries and in the Benevolent Incident, some historians claim, was able to intentionally cause the unit to revolt. He called his regular forces and used artillery to bomb the headquarters of Janissary soldiers, and destroyed the ability of the elite forces to fight. He captured the survivors and executed them shortly thereafter. Then Mahmoud pursued military and social reforms without fear of a coup, which, despite its modernization of the state, did not prevent its deterioration [14].

## **2. Coups against the Ottoman Palace and the removal and killing of Selim III**

The set of coups against the Ottoman palace [15] in the years 1807-1808 was summed up in the rebellion of the Janissaries, which aimed to isolate or restore the throne to three of the sultans of the Ottoman Empire, who failed to achieve security, especially after the Ottoman Empire was subjected to many violations and defeats, and conflicts between it and the powers escalated. Great at that time, the most important of which were Britain, Russia and France. The reform attempts were from Selim III, and the events that the Ottoman states in Egypt and Europe were exposed to, lost the prestige of the state, and put the first stages of crystallization of the ambitions of the great powers to divide the property of the Ottoman Empire [5], and that was a direct justification for these coups.

One of the most important results of the first coup was the closing of the curtain on the life of Sultan Selim III, whose reign witnessed two campaigns against Egypt: the French campaign led by General Napoleon Bonaparte in 1798 and the British campaign led by General Fraser in 1807, although the two campaigns were defeated and each of them had to withdraw from Egypt. With the strength of the Ottoman garrison, but due to the increase in popular resistance, especially in the English campaign, which lost the prestige of the Ottoman Sultan, who incited his forces and fleet not to participate after the Ottoman Sultan's complicity with Britain was revealed to keep British garrisons in the Egyptian ports.

Ironically, the first coup occurred on May 29, 1807, in the month following the defeat of the British campaign on Egypt, when Janissary soldiers led by rebel leader Mustafa Kabakci removed Selim III from the throne, imprisoned him, and quickly replaced him with his cousin Mustafa IV (1807-1808), who He imprisoned his predecessor and then killed him on July 28, 1808, and then the Battle of Rosetta was the final nail in this sultan's coffin.

The Janissaries were the fuel for these revolutions against the Ottoman sultan, and they represented elite infantry forces in the Ottoman army, who formed the special guard of the Ottoman Sultan. The strongest and most influential divisions of the Ottoman army, and the Janissaries were prisoners of war from the boys who were separated from their families and origins, and they were brought up with an Islamic upbringing, provided that the Sultan was their spiritual father, and that war was their only profession.

However, this great importance of the Janissary group turned into a power center that disturbed the life of the Ottoman Empire, and exposed it to many temptations and unrest. of matters of rule and authority; They demanded the removal of the existing sultan by virtue of his rule and assigned to others, and they received gifts upon assuming each new sultan.

The phenomenon of Janissary interference in state policy began from an early age in the history of the state, but this intervention had no effect during the era of the great sultans of the state; Because their strength was restraining these Janissaries, even if the state began to weaken and shrink, the influence of Janissaries began to appear, they were isolating the sultans and killing some of them, as they did with Sultan Osman II, who removed him from his position, and killed him in 1622, and they did the same with Sultan Ibrahim I, so they By strangling him in 1648, protesting his hostility towards them, and their actions sometimes extended to killing or deposing.

During the period of its weakness, the sultans of the state did not have the power to ward off these evils or stand in their face, so the Janissaries killed Hassan Pasha during the reign of Sultan Murad IV in the year 1042 AH (1632). They stood in front of Sultan Mahmoud II when he wanted his army to happen and they set up a rebellion and the Sultan was forced to postpone his attempt for a later time.

The coups against the Ottoman palace [15] in the years 1807-1808 refer to a group of coups and rebellions to isolate or restore the throne to three of the sultans of the Ottoman Empire, which occurred as a result of reform attempts by Selim III [5]. These are the coups led by Mustafa Kabakçı on the Ottoman Palace from 1807-1808. They are three coups that took place in one year in the Ottoman palace and during which 3 sultans were replaced. Led by the leader Mustafa Kabakci, who controlled this rebellion and ruled over the sultans who put them on the throne due to the weakness of the Ottoman Empire in that era and its passing through a difficult time in the history of the Ottoman Empire.

After the deterioration of the Ottoman state at the beginning of the nineteenth century and with the loss of the Ottoman state many of the lands that it ruled for centuries and with the death of Sultan Abdul Hamid I in 1789, his nephew Selim III was appointed as heir to the throne. His efforts at Westernization culminated with the conscription of the new regular forces in 1805, and the reforms, especially conscription, angered the Janissaries and other conservative elements, who protested and killed the reformers, who supported the sultan.

The revolutionaries who had overthrown the government of Sultan Selim in Constantinople differed, and in 1808 an army led by Mustafa Pasha Bayraktar set out to Istanbul to restore Selim III to power, and to execute the revolutionaries, supported by the new Grand Vizier and the majority of ministers, and indeed succeeded in penetrating Astana, and punishing the heads of the revolution, and did not Al-Bayraqdar revealed that someone wanted to restore Sultan Selim to power, and pretended to be ready to leave for his country, Rostjak, in Bulgaria, after what he had announced had been done to him. When Jund al-Bayraqdar continued to advance, Mustafa ordered the execution of Selim III and another brother of his, Mahmoud. This would make Mustafa the only remaining male of the dynasty, thus giving him any legal contender for the throne, he thought. Selim was killed and his body thrown in front of the dissidents, but Mustafa was overthrown and replaced by Mahmoud, who escaped execution by hiding. Mustafa was executed in the same year after serving a sentence of thirteen months [10].

However, Alemdar Mustafa Pasha, the influential ruler of Russia, broke free from Mustafa's shackles and plotted to overthrow him, and his efforts led to a second revolution in 1808, and the imprisoned Selim was murdered on Mustafa's orders, but Mahmoud, Mustafa's brother and heir, escaped the possibility of murder. Meanwhile, rebel forces surrounded the palace, where Mustafa and

his entourage taunted them, even showing Selim's corpse to the rebels, in a vain attempt to deter them. The rebels stormed the palace anyway, and they arrested Mustafa and announced Mahmoud's assumption of power, becoming the third sultans during this year. Over 10,000 Janissaries revolted in Edirne, as did the states of Egypt and Serbia, forcing the sultan to halt his reforms. In 1807 the British fleet appeared in Astana, demanding that the Ottoman Empire acquiesce in Russian demands and that Astana expel Napoleon's ambassador, Horace Sebastiani [16].

Where Selim III was completely under the control of Sebastiani, the British fleet was forced to withdraw without achieving its goal, but the apparent or latent chaos, which struck its folds in the states, proved to be insurmountable to Selim III. The Janissaries rebelled again, prompting the Sheikh of Islam to issue a fatwa against the reforms. The first coup occurred on May 29, 1807. The Janissaries soldiers led by rebel leader Mustafa Kabakci removed Selim III from the throne, imprisoned him and quickly replaced him with his cousin Mustafa IV (1807-1808). Who imprisoned his predecessor, who is his cousin, in the comfort of the royal palace, Mustafa pardoned the rebels, allied himself with the Janissary soldiers, and demobilized Selim's recently formed army.

Rostchouk's Pasha, Mustafa Bayraktar, who had been a supporter of the reforms, gathered and sent an army of 40,000 men to Constantinople with the aim of returning Selim III, but it was too late. From Mustafa IV and placed on the throne Mahmoud II (1808-1839), the last of the Ottoman dynasty at the time.

Another account of the assassination of Selim III says that after he was deposed and while he was in the Haremlek on the night of Thursday, July 28, 1808, he was with his concubine "Rifaat Qadin" and a maid or other concubine "Pekze Qadin". Selim to the throne, so Mustafa IV issued an order to kill him and his brother, Prince Mahmoud, and Jokhandar Fattah al-Gorgi, the custodian of the treasury, his father Salim and Agha, a black eunuch named Nazir Agha, killed him with their swords, but they could not find Prince Mahmoud, who later became sultan and executed the killers, thus being Selim III, the only Ottoman sultan to be killed by the sword [12].

As for the second coup, 'Alimdar Mustafa Pasha, the influential ruler of Prussia, broke free from Mustafa's shackles and plotted to overthrow him. His efforts led to a second revolution in 1808. The imprisoned Selim was murdered according to Mustafa's orders, but Mahmoud, Mustafa's brother and heir, escaped from the possibility of murder. Meanwhile, rebel forces surrounded the palace, where Mustafa and his entourage taunted them, even showing Selim's corpse to the rebels, in a vain attempt to deter them. The rebels stormed the palace anyway, arresting Mustafa and proclaiming Mahmoud's rule.

Reform attempts and disturbances were made by the Janissaries. While Selim was imprisoned in the palace, he taught reform ideas to Mahmoud, who completed the reforms that had been halted by the Janissary coup in 1807. Mahmoud then appointed 'Alimdar Mustafa Pasha to the position of chief minister, the leader of the rebellion that led He came to power, and the reforms they implemented angered the Janissaries once again.

During the reign of Sultan Mahmoud, the Grand Vizier tried to carry out the task assigned to him by the Sultan; It was met with an objection from the Janissaries, and they revolted in the capital against Sultan Mahmoud II, on 28 Ramadan 1223 AH (November 17, 1808), and they tried to return the former Sultan Mustafa IV to be a puppet in their hands, and they set fire to the government palace, and the Grand Vizier died in this sedition, burning while He is trying to end that sedition, and the Sultan was forced to submit to them after they set the capital on fire and the fire almost destroyed it, postponing the idea of getting rid of them until another time [17].

Sultan Mahmoud believed that the increasing influence of the Janissaries had destroyed the efforts of all those who tried to reform from the previous sultans, and that the secret of Muhammad Ali Pasha's success in his reform movement was that he began to remove a similar obstacle, namely the Mamluks, and he got rid of them in the incident known as the "Citadel Massacre", Sultan Mahmoud got rid of the second of the Janissaries completely in the year 1240 AH (1826 AD).

It is worth noting that the Janissary regime, which is the mainstay of the Ottoman army, was considered one of the most important reasons for the Ottoman supremacy in the stage of the emergence, formation and expansion of the Ottoman state and its transition from the regional stage to the global stage. It is no longer a source of terror in Europe, but rather a source of internal unrest and a source of many defeats, and this situation is due to several intertwined matters, which are summarized in the cessation of conquests and the arrival of the Ottoman Empire to its greatest extent, the change in the composition of the army and the loss of the foundations of its traditional role, and the numbers of Janissaries increased after the Ottoman regime opened the door wide for all Muslims to join the ranks of Janissaries since the end of the sixteenth century, and therefore their numbers increased, their efficiency weakened, control was weak, and burdens increased at the same time that Janissaries no longer played their role in the past and in turn became a source of internal disturbances for their intervention in political life. To the extent that the situation reached it by interfering in the assumption and removal of sultans and great breasts, and demanding exorbitant financial privileges [18], always more persuasive and more eloquent than diplomatic language.

## **Second: The internal situation in Great Britain after the defeat at Rosetta (1807-1812)**

### **1. The Repercussions of the Defeat on the British King**

The research reviews the political situation in Great Britain during the campaign against Egypt in 1807, through the repercussions of this defeat on the British king, who paid a heavy price as a result of this brutal campaign, after the defeat of his army, which

spoiled the British honor, according to the leaders of the campaign in their letters, which were included in this book in more than one place.

The references have confirmed that King George III [19-20-21-22] has not made any major political decisions after defeating his army during his remaining reign, with the exception of replacing the Duke of Portland with Spencer Percival [23] in 1809. Three years after the defeat of the British army in Rosetta, George III in November 1810, became utterly insane after being defeated by Parliamentary opposition, ashamed of his son's actions and grieving the death of his daughter Amelia. And for nine years after that the King of England was chained up like a madman in a madman's jacket, suffering from dementia, and completely blind and faint of hearing, and very badly sick, and by then he was fat, broken, hated, and lived in solitude in Windsor Castle until His death [19-21-22].

He recognized the need for the Regency Act 1811 by which his son, George IV, Prince of Wales, became regent for the remainder of his father George III's life, and took his place claiming royal power and pomp. About walking in the last weeks of his life, he died at Windsor Castle on January 29, 1820 [19-22-23].

## **2. The impact of the defeat on the political and military scene in Britain**

As for the Ministry of William Wyndham Grenville [24-25-26], which made the decision to campaign on Egypt [27-28-29], which the British army had previously taken under its supervision to prepare for this campaign, which took place from February 11, 1806 to 31 March 1807 [28], it is no secret that the defeat in the first campaign against Rosetta on March 31, 1807, in which the British army suffered 170 dead, including four officers of the finest commanders, and 251 wounded, including eighteen officers, was a direct cause for the dismissal of the Ministry of William Wyndham Grenfell in On the same day for her failure to conduct the war and the shameful defeat of the army of the British Empire by the people of Rosetta, she held the office of the 3rd Duke of Portland until 4 October 1809 [30].

The defeat<sup>3</sup> and dismissal of the Ministry of William Wyndham Grenfell brought about a change in the political arena in Britain, as his Foxite Whig<sup>4</sup> [31] party, which had been out of power for 25 years<sup>5</sup>, was excluded from power, while the Tory Party rose to power [32]. Tory, which had been a pro-king party since its establishment in the seventeenth century, and which remained in power until 1832, when it transformed into the Conservative Party after the enactment of the Political Reform Act, to replace the Revolutionary Party.

Interestingly, in February 1807, before the campaign began, the government proposed a new law allowing Catholics access to all ranks in the armed forces in order to stimulate conscription in the country, but George III refused and demanded that they never propose this law. The ministers agreed to abandon the law but refused to commit themselves not to propose the law in the future [33]. These ministers were then dismissed upon the dissolution of the cabinet, replaced by the Duke of Portland's ministry as the nominal prime minister, while the actual power was in the hands of Chancellor of the Exchequer Spencer Percival, Parliament was dissolved, and the election of 1807 gave a large majority to the government in the House of Commons [24].

Interestingly, the Tory Party was in power for twenty-four years, from December 19, 1783 to January 23, 1806. Defeat alone, though during his reign the British army suffered a crushing defeat in April 1807, several days after taking office of the 3rd Duke of Portland. Despite the defeat in the second battle, King George III did not initiate the dissolution of the Ministry of the Third Duke of Portland, considering that this ministry represented the Tory party that was in favor of the king.

As for the unfortunate situation of the political and military team that ran the campaign, it consisted of:

Political leaders from military backgrounds:

1. William Windham [28] was prime minister in Britain from February 11, 1806 to March 31, 1807.
2. Lord Howick<sup>6</sup>, Leader of the House of Commons 24 September 1806 - 31 March 1807
3. Major Edward Missett [35] was a British intelligence officer of excellent quality, then Consul General of Britain in Egypt (1804-1815)

Military leaders who are the leaders of the British Army, Fleet and Admiralty:

1. William Marsden Esq [38-39] First Secretary to the Admiralty in 1805, retired in 1807.
2. General Henry Edward Fox<sup>7</sup> [40-41] Commander in Chief of the British Mediterranean Forces (1806-1807)
3. Lord Collingwood<sup>8</sup> [41-42] Commander in Chief of the Mediterranean Fleet [43-44].
4. Vice Admiral Sir John Duckworth [45] was an officer in the Royal Navy, took second place in the Mediterranean Fleet in 1805, and commanded the squadron protecting the campaign transfers on Alexandria in 1807, but was forced to withdraw after Five months due to lack of supplies. Duckworth summed up this campaign by saying: Our government is of the wretched determination of sending 5,000 soldiers, without a fleet, to Alexandria.
5. General Alexander Mackenzie Fraser<sup>9</sup> [47-48], the leader of the English campaign on Egypt, who served in the British army for thirty years before the campaign in 1807, his attempt failed after his forces suffered losses Big at Rosetta on March 29 and April 21. This forced him to agree to leave the British forces on September 19, 1807.

The defeat ended the political or military life of all these leaders, William Wyndham's cabinet was dismissed, and the British House of Commons headed by Lord Howick was dissolved on March 31, 1807. With the exception of Major Edward Messet, who continued to exercise his duties as an intelligence officer in disguise under the guise of the Consulate until 1815.

As for the military leaders, both William Marsden Isaac, First Secretary of the Admiralty, and General Henry Edward Fox, Supreme Commander of the British Mediterranean Forces, retired, while Lord Collingwood, Supreme Commander of the Mediterranean Fleet, and his deputy John Duckworth, who had rejected this campaign from the beginning, remained in service.

As for this miserable general, Alexander Mackenzie Fraser, the commander of the campaign, who, despite his service of thirty years before the campaign in 1807, failed miserably, his forces suffered heavy losses at Rosetta on March 29 and April 21, forcing him to agree to leave the British forces on September 19, 1807.

His lack of experience in the climate of Egypt and the campaign during the period of the Khamasin winds<sup>10</sup>, which caused the spread of eye infection and spring conjunctivitis, was a great spread among the forces, as it affected almost all of them, in addition to his complete dependence on reckless and inexperienced commanders, and there is no evidence for this that The officers, after the troops had arrived at Rosetta, left their duties and went to dinner at the house of Petrucci, the British consul, which was on the outskirts of the city, while the soldiers occupied themselves, relaxing quietly in groups of eight or ten, in the shops and cafes, thinking badly that the city owed them.

After the campaign and the shameful withdrawal of this commander and his army, he continued to serve until he died on September 13, 1809, the second anniversary of his withdrawal from Egypt, after his army suffered a crushing defeat that represented a black point in the history of the British military.

In addition to the aforementioned figures, the names of some political and military figures who played important roles in managing events emerged during the campaign - through messages and reports - including: The two ministers: Casteleria<sup>11</sup> [49-50], the Minister of Foreign Affairs for War and Colonies [49-50] and George Canning<sup>12</sup> [51-52-53] Minister of Foreign Affairs in the Duke of Portland's Department [51-52-53].

As for the ambassadors, they are: Petrucci, the British consul in Rosetta, Droviti [54-55], the consul of Napoleon in Egypt, and Arbuthnot<sup>13</sup> [56] the British ambassador in Constantinople [56] who was appointed on June 6, 1804, ambassador to the Ottoman Empire, and left Constantinople on January 29, 1807. He was succeeded by Arthur Paget<sup>14</sup> [57-58] the diplomat and politician [57] who in May 1807 was given a special mission to go to the Ottoman Sublime Porte, to negotiate a peace and was summoned in 1809. As for the military leaders, the most prominent of them are: Rear Admiral Sir Thomas Lewis [59] who was an officer in the Royal Navy and died in Alexandria in 1807, and was buried in Malta.

Vice Admiral Thornborough<sup>15</sup> [59] a commander in the British Royal Navy [60] and ranked second under the command of Lord Collingwood in the Mediterranean, Lieutenant-Colonel Aire, Deputy Commander-in-Chief, Major General Sherbrooke [61], Commander of British Forces in the Mediterranean (including Sicily) and Spain,

Lord Mulgrave [62] was appointed First Lord of the Admiralty in the Ministry of the Duke of Portland (1807-1810), Major General Wauchope, who was leading the first expedition on the Rosetta, and was killed in the early hours of the campaign, Major General Meade, who was seriously wounded in the head in this campaign, along with Captain Delancey [63] the commander of the cavalry, and Major Vogelsang [64] the infantry commander who was the first officer in the Hammad, who raised the banner of surrender after the defeat of the British army.

## Conclusions

- The defeat of the British army in Rosetta in 1807 revealed that Rosetta fell prey to the betrayal of the leaders of the Mamluks, the complicity of Muhammad Ali and his forces from the Albanians, and the conspiracy of the Ottomans, along with arrogance, arrogance and British colonial ambitions. The goal of occupying the city was to enable all parties to control the ports, including tightening control to rule, even under the banner of Great Britain.
- The political scene and the international conflict after the English campaign on Egypt in 1807 witnessed decisive changes, especially after the denounced defeat of the British army, and the emergence of signs of inclusion and complicity between Britain and the Ottoman court represented by the Ottomans' failure to occupy Egyptian ports such as Alexandria, Rosetta and Damietta to establish military authority over them.
- The research showed the many changes that occurred in the Ottoman court after the battle, which helped to start the coups in the Ottoman palace, and caused the coup against the Ottoman Sultan Selim III, who blessed this campaign, where he was isolated and then killed, which helped open the way for the major countries to arrange for the judiciary on the Ottoman Empire.
- The research highlighted the political and military features of the conflict with regard to the British army, especially since the defeat of this army has confused the global political situation, and caused effects on society, the government and the British House of Commons, as well as the tragedies that befell King George III.
- The research dealt with the disastrous consequences of the internal situation in the ottoman sublime Corte and Britain after the defeat of the British army in rosette 1807. For the Ottoman court, it presented the causes of the coups against the Ottoman palace (1807-1808), which ended with the isolation and murder of Selim III. It also presented the internal situation in Great Britain after the defeat at Rosetta (1807-1812), where the repercussions of the defeat on the British king and the impact of the defeat on the political and military arena in Britain emerged.

- The research confirmed that King George III, after defeating his army, did not make any major political decisions during his remaining reign, and three years after the defeat, he became completely insane and lived in seclusion at Windsor Castle until his death. He recognized the need for a Regency Act of the year under which his son, George IV, Prince of Wales, became regent for the duration of 1811 until the king's death in 1820.
- The defeat had a strong impact on the political and military arena in Britain, about the fate of the Ministry of William Wyndham Grenville, which took the decision to campaign on Egypt, the defeat was a direct cause of isolating this ministry on the same day for its failure to manage the war and the shameful defeat of the army of the British Empire before the people of Rosetta.
- The defeat caused a change in Britain's political arena, as the Foxite Whig party was ousted and the Tory Party rose to power, and Parliament was dissolved.
- The research highlighted the unfortunate situation of the political and military team that ran the campaign, and it consisted of political leaders from military backgrounds, most notably: William Windham, the Prime Minister, and Lord Howick, leader of the House of Commons, who submitted their resignations on March 31, 1807, and the military leaders. They are the leaders of the British Army, Fleet and Admiralty: including William Marsden Esq. First Secretary to the Admiralty, General Henry Edward Fox, Supreme Commander of the British Mediterranean Forces, Lord Collingwood, Supreme Commander of the Mediterranean Fleet., Deputy Admiral Sir John Duckworth, who commanded the squadron protecting transport operations on Alexandria in 1807, and General Alexander Mackenzie Fraser, commander of the English Expedition to Egypt, who was forced to leave Egypt on September 19, 1807.

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## Notes

<sup>1</sup> The Janissaries from the Ottoman Turkish *yogiri*, meaning: “new soldiers” and the Janissaries (reservants), who are the Janissaries (Yangari) soldiers, who are the guards of castles, fortresses and cities. The Sultan also had his control over him, including a group of high-ranking officials such as Katkhuda Al-Basha in some cases and the Agha of the Janissaries who had the supreme leadership, as well as Sardar Al-Hajj, that is, the commander of the military forces accompanying the pilgrims, and Sardar Al-Khazina, the commander of the force accompanying the treasury sent to the Sultan.

<sup>2</sup> Selim III is one of the successors of the Ottoman Empire, he took power after the death of his uncle Abdul Hamid I in the year 1203 AH and the war battles were continuing, so he gave his time and effort to fight, and he was one of the people of high vigor and reformers of his time. During his reign, the Ottoman Empire cooperated with England and Russia to expel France from Egypt, and the Ottomans and their allies sent several campaigns until they were able to force the French to complete evacuation in 1801 AD. The rapprochement with Britain occurred since the French occupation, and the Treaty of the Anglo-Turkish Alliance on January 5, 1799, was the beginning of military cooperation against the French expansion in the Aegean Sea and the eastern Mediterranean and the French campaign on Egypt and the Levant. The most important condition of the treaty was to prevent French expansion in the Balkans and to confront the French campaign on Egypt and the Levant, and Great Britain gave the guarantee of the territorial integrity of the Ottoman Empire for eight years, and thus was committed to re-conquering Egypt, to rid it of the French, and nominally return it to the Ottoman Empire. This document was evidence of the complete Ottoman complicity and explicit approval of this campaign, which historians have long convinced us that it took place as a result of the conflict between Britain and the Ottoman Empire, where the features of betrayal and complicity were confirmed by the leaders of the Mamluks and Muhammad Ali, who were ready to Britain's occupation of Egypt in return for their remaining in power.

<sup>3</sup> The political scene in Britain witnessed the presence of two strong parties: the Tory Party (which became its name in the nineteenth century the Conservative Party) in favor of the powers of the Crown, and the Whigs, later called the Liberal Party, which supported the powers of Parliament.

<sup>4</sup> After the fall of the Ministry of Talents in 1807, and the accession of the Prince of Wales to the regency in 1811 did not change the situation.

<sup>5</sup> The political scene in Britain witnessed the presence of two strong parties: the Tory Party (which became its name in the nineteenth century the Conservative Party) in favor of the powers of the Crown, and the Whigs, later called the Liberal Party, which supported the powers of Parliament.

<sup>6</sup> Charles Gray, commonly known as Lord Howick, was the First Lord of the Admiralty on 11 February 1806 - 24 September 1806 after Lord Barham. He took the State Department for Foreign Affairs in the government of Lord Grenville as Prime Minister on 24 September 1806 - 31 March 1807, after Charles James Fox, then Leader of the House of Commons.

<sup>7</sup> General Henry Edward Fox was a general in the British Army, and Commander in Chief of all British Mediterranean forces outside Gibraltar (1801–1803), replacing General Sir Ralph Abercromby. He was appointed Commander in Chief of the Mediterranean (1806–1807) and Minister of Sicily. Fox's ill health led to his recall by the British government as command of the forces was transferred to his deputy, Lieutenant-General Sir John Moore. Due to the small size of his forces when Major General Mackenzie Fraser was sent to occupy Alexandria, and was generally promoted on 25 April 1808, he was appointed Governor of Portsmouth in 1810 and died the following year.

<sup>8</sup> Cuthbert Collingwood was Vice Admiral of the British Fleet in the Royal Navy, a witness and partner with Lord Nelson in many of the British victories in the Napoleonic Wars, often as Vice-Admiral of Nelson. He had a great role in important political and diplomatic transactions in the Mediterranean, and in 1805 he was appointed to the position of Commander in Chief of the Mediterranean Fleet until 1809.

<sup>9</sup> Alexander Mackenzie Fraser: (1758 - September 13, 1809), a British general whose nickname was "Mackenzie" until the title "Fraser" was added to him in 1803, was born in Scotland, then joined the British army in 1778, and in 1807, took over He led the campaign against Egypt, and his attempt failed after his forces suffered heavy losses in Rashid. This forced him to agree to leave the British forces on September 19, 1807. After the campaign, he continued to serve in the British Army until he died on September 13, 1809, the second anniversary of his withdrawal from Egypt after his army suffered a crushing defeat.

<sup>10</sup> The Khamasin winds are dry and hot seasonal southeasterly winds that come from the Desert, carrying thousands of tons of sand, reaching Egypt, the Levant and the Arabian Peninsula, these winds are called the Khamseen because they are active in the month of April, that is, fifty days after entering the spring season, however, it rarely blows more than one or two days a week during this period, the Khamseen winds reach 140 km / h, and lead to a rapid rise in temperatures and a decrease in visibility.

<sup>11</sup> Lord Castlereagh (Robert Stewart, Viscount Castlereagh) became Secretary of State for War in 1805. After renewing the war against Napoleon, at the invitation of Castlereagh and other long-time supporters, Castlereagh became Secretary of State for War and the Colonies in William Pitt's Ministry, and became Pete's political deputy, and after Pete's death in 1806, resigned, then again became Secretary of State for War and the Colonies, in the Duke of Portland's Cabinet, 25 March 1807 - 1 November 1809, until 1 November 1809.

<sup>12</sup> George Canning was a Conservative statesman who entered politics in 1793 and rose rapidly. He was a troop paymaster (1800-1801) and treasurer of the Navy (1804-1806) under William Pitt the Younger. He was Secretary of Foreign Affairs (1807-1809) in the Duke of Portland's Cabinet. He was the dominant figure in the cabinet.

<sup>13</sup> Charles Arbuthnot was a British diplomat and Conservative politician. He held the position of Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs from November 1803 - June 1804, and on June 6, 1804, he was appointed ambassador to the Ottoman Empire and left Constantinople on January 29, 1807.

<sup>14</sup> Sir Arthur Paget was a British diplomat and politician. In 1791, he entered the British diplomatic corps. In May 1807, he received from the British government a special mission to go to the Ottoman Sublime Porte, to take the position of British Ambassador in the Ottoman Empire, to negotiate peace with the Porte and to restore Constantinople its influence and position from England and Russia.

He told the Sultan that there was a secret clause in the Treaty of Tilsit that he had with France that contradicted his interests. However, he was unable to separate the Ottoman Empire from its French alliance. It was called up in 1809.

<sup>15</sup> Admiral Sir Edward Thornbrough, commander of the British armed forces, was a senior officer in the British Royal Navy during the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. He became a high-ranking admiral in both the Channel Fleet and the Mediterranean Fleet under Cuthbert Collingwood, commanding the Royal Sovereign.