

BLGMUN'25

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I. Words of welcome from the chairboard

Letter of Secretary-General

Dear Delegates,

It is my greatest pleasure to welcome you all to BLGMUN'25, the first official MUN of our school. My name is Serra Yırtıcı and I'm the Secretary General of the BLGMUN'25. I'm an 11'th grader at Özel Artı Fen Bilgi Highschools.

Although I was never really a fan of special committees, working with Mehmet and Asya made me realize how extraordinary special committees really are. I'm sure words will lack for me to fully express my gratitude for Mehmet and Asya's dedication. Their hard work and motivation certainly made me appreciate this committee even more. I'm confident they will be an excellent chairboard.

Additionally, I have no doubt that you will enjoy your time out of sessions with our excellent organisation team since also they have been working with great afford.

To those who are participating in a MUN conference for the first time, I understand fully how it can feel nerve-wracking sometimes. However, I encourage you to speak up when you get the opportunity, as this is your only chance to participate in BLGMUN'25. We have all been first-timers at some point and I'm no exception. Therefore, I advise you to remain calm and make the most out of your experience at BLGMUN'25.

I wish you all the best.

Best regards,

Serra Zuhul YIRTICI

Letter of Under-Secretary-General

Dear Delegates,

I am honored to welcome you all to our organized MUN and to work with you. My name is Asya Sardoğan and I am the Under-Secretary-General of the "SPECIAL I" committee. Throughout the committee, I would like to assure you in advance that our academic team and I will strive to deliver absolute excellence and provide you with the best conference experience. I would like to emphasize that all delegates should thoroughly conduct their research, work diligently, and be prepared for any challenging situations that may arise. We thank all delegates in advance for their efforts and look forward to seeing you all at the conference with great anticipation and honor.

We look forward to seeing you all together at our MUN conference and wish you an amazing experience.

Best regards,

Elif Asya SARDOĞAN

Letter of Chair

Dear Delegates,

MUN conferences have always been special for me. Since I began my MUN journey, I have attended as many MUN conferences as possible. Besides my delegate experiences, I have also had the honor of being a chair and now I am excited to add another chair experience to my journey with this committee. I want to say thanks to our organization team. I have witnessed all the effort they have put in. I am sure that with my USG Asya, our crisis team, and other attendants we will have a great committee. We hope all our delegates come prepared with research and actively participate throughout the conference.

I wish you all a wonderful experience.

Best regards,

Mehmet BOZ

II. Introduction to the committee

Special Committee is a committee, which was decided to be established in 1974 at its 29th session on the Charter of the UN. Its main purpose was to, among other things, regard any particular proposals that other countries might impose in order to improve the capabilities of the United Nations as well as to have a more flexible and efficient function, where in some instances, a resolution can simply not be sufficient. Historical inquiries, as a part of Special Committees, are simulations of significant historical events that serve to recreate the decision-making processes of leaders and committees that navigated the world through crisis. In such committees, delegates can leverage the power of hindsight, where they can study the

actions of past actors and their respective results to find better possible solutions. Some examples are UN-specific situations, such as the UN emergency special session during the Suez Crisis.

The Special I committee will address World War I, also known as the Great War, from the Ottoman Empire's perspective. Although our committee aims to adhere closely to historical events, the decisions and actions taken by the delegates can change the course of history throughout the committee. With the contributions of our crisis team, we will be informed of the outcomes of actions as soon as possible. They will also keep us updated on other developments happening around the world and, in some cases, will publish newspapers. Throughout the committee, they will ensure that the delegates are fully informed about the situation.

In the process, we don't expect our delegates to stay neutral during the war. During the committee, delegates will need to devise war tactics, economic projects, diplomatic plans, etc. and on the first day, we are planning to give advices before starting to committee.

III. Background information

A. The Ottoman Empire before the war

1. Imperial Edict of Reorganization & Edict of Reform Periods (1839-1876)

The Imperial Edict of Reorganization is one of the first steps in the Ottoman Empire for westernization. After the French Revolution, there were separatist ideas in the multinational Ottoman Empire. To prevent the negative effects of these ideas, the Imperial Edict of Reorganization was permitted by Sultan Abdülmecid in 1839. According to this edict, every Ottoman citizen would be equal in terms of paying taxes, no one would be executed before being judged properly and men would be required to serve in the military for 4-5 years.

Edict of Reform announced during Sultan Abdülmecid's rule, planned big changes to protect the Ottoman Empire. It focused on improving government, and people's rights, and creating new institutions. The Ottoman Empire announced this edict with the purpose of gaining the support of European countries. During this period, the Ottoman Empire needed economic support and loans from European countries. However, it could only get them by giving privileges to them. With these privileges, other countries gained the opportunity to control the Ottoman's economy. As a result, the Ottoman Empire became a semi-colonial state for these countries.

2. The Constitution of 1876 and the Constitutional Monarchy Proclamations

The Constitution of 1876 is the first and last constitution of the Ottoman Empire. It was proclaimed on December 23, 1876, suspended by Abdulhamid II in 1878, and reinstated on July 24, 1908. After the French Revolution, some small groups wanted to have a constitution and parliamentary system in the Ottoman Empire. Constitutional debates grew during the

crisis after Ali Pasha's death in 1871. In 1876, after Abdülaziz was removed from the throne, groups supporting a constitution became stronger. After ruling for three months, Murad V was also removed, and on August 31, 1876, Abdülhamid II took the throne because he was seen as more supportive of a constitution. As soon as Abdulhamid II took the throne, work on the constitution began, and it was proclaimed in the same year. After this constitution, a parliament was established in the Ottoman Empire, consisting of the Ayan and Mebusan assemblies, where the people were represented. The power to open, close, and appoint members to the parliament was given to the sultan. With the constitution, all citizens became equal in terms of the law.

3. Balkan Wars (1912-1913)

At the beginning of the 20th century, Balkan countries began to gain independence from the Ottoman Empire. In 1912, an alliance was formed by the Balkan countries against the Ottomans, supported by the Russians. The goal of the alliance was to drive the Ottomans out of the Balkans, and on October 8, 1912, the Kingdom of Bulgaria, the Kingdom of Serbia, the Kingdom of Greece, and the Kingdom of Montenegro launched an attack. This attack started the First Balkan War. As a result of the First Balkan War, the Ottoman Empire lost most of its Balkan territories, and Albania gained independence. At the same time, since the Ottoman Empire was also engaged in military actions in Tripoli, the demobilization of approximately 75,000 soldiers from the Balkans contributed to the loss of the war.

After the First Balkan War, Greece, Montenegro, Serbia, and the Kingdom of Romania, which had not participated in the First Balkan War, united and declared war on Bulgaria, refusing to accept its territorial gains. The Ottoman Empire took advantage of the situation and recaptured Edirne and Kırklareli with its army. The Second Balkan War ended with the Treaty of Bucharest in August 1913. With this treaty, Bulgaria left Dobrudja to Romania, Kavala to Greece, and received a small piece of land from Macedonia.

4. The Rise of the Committee of Union and Progress

The Committee of Union and Progress was a political movement and party in the Ottoman Empire that played a key role in the proclamation of the Second Constitutional Era and was active between 1908 and 1918. It was founded on May 21, 1889. The party was founded by students who wanted the reinstatement of the 1876 Constitution to help the Ottoman Empire overcome its difficult situation. Over time, with the support of other groups, it became the most powerful organization of the period. The Central Committee of the Committee of Union and Progress, based in Thessaloniki, organized the proclamation of the Second Constitutional Era, which was carried out by the Third Army stationed in Thessaloniki. In 1912, even though there were opponents of the Committee of Union and Progress, the Committee still won the controversial early elections in 1912. The organization became strong enough to get involved in state affairs and, later on, had the power to remove sultans from the throne.

5. 1913 Bab-ı Ali Raid

On January 23, 1913, it was a military coup carried out by a group of Committee of Union and Progress members, led by Enver Bey and Talat Bey, with the storming of the government building, Bab-ı Ali. During this raid, the Minister of War, Nazım Pasha, was killed, and Grand Vizier Kâmil Pasha was forced to resign. After the coup, the Committee of Union and Progress took control of the state administration.

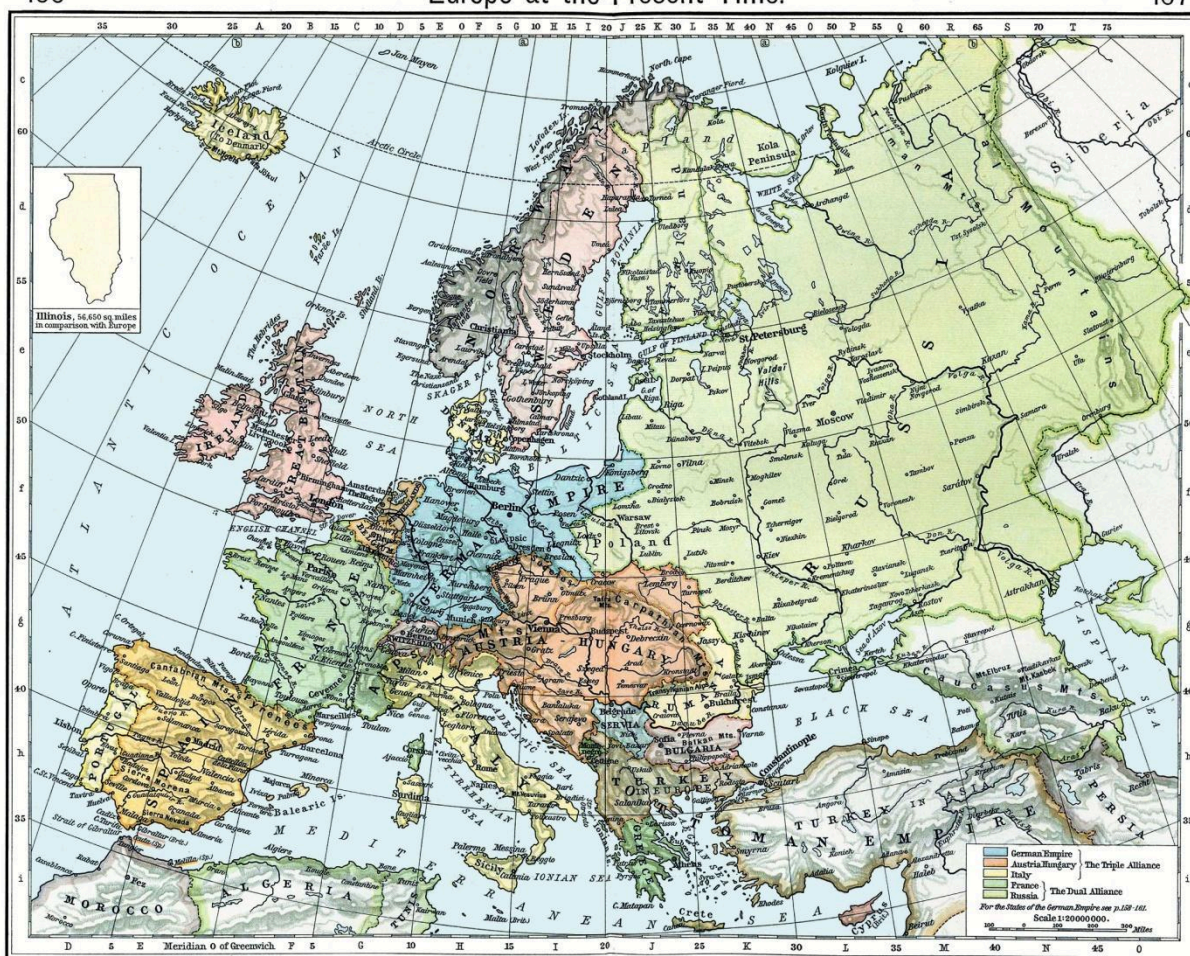
B. Europe before the war

Before World War I, there was a lot of tension in the world, especially in Europe. Two main groups had formed: the Central Powers (Germany, Austria-Hungary, Italy) and the Allies (France, Britain, Russia). During this time, there was intense competition for colonies in Africa and Asia, which added to the rivalries between nations. There was also a race to build up military forces, especially navies between Britain and Germany, and both sides were expanding their armies. These actions made tensions between countries even higher. Nationalist movements in the Balkans and the growing tension between Serbia and Austria-Hungary were important reasons why the war started.

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Europe at the Present Time.

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A map of Europe in 1911

6. Beginning of the war

Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria-Hungary visited Sarajevo with his wife on June 28, 1914. During this visit, he was killed by a Serbian nationalist. This event triggered the start of World War I. In response, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia. Russia, supporting Serbia, mobilized its army. This led Germany to declare war on Russia. A few days later, Germany also declared war on France and invaded Belgium to make it easier to move its troops. Britain, initially hesitant, entered the war to support France. With Britain's entry, its ally Japan also declared war on Germany. The war quickly escalated into a global conflict. German forces advanced to the Marne River in the west. In the east, the Battle of Tannenberg took place between Germany and Russia, resulting in a German victory. Despite Germany's successes, their ally Austria-Hungary struggled in Galicia and Serbia and could not make significant advances.



A depiction of the assassination of Franz Ferdinand.

7. How did the Ottoman Empire join World War I?

During the war, some statesmen within the Ottoman Empire advocated joining the war on the side of Britain, while others supported joining on the side of Germany. The Minister of War at the time, Enver Pasha, also wanted to fight alongside Germany. Germany offered an alliance to the Ottoman Empire during the war, and this offer was made before France entered the war. In August 1914, two German ships (SMS Goeben and SMS Breslau) fleeing from the British Navy entered the neutral waters of the Ottoman Empire. The Ottoman government allowed these ships to pass through the straits, which strengthened the Germany-Ottoman relations. These two ships later became part of the Ottoman Navy. The Ottoman Empire, encouraged by the Germans, entered the war and embarked on modernizing its army with German military officials.



IV. Detailed information

B. Fronts on which the Ottoman Empire fought

1. Fronts on which they fought within their own borders

a. Caucasias Front

This front was opened in 1914 when the Ottoman Empire attacked. Bad weather and lack of supplies made it difficult for the Ottoman Empire. After the Russian Revolution, the front closed in 1917. The Ottoman Empire had several goals on the Caucasias Front, such as securing its borders against Russia, gaining the support of the local Muslim population, and increasing its influence in this region close to strategic oil fields. The Ottoman army defended Eastern Anatolia from the Russian threat and also aimed to encourage Muslims in the Caucasus to resist Russia, hoping to gain both moral and military support. The region's proximity to rich oil fields like those in Baku played an important role in the Ottoman Empire's economic and military strategies. Cutting off Russia's access to these energy resources could weaken its war industry and change the course of the war. In addition, the Ottoman Empire presented this war as a religious duty, trying to strengthen unity and solidarity among Muslims under the leadership of the caliphate. With these goals, the Ottoman Empire was not only fighting a military battle on the Caucasias front but also following a broader strategy to expand its political influence and gain access to strategic resources.



Caucasia Front

b. Gallipoli Front

Because of the Russian Revolution, Russia's allies wanted to pass through the Turkish straits to help Russia. French and British forces planned a landing on the Gallipoli Peninsula, but the Ottoman army successfully defended it. The unsuccessful French and British troops retreated with heavy losses. If the importance of the Gallipoli Front for the Ottoman Empire is addressed, The Gallipoli Front is one of the few fronts where the Ottoman Empire achieved military success during World War I, and the impact of this victory was very deep. The Ottoman army's victory against British and French forces raised the morale of the soldiers and strengthened the support of the Central Powers.



Gallipoli Front

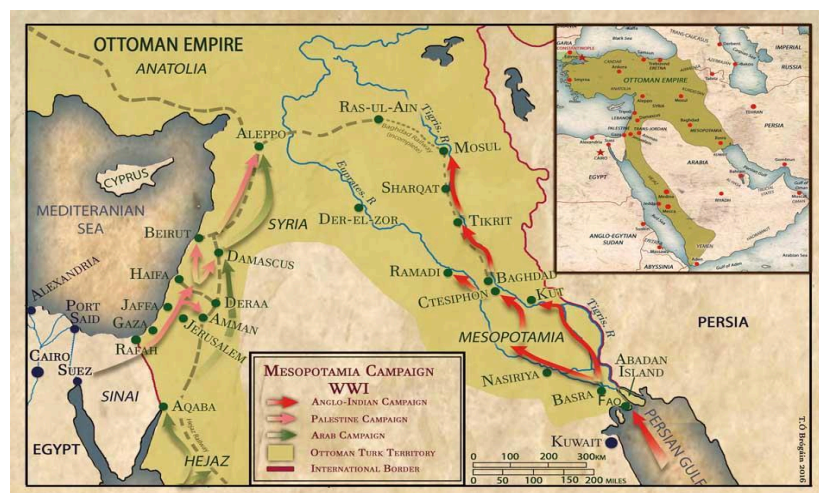
c. Canal Front

In 1915, the Ottoman Empire launched an attack from Egypt to capture the Suez Canal and cut Britain's connection with India. The Ottoman Empire carried out two major attacks in 1915 and 1916, but they were unsuccessful both times. In the Canal Front, the Ottoman army aimed to strike a blow to the British and cut off Britain's vital connection with its colonies, especially India.

This plan had big goals, such as weakening Britain's influence in the Middle East and helping the Ottoman Empire regain control over the Arab region. However, the harsh desert conditions, lack of water resources, and long supply lines created serious logistical problems for the Ottoman army. In addition, the British forces had strong defenses and were determined to protect the strategic importance of the canal, which prevented the Ottomans from achieving their goal. Despite all these challenges, the Canal Front remains an important attempt in Ottoman history.

d. Mesopotamian Front

This is the front where the British tried to advance from the Persian Gulf to Iraq. The Ottoman army besieged enemy forces in the city of Kut and captured about 13,000 soldiers. Despite strong resistance, enemy forces captured Baghdad in 1917. The Mesopotamian Front played a critical role as an important defense for the Ottoman Empire. The Ottoman army tried to resist the British advance in the region and protect strategic cities like Baghdad. The British launched attacks to control the region's oil resources and trade routes while the Ottoman forces aimed to prevent the British from gaining power in the Middle East by defending these strategically important lands. To achieve this the Ottoman army strengthened the defense line, dug trenches, and controlled keys, crossing points to protect places that were strategically important. They also used local support by calibrating with Arab tribes in the region.



Mesopotamian Front

e. Palestine and Sinai Front

This is the front where the British advanced from Egypt to Palestine and Syria. Although Ottoman forces defended, the enemy forces captured Damascus and Gaza. On the Palestinian and Sinai front, the Ottoman army fought to prevent losing territory in the Middle East. The battle in this region was crucial for maintaining Ottoman control over key areas. Despite their efforts, the Ottoman forces faced significant challenges including strong British attacks and logical

difficulties. The defeat on this front marked the end of the Ottoman Empire losing its all dominance in this region. As a result, the Ottoman Empire lost its holdover Palestine and Sinai, which had strategic importance both militarily and politically. This defeat significantly weakened the Ottoman's position in the Middle East and paved the way for British control in the area

f. Hejaz and Yemen Front

This is the front where the Ottoman Empire fought against Arab revolts and British-supported Arab forces. Major battles occurred in regions such as Mecca, Medina, and Yemen. The Hejaz and Yemen Fronts held importance for the Ottoman Empire, as they were crucial in defending the holy lands of Islam. These regions, including the cities of Mecca and Medina, were not only religiously important but also symbolized the Empire's authority over the Muslim world. However, the outbreak of the Arab Revolt severely undermined the Ottoman presence in these areas. Arab nationalist movements, supported by the British, led to widespread uprisings that weakened Ottoman control. The revolt, combined with logistical challenges and shifting alliances, resulted in the gradual loss of Ottoman influence in Hejaz and Yemen. Ultimately, these events marked the decline of the Empire's authority in the heart of the Islamic world.

2. Fronts which they fought within their allies' borders

a. Macedonian Front

Ottoman forces fought alongside Bulgaria in the Balkans. The Macedonian Front was one of the last fronts of the Ottoman Empire in the Balkans. Situated in a strategically important region, it was a key battleground where the Ottoman forces faced intense opposition. The conflict in Macedonia, particularly with Bulgaria, represented one of the final resistances of the Ottoman Empire in the Balkans. As the empire struggled to maintain its grip on its European territories, the Macedonian Front became a focal point of fierce fighting. The battle here, alongside those in other parts of the Balkans, marked the Empire's last attempts to preserve its influence in the region. However, despite the Ottomans' efforts, the strategic importance of Macedonia and the growing strength of Balkan nationalist movements eventually led to the weakening and loss of Ottoman control over the region. This defeat was a significant step in the Empire's decline in Europe.

b. Romanian Front

This is the front where Ottoman forces fought alongside German and Austro-Hungarian troops against Romania from 1916 to 1918. The struggle on the Romanian Front served as a demonstration of the support for the Central Powers and strengthened the cooperation between the Ottoman Empire and Germany. The Ottoman forces, alongside their German allies, engaged in

significant battles to defend against the Entente forces. This cooperation was crucial for maintaining a united front in the Balkans and Eastern Europe. Despite facing challenges, the battle on this front further solidified the military and strategic ties between the Ottoman Empire and Germany during World War I.

c. Galician Front

Ottoman forces fought alongside Austria-Hungary against Russia on this front. The Galician Front was part of the Ottoman Empire's efforts to maintain its presence in Europe during World War I. By supporting Austria-Hungary, the Ottomans aimed to strengthen the Central Powers' military position on the Eastern Front. This support was intended to divert Russian forces and help prevent them from focusing on other areas, thus contributing to the overall strength of the Alliance in Europe.

3. Some other important conflicts

a. The Battle of Tannenberg

The Battle of Tannenberg occurred from August 26 to August 30, 1914, near Tannenberg (now Stębark, Poland). It was a major conflict between the German Empire and the Russian Empire. The German forces, commanded by Generals Paul von Hindenburg and Erich Ludendorff, achieved a decisive victory over the Russian troops led by Generals Alexander Samsonov and Paul von Rennenkampf. The battle was notable for its dramatic outcome, with the Germans inflicting a severe defeat on the Russian First Army. The Germans managed to encircle and destroy a large portion of Samsonov's army, capturing or killing a significant number of Russian soldiers. Russian casualties were estimated between 30,000 and 50,000, including those killed, wounded, or captured. The Germans lost about 20,000 men. The victory at Tannenberg was crucial for Germany as it prevented a potential breakthrough by Russian forces into East Prussia. It bolstered German morale and solidified the reputations of Hindenburg and Ludendorff as effective military leaders. The battle also allowed Germany to secure its eastern front and redirect its resources to the western front, influencing the strategic dynamics of World War I's Eastern Front.

b. The Battle of Marne

The Battle of the Marne happened from September 6 to 12, 1914, during World War I near the Marne River in northeastern France. It was fought between Allied forces, mainly French and British, and the German army. Germany had a plan, called the Schlieffen Plan, to quickly defeat France by capturing Paris before turning to fight Russia. However, the German army moved too fast and became weak and unorganized. The Allies used this chance to attack and stop them. They used cars to move soldiers quickly, which was a new idea at the time. In the end, the Germans had to pull back, and their plan for a fast win in France failed. After this, both sides started digging trenches, and the war

became long and difficult. This battle was important because it stopped Germany from winning early and changed the war into a slow and hard fight.

c. The Battle of Coronel

The Battle of Coronel happened on November 1, 1914, near Coronel, Chile, during World War I. It was a naval fight between the British Royal Navy and the German Imperial Navy. The German fleet, led by Vice Admiral Maximilian von Spee, included strong cruisers like SMS Scharnhorst and SMS Gneisenau. The British squadron, commanded by Admiral Sir Christopher Cradock, had older and weaker ships, such as HMS Good Hope and HMS Monmouth. In the battle, the Germans won decisively, sinking both British ships and killing over 1,600 British sailors. It was a big loss for the British navy and showed how strong the German strategy was in faraway areas. After this defeat, Britain sent stronger ships to the Pacific. This led to the Battle of the Falkland Islands on December 8, 1914, where the British defeated the German fleet and turned the naval conflict in their favor.

d. The Battle of Verdun

The Battle of Verdun lasted from February 21 to December 18, 1916, during World War I near Verdun. It was one of the longest and deadliest battles, fought mainly between French and German forces. German General Erich von Falkenhayn planned to attack Verdun, hoping France would use many troops to defend it, causing heavy losses. The battle began with massive German artillery strikes and infantry attacks. French General Philippe Pétain led the defense, using a system called the "sacred way" to rotate troops and keep morale high. Although the Germans made early progress, the French stopped them and eventually pushed back. Both sides suffered huge losses, with over 700,000 soldiers killed or wounded. The battle didn't have a clear winner but became a symbol of French bravery and the terrible cost of trench warfare.

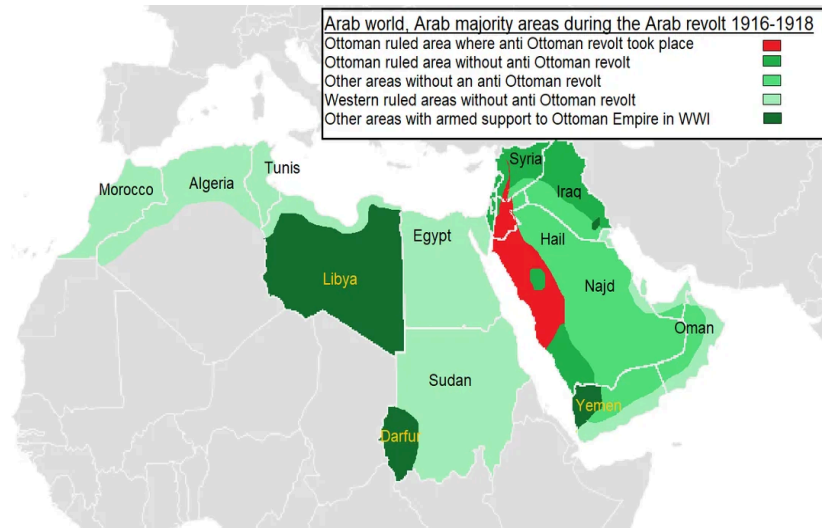
e. The Battle of Jutland

The Battle of Jutland, fought from May 31 to June 1, 1916, was the largest naval battle of World War I and the only major battleship clash of the war. It took place in the North Sea, near Denmark's Jutland Peninsula, between the British Grand Fleet, led by Admiral Sir John Jellicoe, and the German High Seas Fleet, commanded by Vice-Admiral Reinhard Scheer. The Germans aimed to lure out and destroy part of the British fleet to weaken British control of the seas. However, British intelligence intercepted German communications, allowing Jellicoe to engage the Germans. The battle started with British battlecruisers, under Vice-Admiral David Beatty, facing off against German ships led by Vice-Admiral Franz von Hipper. The Germans caused early damage, sinking several British ships, but Beatty led them toward Jellicoe's main fleet. The battle involved over 250 ships, and both sides suffered heavy losses. While the British lost more ships and sailors, they maintained control of the North Sea. The German fleet retreated but remained largely inactive for the rest of the war. The battle didn't have a clear victor but confirmed British naval dominance, which was vital for continuing the blockade that weakened Germany.

4. Uprisings and rebellions in the Ottoman Empire during World War I

a. Arab Revolt (1916-1918)

This was a major uprising against Ottoman rule led by Sharif Hussein bin Ali of Mecca. The revolt was driven by a desire for Arab independence and was supported by the British, who promised Arab self-rule in exchange for their support against the Ottomans. The revolt played a crucial role in weakening Ottoman control in the Arabian Peninsula.



Arab Revolt

b. Armenian Revolt (1915-1918)

During World War I, some Armenian groups within the Ottoman Empire, particularly in Eastern Anatolia, engaged in uprisings and resistance activities. These mutual conflicts led to greater tensions and violence under the challenging conditions of the time.

c. Greek Revolts (1916-1917)

In the Ottoman-held regions of Western Anatolia, particularly around İzmir, there were Greek nationalist uprisings. These revolts were part of the larger context of Greek aspirations for independence and irredentism, supported by the Allied Powers.

5. Delegate roles

Ahmet Tevfik Okday: One of the last grand viziers of the Ottoman Empire, he represented the empire at the Paris Peace Conference in the war's aftermath, striving to minimize territorial losses.

Ahmet İzzet Furgaç: Served as the deputy commander-in-chief during the war's final stages and briefly as grand vizier, playing a significant role in late wartime diplomacy.

Ali Fuat Cebesoy: Served at the Gallipoli Front and later played a crucial role in the Turkish War of Independence as commander of the Western Front.

Ali Fuat Erden: He was an Ottoman military officer. During World War I, he served in key positions on the Palestinian front and in Syria, particularly under German General Liman von Sanders, who commanded Ottoman forces in the region. Erden contributed to defensive operations against advancing British forces during campaigns in Palestine.

Ali İhsan Sabis: Commanded the 6th Army in the Mesopotamian campaign and played a significant role in the victory at the Battle of Kut.

Cemal Pasha: Commanded the 4th Army on the Syrian and Palestinian fronts, leading the efforts in the failed Sinai and Palestine campaigns and attempting to quell Arab revolts.

Cevat Çobanlı: As the commander of the Dardanelles Fortified Area, he played a critical role in defending the Dardanelles during the Gallipoli Campaign.

Enver Pasha: As the Minister of War and de facto commander-in-chief of the Ottoman military, he directed the empire's war efforts, including the disastrous Sarikamish Offensive.

Fahrettin Altay: Known as the "Defender of Medina," he defended Medina against the Arab Revolt led by Sharif Hussein.

Fevzi Çakmak: Served on various fronts including Gallipoli, Romania, and Syria. Later became the Chief of General Staff of the Turkish Republic.

Halil Kut: Achieved a notable victory against British forces at the Battle of Kut in Mesopotamia.

Halil Menteşe: He played significant roles in the Ottoman Parliament and managed the diplomatic aspects of the war.

İsmail Hakkı: An Ottoman military officer who played important roles in various campaigns during World War I, particularly in the Middle East. He was involved in the defense of Ottoman interests in regions like Basra and Baghdad.

İzzettin Çalışlar: Served in the Gallipoli and Galicia fronts, and later played important roles in the Turkish War of Independence.

Kazım Karabekir: He is a commander who played a significant role in the Caucasus Campaign, fighting against Russian and Armenian forces.

Mehmed Said Halim Pasha: Served as grand vizier during the war, was a leader in the Committee of Union and Progress, and played a major role in the administration of the war.

Mehmet Ali Çetinkaya: He fought at the Gallipoli and Galicia fronts during World War I. After the war, he played a significant role in the Turkish War of Independence, becoming a prominent military leader in the effort to establish the Turkish Republic.

Mehmet Ali Kılıç: He served in various military roles during World War I. Although specific details of his wartime activities are less documented, he continued his military service during the Turkish War of Independence, contributing to the establishment of the Turkish Republic.

Mehmet Esat Bülkat: Commanded the 3rd Corps during the Gallipoli Campaign, playing a key role in the defense.

Mehmet Vehip Kaçı: He commanded the Second Army at Gallipoli, contributing to the Ottoman victory, and later led the Third Army on the Caucasus Front

Mustafa Kemal Atatürk: As the commander of the 19th Division at Gallipoli, he achieved great success and was later prominent in the Eastern and Syrian fronts.

Rauf Orbay: As the Minister of Navy, he played a significant role in the signing of the Armistice of Mudros, and later was prominent in the Turkish War of Independence.

Refet Bele: Served on various fronts during the war, including Gallipoli, Galicia, and Syria, and later played important roles in the Turkish War of Independence.

Talat Pasha: As Minister of the Interior, he played a key role in diplomatic decisions and alliances, notably aligning the Ottoman Empire with Germany.

Yakup Şevki Subaşı: Commanded the 9th Corps on the Eastern Front, engaging in battles against Russian and Armenian forces.

Yusuf Kemal Tengirşenk: Worked on various diplomatic missions and participated in peace negotiations during the war.

Zeki Kolaç: Also known as Halepli Zeki Paşa, was an Ottoman military officer from Aleppo. He played a role in the Ottoman military during the Balkan Wars, where the empire faced significant losses. His military contributions were significant in the context of the late Ottoman Empire.

V. Sources

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