



FIRAMUN '26

FIRA MODEL UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE 2026

ITTIHAT VE TERAKKI CEMIVETI

AGENDA ITEM:
EMERGENCY SESSION
FOLLOWING THE BALKAN
WARS

UNDER SECRETARY
GENERAL:
MUSTAFA ASLAN

İttihat ve Terakki Cemiyeti

Agenda Item: Emergency Session Following the Balkan Wars

Under Secretary General: Mustafa Aslan

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1. Letter from the Secretariat

Dear Participants,

As the Secretaries-General of FIRAMUN'26, we are very happy to welcome you to Antalya for the first edition of our conference, which will take place from September 1st to September 3rd, 2026.

When we first started planning FIRAMUN'26, we had a simple goal: to organize a conference that we would enjoy attending ourselves. Since then, our executive, academic, and organization teams have spent months working on every part of the event. There have been long meetings, difficult decisions, last-minute changes, and a great deal of excitement. Now, we are finally ready to share the result with you.

During these three days, you will discuss real problems, defend your representative's position, disagree with one another, and hopefully find solutions together. Some moments may be challenging, especially for those attending their first MUN conference. That is completely normal. Nobody enters their first committee knowing exactly what to say or when to speak. What matters is having the courage to participate.

For experienced delegates, we hope FIRAMUN'26 gives you something different to remember. For first-time delegates, we hope it becomes the beginning of a much longer MUN journey. Either way, do not spend the whole conference worrying about awards. Take the floor, meet the people around you, make mistakes, and enjoy the experience.

A conference is shaped by the people in its committee rooms. We have done our best to prepare those rooms for you. What happens inside them is now in your hands.

We hope you leave FIRAMUN'26 with good memories, new friends, and at least one story you will still be telling months later.

Lastly, we want to finish our letter with Father of Turks, our visionary Mustafa Kemal Atatürk's delightful phrase:

"You, the young people of the new Türkiye! Even if you grow exhausted, you will follow me. Those who resolve to keep walking without resting will never, ever grow tired."

Welcome to FIRAMUN'26. Requiem Aeternam!

Sincerely,

Baran İNCE & Doruk ŞENTÜRK
Secretaries-General of FIRAMUN'26

2.Letter from the Under Secretary General

Dear Participants,

I would like to welcome you all to the FIRAMUN İttihat ve Terakki Cemiyeti.

My name is Mustafa Aslan, I am currently on a gap year and intend to major in political science. It is my honor to serve as the Under-Secretary-General of this committee.

I have been attending Model United Nations conferences in Antalya and many other cities for the past three years.

The entire executive team, the people I've walked alongside and grown with throughout my mun career seeing them at this level and being a part of this work here has been very important to me at my last mun conferences. I would like to thank the Secretariat, Doruk Şentürk and Baran İnce, as well as the Miray for organizing this conference.

If you have previously participated in one of my committees, you will know that I generally host special committees. If this is your first time participating in one of my committees or in a special committee, there is no need to be nervous; the study guide has been prepared to support you throughout the process.

When I was a delegate, the committees I thought about were generally my favorite ones, and this is one of them. Back in my early high school years, while reading Erhan Çiftçi's book "İttihat ve Terakki Cemiyeti" I had learned thanks to this book, based on Kazım Karabekir's writings that much of what I was taught in history class during high school was inadequate, and that there were many different historical truths regarding whether these groups were right or wrong; and ever since that day, it has been my dream to present this committee at a conference hosted by a friend of mine

If you have any questions regarding the committee, please feel free to contact me via the contact information below, even for the smallest concerns. As an academic team, we have included all the necessary information in the study guide.

I wish you all success in advance.

Under Secretary General, Mustafa ASLAN

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2.Introduction

What was the Committee of Union and Progress?

The Committee of Union and Progress (CUP), known in Ottoman Turkish as İttihad ve Terakki Cemiyeti, was a political organization active from 1889 to 1926.

Summary

The Ottoman Committee of Union and Progress (CUP) was one of the most influential political entities during the twilight years of the Ottoman Empire.

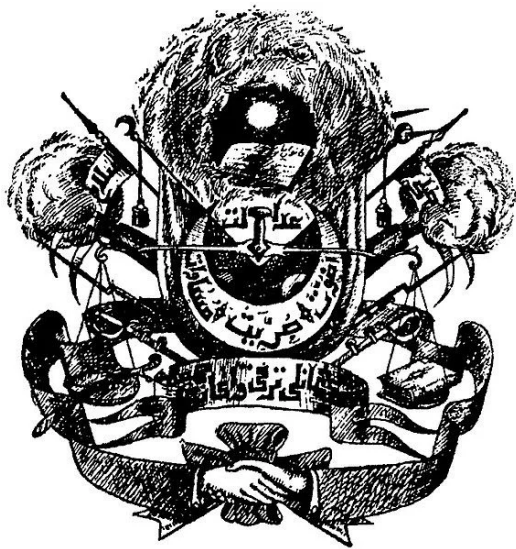
Active between 1889 and 1926, the CUP began as a secret society founded by medical students and eventually transformed into a wide-reaching political party that reshaped the empire's final decades.

While it initially advocated constitutionalism, liberal reforms, and modernization, the CUP later orchestrated dictatorial rule and orchestrated genocidal campaigns against Christian minorities.

Beyond merely ending the absolute monarchy of Sultan Abdul Hamid II, the CUP would become an

unrivaled force in Ottoman politics, ushering in significant governmental transitions, influencing World War I alliances, and leaving a contested legacy in the Republic of Turkey. This explanation outlines the CUP's emergence, ideological shifts, consolidation of power, and ultimate downfall.

Despite early persecution by the autocratic Hamidian regime (1876–1909), the CUP was able to cultivate extensive networks of supporters both within the empire and among émigrés in Europe. Following a series of failed insurrections, splits, and exiles, CUP operatives capitalized on dissatisfaction in Ottoman Macedonia, guiding the 1908 Young Turk Revolution. Thereafter, the organization alternated between clandestine maneuvering and direct governmental control, consistently centralizing power and pushing for reforms.



Over time, it drifted from its initial constitutional ideals toward an exclusionary nationalist agenda. During World War I, the CUP's leaders—famously known as the Three Pashas—secured a German alliance and pursued policies that devastated the Armenian, Greek, and Assyrian communities, contributing to tragic chapters of ethnic cleansing.

After the empire's defeat, the CUP formally dissolved, but many of its members continued their political careers under Mustafa Kemal Atatürk's new republic, influencing Turkish politics well into the twentieth century.

Origins and Formation

In 1889, a group of students at the Imperial Military School of Medicine in Constantinople (Istanbul) founded a secret society called the Committee of the Ottoman Union. These young reformists, inspired by Enlightenment ideals, sought to reinstate the constitution that Sultan Abdul Hamid II had suspended in 1878. They believed that constitutionalism would revitalize a weakening empire confronted with staggering debts, uprisings by non-Muslim populations, and the burden of foreign intervention. Early on, the sultan's regime underestimated this youthful circle, dismissing them as an innocuous student group.

2.1. The Agenda Item

Balkan Wars, (1912–13), two successive military conflicts that deprived the Ottoman Empire of all its remaining territory in Europe except part of Thrace and the city of Adrianople (Edirne). The second conflict erupted when the Balkan allies Serbia, Greece, and Bulgaria quarreled over the partitioning of their conquests. The result was a resumption of hostilities in 1913 between Bulgaria on the one hand and Serbia and Greece, which were joined by Romania, on the other.

Origin of the Balkan Wars

The Balkan Wars had their origin in the discontent produced in Serbia, Bulgaria, and Greece by disorder in Macedonia. The Young Turk Revolution of 1908 brought into power in Constantinople (now Istanbul) a ministry determined on reform but insisting on the principle of centralized control. There were, therefore, no concessions to the Christian nationalities of Macedonia, which consisted not only of Macedonians but also of Serbs, Bulgarians, Greeks, and Vlachs. The Albanians, whose growing sense of nationalism had been awakened by the Albanian League, were likewise discontented with the Young Turks' centralist policy.

The Internal Macedonian Revolutionary Organization (IMRO), founded in 1893, organized bands to resist the Turkish administration. Clashes not only exacerbated feelings within Macedonia but also roused public opinion in Bulgaria in favour of intervention. The IMRO became a powerful factor in Bulgarian politics. A similar development occurred in Serbia, where the patriotic society Narodna Odbrana ("National Defense"), invigorated by the infiltration of the "Union or Death" group (founded in May 1911 and better known as the Black Hand), was active not only within the Serbian administration but also in organizing Serbian resistance in Macedonia. The activity of the Bulgarians in Macedonia had led in September 1903 to the formation of an armed band in defense of Greek interests, but the Greek government was equally determined to extend its territory in the Aegean Islands and to secure union with Crete. At first, Greeks, Serbs, and Bulgarians frequently acted in opposition to one another, but the events of 1911 brought them to realize that the main enemy was the Turks and that they could achieve freedom only by a common understanding.

International circumstances were of considerable importance. Austria-Hungary had in October 1908 annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina, territory that was legally part of the Ottoman Empire but under Austro-Hungarian occupation and administration after the Congress of Berlin (1878). The Austro-Hungarian government, moreover, had a treaty right to occupy the sanjak (district) of Novi Pazar, which separated Montenegro from Serbia. Deeply resentful of Austria-Hungary's action, which excluded an eventual union of the inhabitants of Bosnia and Herzegovina with Serbia, the Serbian government nevertheless realized that it could not challenge one of the great powers. It therefore turned its attention to Macedonia, where a weaker power like Turkey could more easily be attacked if

an alliance could be achieved with Bulgaria. The Agadir Incident of 1911, moreover, revealed that the two great-power groupings, the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente, were evenly balanced, so that the small powers might exercise some measure of individual initiative.

The First Balkan War



Bulgarian soldiers during the Balkan Wars, 1912–13.

The First Balkan War was fought between the members of the Balkan League—Serbia, Bulgaria, Greece, and Montenegro—and the Ottoman Empire. The Balkan League was formed under Russian auspices in the spring of 1912 to take Macedonia away from Turkey, which was already involved in a war with Italy. The league was able to field a combined force of 750,000 men. Montenegro opened hostilities by declaring war on Turkey on October 8, 1912, and the other members of the league followed suit 10 days later.



Bulgarian troops assembling in Sofia, Bulgaria, during the Balkan Wars, 1912–13.

The Balkan allies were soon victorious. In Thrace the Bulgarians defeated the main Ottoman forces, advancing to the outskirts of Constantinople and laying siege to Adrianople (Edirne). In Macedonia

the Serbian army achieved a great victory at Kumanovo that enabled it to capture Bitola and to join forces with the Montenegrins and enter Skopje. The Greeks, meanwhile, occupied Salonika (Thessaloníki) and advanced on Ioánnina. In Albania the Montenegrins besieged Shkodër and the Serbs entered Durrës.

The Turkish collapse was so complete that all parties were willing to conclude an armistice on December 3, 1912. A peace conference was begun in London, but, after a coup d'état by the Young Turks in Constantinople in January 1913, war with the Ottomans was resumed. Again the allies were victorious: Ioánnina fell to the Greeks and Adrianople to the Bulgarians. Under a peace treaty signed in London on May 30, 1913, the Ottoman Empire lost almost all of its remaining European territory, including all of Macedonia and Albania. Albanian independence was insisted upon by the European powers, and Macedonia was to be divided among the Balkan allies.

The Second Balkan War

The Second Balkan War began when Serbia, Greece, and Romania quarreled with Bulgaria over the division of their joint conquests in Macedonia. On June 1, 1913, Serbia and Greece formed an alliance against Bulgaria, and the war began on the night of June 29–30, 1913, when King Ferdinand of Bulgaria ordered his troops to attack Serbian and Greek forces in Macedonia. The Bulgarian offensive, benefiting by surprise, was initially successful, but Greek and Serbian defenders retired in good order.

The Serbian army counterattacked on July 2 and drove a wedge into the Bulgarian line. Greek reserves advanced to the front on July 3, and a series of attacks over the following days threatened to turn the left flank of an entire Bulgarian army. In an effort to save their force from being cut off entirely, the Bulgarians launched a desperate attack on the Serbian lines. Once again, the Bulgarians achieved momentary success, but by July 10 the offensive had completely stalled. On July 11 the Romanian army crossed the Bulgarian frontier and began an unopposed march on Sofia, the Bulgarian capital. The following day, the Turks violated their armistice with Bulgaria and entered Thrace. The Greeks and the Serbs launched a general offensive on July 15, and the Turks reoccupied Adrianople on July 22. With enemy columns converging on Sofia, the Bulgarians bowed to the inevitable. On July 30 they concluded an armistice to end hostilities, and a peace treaty was signed between the combatants on August 10, 1913. Under the terms of the treaty, Greece and Serbia divided most of Macedonia between themselves, leaving Bulgaria with only a small part of the region.

Results of the Balkan Wars

As a result of the Balkan Wars, Greece gained southern Macedonia as well as the island of Crete. Serbia gained the Kosovo region and extended into northern and central Macedonia. Albania was made an independent state under a German prince.

The political consequences of the wars were considerable. Apart from Turkey, the real loser was Austria-Hungary. The partitioning of the sanjak of Novi Pazar between Serbia and Montenegro made it impossible in the subsequent crisis of June–July 1914 for Austria-Hungary to intervene in the Balkans. The Austro-Hungarian ultimatum to Serbia on July 23, 1914, was thus made to appear as naked aggression. The wars likewise altered the structure of alliances in the Balkans. Dissatisfied Bulgaria henceforth looked to Austria-Hungary for support, whereas Romania tended to move out of the influence of the Triple Alliance and toward the Triple Entente. The Turks, moreover, began to put their house in order and secured in November 1913 the services of German Gen. Otto Liman von Sanders with a group of technical advisers to strengthen the organization of their army.

The most alarming aspect of the war was the growth of tension between Austria-Hungary and Serbia. Serbia had extensive claims upon Albanian territory. Having obtained an assurance of German support, Austria-Hungary delivered an ultimatum on October 17, 1913, to compel Serbia to withdraw from the Albanian borderlands. This, however, did not solve for Austria-Hungary the Southern Slav

question, which emerged again in an acute form with the assassination of the Austrian archduke Franz Ferdinand by a Serb on June 28, 1914, in Sarajevo, Bosnia.

4.Procedure of the Committee

As soon as the committee begins, everyone can first state their general positions. History is a relative concept, and if you follow in its footsteps, you might think you'll experience the same events, but remember this isn't the real world. Since this is a simulation created by your academies to help you with things like engaging in politics and improving your foreign language skills, there will always be differences. For example, you corrected a mistake made in the past, and now there's a different problem that's quite normal. That's why in history what actually happened, but rather do what feels right.

Once you've made your stance clear and decided on a course of action, you won't be able to spend a full three days just on a final draft of a decision. Mun, as an academic, what I enjoy most is being able to witness certain political periods without actually being under real stress imagine understanding the helplessness of the soldiers in a war movie you're watching. The Committee of Union and Progress, from its founding years onward, had a say in the government, the members of this organization faced problems and crises under every circumstance. The members were so anxious that there was even a special recruitment process just to join the Committee of Union and Progress a membership number and a registration process where you couldn't even see anyone's face. And of course, these were Kazım Karabekir, we can only understand history as much as those who lived through it have told us.

The reason I'm bringing up these issues in general is that, throughout the committee, you'll face one or more crises, big or small. These are designed both to prevent you from spending all three days on just four written problems and to ensure the MUN doesn't turn into a rose-colored fantasy world. In other words, as you can see, this isn't specific to this committee; it's also part of this procedure shouldn't make you think you're in a crisis committee. Just as a crisis committee isn't as small a structure as the CC or JCC, the inclusion of a procedure in a committee's rules doesn't mean it will completely take over that committee. In my special committees, by blending multiple procedures, you'll be able to learn a lot of different things at various conferences after the committee is over. If I've managed to convey that much, it should be sufficient.

In other words, just as you outline your policy in a GA committee, you'll outline it here in the same way; just as you begin to work on QTBA solutions in a GA committee, you'll start here as well. The differences begin here: while you write your QTBA solutions as resolutions and look toward the future, here you'll take action immediately by following directives, and the results whether good or bad you'll have to accept them. Just as it's very important in history, you'll be able to learn from them. Just as you would in a crisis committee, you'll write directives either individually or collectively. I hope you've understood this. If there's anything you don't understand, don't forget to reach out to me.

4.1.Directives

Instructions are written requests sent to the crisis team and the relevant academy, which they read and either approve or reject. Instructions are the primary tool you use to take action; when you need to take a step that will directly impact the committee's future, instructions are your best and only ally.

To maximize the chances of your directives being accepted by the academy, they must be clear, concise, and well-written. The purpose of directives is to advance your cabinet's goals and/or your personal goals. Some actions you wish to carry out through directives will be complex and involve multiple

Updates are the results of directives and are accepted or rejected depending on how precisely the directive is written and expressed. The academy evaluates whether they are sufficient; every conference with crisis committees includes a backroom where directives are read and reviewed.

Updates may also result from a new event. For example, if another cabinet successfully attacks and captures one of your cities, an update will be issued.

An update does not necessarily have to be the result of a directive; for instance, if you are in the Hundred Years' War committee in the 14th century, the Crisis Team might issue a plague update that affects most of the soldiers. In this case, it is understandable that the update could also be considered a crisis.

Crisis

Crises arise when inadequate instructions are provided, when temporary crises emerge due to the demands of back-office departments, or when, in the case of a multi-cabinet committee, another cabinet negatively impacts you. (Note: This committee is not a multi-cabinet committee; it is included here solely for informational purposes.) To clarify:

- There are several rules and requirements that must be followed to write an adequate instruction; failure to comply with these will inevitably lead to a crisis, depending on what the instruction aims to achieve.

Types of Instructions and How to Write Them:

In most cases, there are six types of instructions that can be issued. Each type has its own specific purpose, advantages, and disadvantages. Unless the instruction is top-secret, instructions should be given to the president; the president then forwards them to the crisis team through the managers.

i) Personal Directive:

Personal directives are written when an action is within your character's authority or is possible due to their abilities. Now take a look at how to write a Personal Directive: Firstly, there is a format for writing directives; thus, one has to write who is sending the directive and to whom (from, to). After

that, which cabinet is sending the directive, then the real-world time and the current date of the committee. Lastly, the type of your directive and the headline of it. And that's it; this is all the format one needs to know to write a directive. The only thing left is the content of the directive, and the method by which one writes it is fairly straightforward; it is written by addressing the WH questions, which are what, why, when, who, where, and, most importantly, how. Write down the action you want to take by answering the WH questions, then detailing and explaining it as much as possible to ensure that your plan is as comprehensive as possible. Also, the use of the future tense is critical, try to use it whenever possible. Here is how a directive looks on paper:

From: FBI Agent
To: Chairboard

Personal Directive

Date: 1972 March 1
Time: 12.34

What:

Why:

When:

Who:

Where:

How:

Once one gets used to it, it is quite simple and straightforward to write. While it lacks details and additional information, the directive nicely illustrates its format. As one keeps writing and contributing to their cabinet's goals, in no time one will witness that the directives one has written have already surpassed that one above. And to write such a directive, here are a few tips and tricks:

- For every action that's written in the directive, it has to answer all the WH questions.
- The longer and more detailed, the better.
- Drawing your war doctrine, charging plan, or strategy may significantly increase the directive's preciseness and effectiveness. The success rate of the directive will grow in proportion to how clear your action and directive are.
- Do not use abbreviations such as "etc."; instead, detail the directive explicitly.
- WH questions are not necessarily broken into paragraphs (one can write the directive like a book), but if you're a beginner, doing so will dramatically improve the quality of your directive, hence, I strongly recommend it.
- One should not try to impose their ideas or policies on others but rather to achieve a specific goal,
- If you are positive that there is no impostor in the cabinet, directives should be written separately because it will be much faster. If you need the authority of another cabinet member, simply ask that person to add their name to the "from:" section. That way, eight people will be working on eight different tasks, and it will save quite a lot of time.

ii) Top Secret:

Top Secret directives are those that your president is not permitted to read. Top Secret directives are delivered directly to the administrator. The format is exactly the same, but the paper must be folded and "TOP SECRET" written on the back. The primary reason for writing Top Secret instructions is

treason; this is a diabolical strategy employed to undermine one's own side or switch sides. For example, if a person schemes behind the backs of other members to assist the Nixon side, eliminates the evidence, and the committee ultimately clears Nixon, the conditions for victory change, and only that person wins, while the committee loses. However, as the FBI committee's academy, we do not recommend writing Top Secret Directives unless you plan to draft a brilliant, multi-page directive, because failing to do so could lead to far worse consequences. If a person cannot carry out their evil plan and is caught, they will lose the committee's trust and may become a minor character. Additionally, updates to Top Secret Directives are sent only to the person who issued them, unless they directly affect other cabinet members.

iii) Press Release (Statement):

Press releases are written when an organization wishes to issue a statement, deliver a speech, or make an announcement. For example:

From: FBI Agent	Press Release	Date: 1973 July 12
To: Chairboard	Government policy	Time: 18.17

Such a press release can be written in any desired format depending on its purpose. Additionally, press releases can help prevent crises, particularly those involving the public; they can be used for propaganda, making promises, or spreading misinformation.

Depending on creativity, press releases can vary just as much as directives and can be used for almost any purpose.

IV) Committee Directive:

This is the type of directive you'll use most often in this committee; you can use it to communicate decisions made collectively. Remember, the entire committee must be in agreement on the matter.

Normally, there is a joint directive that is drafted collectively, but since this committee will always act as a unified group, it was not included. On rare occasions, you may act individually; instead of a collective directive, members can split up to address different issues and proceed with individual directives. If a press release is to be issued, a specific delegate can be selected, and the same applies to "top secret" matters.

4.2.Final Document

The final document will be a directive; this is briefly referred to as a committee's final directive. Unlike the short- or long-term directives issued throughout the conference, this directive represents the final step taken to address the issues that need to be resolved. It is expected to be more detailed, longer, and better than previous directives, and it is the final update. . In other words, it essentially determines whether the committee's work was successful or not; the committee's failure does not

necessarily mean it was unsuccessful. This information is not intended to encourage you to either overemphasize or underestimate the importance of the final update.

5. History of İttihat ve Terakki Cemiyeti

The CUP was founded on February 6, 1889, as the Committee of the Ottoman Union (İttihad-ı Osmanî Cemiyeti) by students at the Imperial Military School of Medicine in Constantinople

Their existence became more precarious when they attempted a coup in 1896, resulting in arrests, exiles, and deep internal divisions. During these exilic years, various factions formed, with some prioritizing liberal reform and others championing more radical measures. These émigré intellectuals and officers, scattered in major European cities, collectively laid the foundation for what would eventually evolve into the CUP.

By forging ties with Freemasons, journalists, and disaffected Ottoman bureaucrats, the group managed to survive political crackdowns. As they rebranded themselves the Committee of Union and Progress, they unified under the shared cause of restoring constitutional rule, even if they still squabbled over strategy and ideology.



Emerging as part of the Young Turk movement, the Committee of Union and Progress (CUP) played a significant role in the late Ottoman Empire. It transitioned from a secret revolutionary group to a ruling political force. Image: The Committee of Union and Progress (Young Turks) in 1909.

Revival in Ottoman Macedonia

The reemergence of the CUP at the start of the twentieth century was closely tied to events in Ottoman Macedonia, a region rife with conflict among Bulgarian, Greek, Serbian, and other armed factions. Local Ottoman officers, exasperated by the incessant violence and foreign meddling, began to see the restoration of the constitution as a solution. Secret societies multiplied among junior officers, who believed that guaranteeing rights for all communities within a constitutional framework would restore peace.

By 1906, the Ottoman Freedom Committee had emerged in Salonica (Thessaloniki), eventually merging with the CUP's Paris-based branch. Talât Bey (later Talât Pasha), an influential local official, became the movement's leading strategist. A dedicated network of conspirators formed across Rumelia (Ottoman Europe), recruiting officers, bureaucrats, and intellectuals determined to overthrow Abdul Hamid II.

Emulating the clandestine methods of nationalist and revolutionary organizations in the Balkans, the CUP's "komitecilik," or rule by secret committee, expanded. Recruits swore unwavering loyalty to the leadership, with disobedience punishable by death. The stage was set for the biggest upheaval the empire had seen in decades.

The 1908 Young Turk Revolution

In 1908, fears arose that foreign powers, especially Britain and Russia, might partition Ottoman Europe under the pretext of protecting Christian minorities. Rumors that the Great Powers were on the verge of dismantling what remained of the empire galvanized pro-constitution Ottoman officers. Two leading revolutionaries, Enver Bey (later Enver Pasha) and Ahmed Niyazi, mobilized militias in the hinterlands of Macedonia, demanding the restoration of the 1876 Constitution.

Initially, Abdul Hamid attempted to negotiate. However, the mutinous Third Army threatened to move directly on Constantinople, and rebellious fervor spread to other units. Confronted with insurrection, Abdul Hamid II capitulated on July 24, 1908, reinstituting the constitution and reconvening the parliament. In a moment of euphoria, crowds celebrated across the empire, believing this "Young Turk Revolution" would herald an era of liberty, equality, and fraternity for Ottoman citizens of all backgrounds.

The CUP, having orchestrated the revolution, gained considerable moral authority, yet it chose not to depose the sultan immediately, focusing instead on influencing governance from the shadows.



Young Turk Revolution Declaration – Armenian, Greek Orthodox & Muslim religious leaders

Second Constitutional Era and Political Rivalries

Following the revolution, the empire entered a period now known as the Second Constitutional Era (1908–1918). The CUP emerged as a formidable bloc within the newly elected parliament after the

1908 elections. However, the party struggled to reconcile its revolutionary methods with its professed commitment to liberal governance. Although it championed modernization—expanding infrastructure, education, and administrative centralization—it also stifled dissent and routinely meddled in ministries.

Their principal rival was the Freedom and Accord Party (also called the Liberal Entente), representing a more decentralized outlook. While Freedom and Accord included conservatives, provincial notables, and minority representatives seeking autonomy, the CUP favored a highly centralized, Turkish-dominated state.

Tensions grew as each side accused the other of plotting coups. In 1909, an attempted counterrevolution, known as the 31 March Incident, threatened to restore Abdul Hamid's absolutism. The CUP mobilized the "Action Army," deposed the sultan, and solidified its influence. Yet even after this victory, the CUP's authority did not go uncontested, and behind-the-scenes machinations continued to shape the empire's turbulent politics.

Ascendancy to One-Party Dominance

Defeats in foreign conflicts—including the loss of territories in the Balkans—fueled CUP radicalization and nationalist fervor. In the aftermath of the catastrophic First Balkan War (1912–1913), the CUP perceived itself as the empire's only savior.

With massive Muslim refugee crises, patriotic resentment against European interference, and disillusionment with multi-ethnic coexistence, CUP hardliners leaned toward an aggressive Turkish nationalism.

The 1913 Ottoman coup d'état, known as the Raid on the Sublime Porte, removed the government of Kâmil Pasha, whom the CUP considered overly conciliatory toward European powers. During this coup, War Minister Nazım Pasha was assassinated, and CUP loyalists forced the grand vizier to resign at gunpoint.

A triumvirate, often called the Three Pashas—Talât Pasha (Minister of the Interior), Enver Pasha (Minister of War), and Cemal Pasha (Minister of the Navy)—took effective control. From 1913 to 1918, they governed as a dictatorship, introducing martial law, banning opposition parties, and prosecuting critics. The sultan's role was minimized, and final authority lay in the CUP's Central Committee, which directed policy in secrecy.

Entry into World War I

Hoping to retrieve lost Balkan territories and counter Russian expansion, the CUP sought a powerful ally. Although various Ottoman officials favored neutrality, the triumvirate established a secret alliance with Germany. The presence of German advisors in the Ottoman military grew, and the controversial arrival of German warships in Constantinople sealed the empire's fate. In late October 1914, Ottoman forces bombarded Russian Black Sea ports, effectively dragging the empire into the First World War on the side of the Central Powers.

While it initially championed constitutional reform, the CUP later became a dictatorial regime infamous for its nationalist policies and its role in ethnic genocides during World War I.

At first, the CUP leadership planned bold offensives, such as Enver's disastrous winter campaign against Russia in the Caucasus. Nonetheless, the Ottomans achieved some surprising successes, notably at Gallipoli, which boosted CUP prestige. Simultaneously, the CUP exploited wartime conditions to suppress domestic opposition. Freedom and Accord leaders were either exiled or forced underground, leaving the CUP unchallenged. Rhetorically, CUP propagandists increasingly invoked jihad and pan-Turanism, envisioning a vast union of Turkic peoples stretching into Central Asia—dreams that proved unrealistic against formidable Russian defenses.

Genocidal Campaigns Against Minorities

Amid wartime chaos, the CUP implemented policies of ethnic homogenization, targeting Christian minorities. Already distrustful of the empire's non-Muslim communities, the CUP leadership used the pretext of national security to deport Armenians, Greeks, and Assyrians en masse from strategic areas. These forced relocations were accompanied by systematic massacres, orchestrated largely through paramilitary formations such as the Special Organization.

While the anti-Greek measures in 1914 were often overshadowed by Germany's desire to keep Greece neutral, the empire nonetheless expelled or terrorized hundreds of thousands of Greeks from coastal regions. Once war with Russia intensified, Armenian communities became the principal targets. Beginning in April 1915, intellectuals and community leaders were rounded up in Constantinople, followed by sweeping deportations into Syria's deserts. These events, recognized by many scholars as the Armenian Genocide, resulted in at least one million deaths through starvation, forced marches, and massacres. Similar atrocities befell Assyrian communities. The CUP's vision of a Turkish-dominated Anatolia left behind a tragic legacy of dispossession and demographic engineering.

Exile, Trials, and Republican Aftermath

By 1918, the Central Powers were in retreat. The Ottoman Empire's capitulation at the Armistice of Mudros spelled the end of CUP rule. Talât, Enver, and Cemal fled into exile, aware that Allied powers were poised to hold them responsible for mass atrocities. As a successor administration scrambled to negotiate peace, key CUP figures either vanished or were captured. Several were taken to Malta for war-crimes proceedings. Meanwhile, Armenian revolutionaries from the Dashnak party embarked on Operation Nemesis, assassinating several CUP leaders, including Talât and Cemal, in retaliation for the genocide.

In Constantinople, a series of Ottoman courts martial tried CUP figures for crimes against humanity and wartime aggression. Although a handful were executed or imprisoned, many avoided long sentences.

With Allied and royalist authorities attempting to dismantle CUP networks, some surviving Unionists aligned with Mustafa Kemal Atatürk's nationalist movement, seeing it as the best hope for resisting partition and foreign occupation.

Consequently, CUP legacies persisted into the Turkish War of Independence. Once Atatürk formed the Republic of Turkey, many former Unionists joined his single-party government under the Republican People's Party (CHP). They continued certain modernization initiatives once proposed by the CUP, including secularizing reforms and educational expansions.

6. Delegate Profiles

1. Talat Bey

A leading figure of the CUP and one of its most influential civilian leaders. Talat focuses on strengthening the Committee's political control, maintaining internal stability, and rebuilding the Ottoman state after the Balkan Wars.

2. Enver Bey

A prominent CUP officer with strong influence within the army. Enver prioritizes military modernization, territorial recovery, and strengthening the Ottoman military after the defeats in the Balkans.

3. Cemal Bey

A senior military and political figure within the CUP. He is particularly concerned with restoring order, strengthening central authority, and improving the administration and security of the Empire.

4. Dr. Nazım

One of the ideological figures of the CUP. He advocates a strong and centralized state and believes that the Empire requires decisive political and social reforms following the Balkan Wars.

5. Bahaeddin Şakir

A powerful CUP organizer and ideological figure. He supports a strong Committee structure, greater centralization, and policies aimed at strengthening the Muslim population and the authority of the Ottoman state.

6. Mithat Şükrü Bleda

A senior CUP organizer closely connected to the Committee's internal structure. His priorities include strengthening party organization, political stability, and expanding CUP influence over the government.

7. Kara Kemal

An influential CUP figure in Istanbul with strong connections to local networks and commerce. He is concerned with maintaining control in the capital, economic stability, and securing public support for the Committee.

8. Hacı Adil Arda

A senior bureaucrat and CUP politician with experience in provincial administration. He emphasizes administrative reform, stronger central authority, and the effective integration of the Empire's remaining territories.

9. Halil Mentеше

A prominent CUP politician involved in parliamentary affairs and diplomacy. He focuses on rebuilding Ottoman diplomatic influence and managing relations with the Balkan states and European powers.

10. Mehmed Cavit Bey

The CUP's leading economic and financial expert. He advocates financial stabilization, economic reform, and policies aimed at reducing the Empire's dependence on foreign powers.

11. İsmail Canbulat

A CUP politician with experience in internal administration and security. He prioritizes political stability, state security, and strengthening the government's ability to respond to internal disorder.

12. Fethi Bey

An army officer and politician with diplomatic experience. He supports military reform while emphasizing diplomacy and the restoration of the Ottoman Empire's international position.

13. Hafız Hakkı Bey

A rising military officer associated with the CUP. He favors rapid military modernization, stronger military organization, and preparations for future conflicts.

14. Yakup Cemil

A radical CUP officer known for his loyalty to the Committee. He favors decisive action, strong central authority, and aggressive measures to protect Ottoman interests.

15. Hüseyin Cahit Yalçın

A prominent journalist and CUP intellectual. He sees the press as an essential tool for defending the Committee, shaping public opinion, and promoting political reform.

16. Ziya Gökalp

An influential intellectual associated with the CUP's ideological circles. He focuses on the future identity of the Ottoman state, social reform, and the growing importance of Turkish nationalism.

17. Emanuel Karasu

A prominent CUP politician and one of its important representatives in the capital. He is particularly interested in political stability, parliamentary affairs, and maintaining the Committee's broad political network.

18. Rahmi Bey

A senior CUP politician and provincial leader. He is concerned with maintaining administrative stability, strengthening local CUP organization, and managing the consequences of the Balkan Wars.

19. Ahmed Rıza

A founding figure of the Young Turk movement and an important constitutionalist within the CUP tradition. He emphasizes constitutional government, parliamentary authority, and preserving the legitimacy of the Ottoman state.

20. Süleyman Askerî Bey

A CUP officer closely connected to the organization's military networks. He prioritizes military reconstruction, national security, and strengthening Ottoman capabilities following the Balkan defeats.

7. Topics that need to be discussed

- *The Consequences of the Balkan Wars and Territorial Losses*
- *The Question of Edirne*
- *Reconstruction and Modernization of the Ottoman Army*
- *The Political Future of the Ottoman Empire and the Role of the Young Turks*

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