

GMUN'20

10-11-12 January

Dear Participants,

We have the utmost pleasure and honor of welcoming you to GMUN'20. As your committee directors we hope that you'll have a great time during the conference.

Remember that as committee directors, we are only here to guide, but the conference is yours. We are true believers of the role of the United Nations and its agencies in such a complex and globalized world, and by sharing that belief with you we hope you make it yours and engage with other problems in the future that might require potential leaders as you are.

As directors, we ensure you that we are waiting for constructive and fruitful debates also effective solution ideas from all of you. Crisis committees function differently than General Assembly committees. You are able to do what you want with the individuals you represent in the crisis committees. That's why, you can often get stressed and panic. In this case, stay calm and write the best directive you can write with your information!

I also would like to utter my appreciation for the designated sir/madam Under Secretary General, Oğulcan BOZDOĞAN, and Committee Directors Kutay DOĞRU, Asilhan OLGUN and Berfu ÖZCAN for working with me.

I strongly encourage you to read and comprehend this study guide in full for understanding the topics that are to be discussed in the committee. If you have any questions, I am more than happy to help you with them. Please do not hesitate to contact me via

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Kindest regards,

Your mastermind committee director Atakan ÖZKUT

World War I, also called First World War or Great War, an international conflict that in 1914–18 embroiled most of the nations of Europe along with Russia, the United States, the Middle East, and other regions. The war pitted the Central Powers—mainly Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey—against the Allies—mainly France, Great Britain, Russia, Italy, Japan, and, from 1917, the United States. It ended with the defeat of the Central Powers. The war was virtually unprecedented in the slaughter, carnage, and destruction it caused.

World War I was one of the great watersheds of 20th-century geopolitical history. It led to the fall of four great imperial dynasties (in Germany, Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey), resulted in the Bolshevik Revolution in Russia, and, in its destabilization of European society, laid the groundwork for World War II.



The Outbreak Of War

Although there were a number of causes for the war, the assassination of Austrian Archduke Franz Ferdinand was the main catalyst for starting the war. After the assassination, Austria declared war on Serbia. Then Russia prepared to defend its ally Serbia. Next, Germany declared war on Russia to protect Austria. This caused France to declare war on Germany to protect its ally Russia. Germany invaded Belgium to get to France which caused Britain to declare war on Germany. This all happened in just a few days.

Convinced that Austria-Hungary was readying for war, the Serbian government ordered the Serbian army to mobilize and appealed to Russia for assistance. On July 28, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia, and the tenuous peace between Europe's great powers quickly collapsed.

Within a week, Russia, Belgium, France, Great Britain and Serbia had lined up against Austria-Hungary and Germany, and World War I had begun.



The Western Front

According to an aggressive military strategy known as the Schlieffen Plan (named for its mastermind, German Field Marshal Alfred von Schlieffen), Germany began fighting World War I on two fronts, invading France through neutral Belgium in the west and confronting Russia in the east.

On August 4, 1914, German troops crossed the border into Belgium. In the first battle of World War I, the Germans assaulted the heavily fortified city of Liege, using the most powerful weapons in their arsenal—enormous siege cannons—to capture the city by August 15. The Germans left death and destruction in their wake as they advanced through Belgium toward France, shooting civilians and executing a Belgian priest they had accused of inciting civilian resistance.



The Eastern Front

On the Eastern Front of World War I, Russian forces invaded the German-held regions of East Prussia and Poland, but were stopped short by German and Austrian forces at the Battle of Tannenberg in late August 1914.

Despite that victory, Russia's assault had forced Germany to move two corps from the Western Front to the Eastern, contributing to the German loss in the Battle of the Marne.

Combined with the fierce Allied resistance in France, the ability of Russia's huge war machine to mobilize relatively quickly in the east ensured a longer, more grueling conflict instead of the quick victory Germany had hoped to win under the Schlieffen Plan.



Russian Revolution

From 1914 to 1916, Russia's army mounted several offensives on World War I's Eastern Front, but was unable to break through German lines.

Defeat on the battlefield, combined with economic instability and the scarcity of food and other essentials, led to mounting discontent among the bulk of Russia's population, especially the poverty-stricken workers and peasants. This increased hostility was directed toward the imperial regime of Czar Nicholas II and his unpopular German-born wife, Alexandra.

Russia's simmering instability exploded in the Russian Revolution of 1917, spearheaded by Vladimir Lenin and the Bolsheviks, which ended czarist rule and brought a halt to Russian participation in World War I.

Russia reached an armistice with the Central Powers in early December 1917, freeing German troops to face the remaining Allies on the Western Front.



America Enters World War I

At the outbreak of fighting in 1914, the United States remained on the sidelines of World War I, adopting the policy of neutrality favored by President Woodrow Wilson while continuing to engage in commerce and shipping with European countries on both sides of the conflict.

Neutrality, however, was increasing difficult to maintain in the face of Germany's unchecked submarine aggression against neutral ships, including those carrying passengers. In 1915, Germany declared the waters surrounding the British Isles to be a war zone, and German U-boats sunk several commercial and passenger vessels, including some U.S. ships.

Widespread protest over the sinking by U-boat of the British ocean liner Lusitania—traveling from New York to Liverpool, England with hundreds of American passengers onboard—in May 1915 helped turn the tide of American public opinion against Germany. In February 1917, Congress passed a \$250 million arms appropriations bill intended to make the United States ready for war.

Germany sunk four more U.S. merchant ships the following month, and on April 2 Woodrow Wilson appeared before Congress and called for a declaration of war against Germany.



World War I at Sea

In the years before World War I, the superiority of Britain's Royal Navy was unchallenged by any other nation's fleet, but the Imperial German Navy had made substantial strides in closing the gap between the two naval powers. Germany's strength on the high seas was also aided by its lethal fleet of U-boat submarines.

After the Battle of Dogger Bank in January 1915, in which the British mounted a surprise attack on German ships in the North Sea, the German navy chose not to confront Britain's mighty Royal Navy in a major battle for more than a year, preferring to rest the bulk of its naval strategy on its U-boats.

The biggest naval engagement of World War I, the Battle of Jutland (May 1916) left British naval superiority on the North Sea intact, and Germany would make no further attempts to break an Allied naval blockade for the remainder of the war.



World War I Planes

World War I was the first major conflict to harness the power of planes. Though not as impactful as the British Royal Navy or Germany's U-Boats, the use of planes in World War I presaged their later, pivotal role in military conflicts around the globe.

At the dawn of World War I, aviation was a relatively new field; the Wright brothers took their first sustained flight just eleven years before, in 1903. Aircraft were initially used primarily for reconnaissance missions. During the First Battle of the Marne, information passed from pilots allowed the allies to exploit weak spots in the German lines, helping the Allies to push Germany out of France.

The first machine guns were successfully mounted on planes in June of 1912 in the United States, but were imperfect; if timed incorrectly, a bullet could easily fell the propeller of the plane it came from. The Morane-Saulnier L, a French plane, provided a solution: The propeller was armored with deflector wedges that prevented bullets from hitting it. The Morane-Saulnier Type L was used by the French, the British Royal Flying Corps (part of the Army), the British Royal Navy Air Service and the Imperial Russian Air Service. The British Bristol Type 22 was another popular model used for both reconnaissance work and as a fighter plane.

Dutch inventor Anthony Fokker improved upon the French deflector system in 1915. His "interrupter" synchronized the firing of the guns with the plane's propeller to avoid collisions. Though his most popular plane during WWI was the single-seat Fokker Eindecker, Fokker created over 40 kinds of airplanes for the Germans.

The Allies debuted the Handley-Page HP O/400, the first two-engine bomber, in 1915. As aerial technology progressed, long-range heavy bombers like Germany's Gotha G.V. (first introduced in 1917) were used to strike cities like London. Their speed and maneuverability proved to be far deadlier than Germany's earlier Zeppelin raids.

By war's end, the Allies were producing five times more aircraft than the Germans. On April 1, 1918, the British created the Royal Air Force, or RAF, the first air force to be a separate military branch independent from the navy or army.

Winston Churchill

Winston Churchill had a varied career during the First World War. At the outbreak of war in 1914, Churchill was serving as First Lord of the Admiralty. In 1915 he helped orchestrate the disastrous Dardanelles naval campaign and was also involved in the planning of the military landings on Gallipoli, both of which saw large losses.

Following the failure of these campaigns, Churchill was demoted and resigned from government. He became an officer in the Army and served on the Western Front until early 1916.

In 1917, under Prime Minister David Lloyd George's coalition government, Churchill was appointed Minister of Munitions, a position he held until January 1919.

In 1919, shortly after the end of the war, he was appointed Secretary of State for Air and War. In this role he attended peace talks in Paris in 1919. He was not involved in the peace process itself but took part in discussions about the shape of the post-war world. He held this position until 1921.



Thomas Woodrow Wilson

Wilson was the 28th president of the United States. More than any other president before him, he was responsible for increasing American involvement in world affairs and his idealistic vision led to the creation of the League of Nations. In 1912, he ran as the Democratic candidate for president and won.

Wilson's domestic policies included the Federal Reserve Act of 1913, which provides the framework that still regulates US banks and money supply. Wilson sought to maintain American neutrality after the outbreak of World War One and was re-elected president in 1916 on the slogan 'He Kept Us Out of War'. But the German policy of unrestricted submarine warfare, which included the sinking of American shipping, led Wilson to bring the US into the conflict in April 1917.

In January 1918, in a major speech to Congress, Wilson laid out his Fourteen Points, which he believed should form the basis of the peace settlements in Europe. He attended the Versailles peace negotiations to advocate this programme, but the resulting treaties left him bitterly disappointed. Wilson returned to the US and waged a futile struggle to win United States ratification of the Treaty of Versailles and American support for the new League of Nations. He was awarded the 1919 Nobel Prize for Peace for his efforts to create the league.



Kaiser Wilhelm II

Wilhelm II (1859-1941), the German kaiser (emperor) and king of Prussia from 1888 to 1918, was one of the most recognizable public figures of World War I (1914-18). He gained a reputation as a swaggering militarist through his speeches and ill-advised newspaper interviews. While Wilhelm did not actively seek war, and tried to hold back his generals from mobilizing the German army in the summer of 1914, his verbal outbursts and his open enjoyment of the title of Supreme War Lord helped bolster the case of those who blamed him for the conflict.

Wilhelm's behavior during the crisis that led to war in August 1914 is still controversial. There is little doubt that he had been broken psychologically by the criticism that followed the Eulenburg-Harden and Daily Telegraph scandals; he suffered an episode of depression in 1908. In addition, the kaiser was out of touch with the realities of international politics in 1914; he thought that his blood relationships to other European monarchs were sufficient to manage the crisis that followed the June 1914 assassination of the Austrian archduke Franz Ferdinand (1863-1914) in Sarajevo, Bosnia. Although Wilhelm signed the order for German mobilization following pressure from his generals–Germany declared war against Russia and France during the first week of August 1914– he is reported to have said, "You will regret this, gentlemen."

With World War I under way, the kaiser, as commander in chief of the German armed forces, retained the power to make upper-level changes in military command. Nonetheless, he was largely a shadow monarch during the war, useful to his generals as a public-relations figure who toured the front lines and handed out medals. After 1916, Germany was, in effect, a military dictatorship dominated by two generals, Paul von Hindenburg (1847-1934) and Erich Ludendorff (1865-1937).



Franz Joseph I

On 28 June 1914 Franz Joseph's nephew and heir Archduke Franz Ferdinand, and his morganatic wife Sophie, Duchess of Hohenberg, were assassinated by Gavrilo Princip, a Yugoslav nationalist of Serbian ethnicity, during a visit to Sarajevo. When he heard the news of the assassination, Franz Joseph said that "one has not to defy the Almighty. In this manner a superior power has restored that order which I unfortunately was unable to maintain."

While the emperor was shaken, and interrupted his holiday to return to Vienna, he soon resumed his vacation at his imperial villa at Bad Ischl. Initial decision-making during the "July Crisis" fell to Count Leopold Berchtold, the Austrian foreign minister; Count Franz Conrad von Hötzendorf, the chief of staff for the Austro-Hungarian army and the other ministers. The ultimate resolution of deliberations by the Austrian government during the weeks following the assassination of the Archduke was to give Serbia an ultimatum of itemized demands with which it was virtually certain Serbia would be unable or unwilling to comply, thus serving as a "legal basis for war."

However, the general movement toward war with Serbia was already in motion prior to assassination of the Archduke as evidenced by a 14 June memo of Berchtold recommending the "elimination of Serbia" as a state, which Franz Josef expressed agreement with in a letter delivered to Kaiser Wilhelm II in Berlin on 5 July. In that letter, Franz Josef "...explicitly stated that the decision for war against Serbia had been made before the assassination of the Archduke, and that the events of Sarajevo only confirmed the already pre-existing need for a war."

A week after delivery of the Austrian ultimatum to Serbia, on 28 July, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia. Within weeks, the Germans, Russians, French and British had all entered the fray which eventually became known as World War I. On 6 August, Franz Joseph signed the declaration of war against Russia.



Nicholas II

Nicholas II was born on May 6, 1868 (from the Julian calendar, which was used in Russia until 1918) in Pushkin, Russia. He inherited the throne when his father, Alexander III, died in 1894. Although he believed in autocracy, he was eventually forced to create an elected legislature. Nicholas II's handling of Bloody Sunday and World War I incensed his subjects and led to his abdication. Bolsheviks executed him and his family on the night of July 16-17, 1918, in Yekaterinburg, Russia.

At the beginning of World War I, Russia's armies performed poorly. In response, Nicholas II appointed himself commander-in-chief, so he could take direct control of the military from Grand Duke Nicholas, against the advice of his ministers. Nicholas II spent much of late 1915 through August 1917 away from Tsarskoe Selo in Saint Petersburg.

In his absence, the empress grew increasingly withdrawn and ever more dependent on Rasputin, who heavily influenced her political view on matters at home. Nicholas II's ministers consequently resigned in rapid succession and were replaced by Alexandra's chosen candidates, as influenced by Rasputin until his 1916 murder by nobles.



Georges Clemenceau

Georges Clemenceau, byname The Tiger, French Le Tigre, (born September 28, 1841, Mouilleron-en-Pareds, France—died November 24, 1929, Paris), statesman and journalist who was a dominant figure in the French Third Republic and, as premier (1917–20), a major contributor to the Allied victory in World War I and a framer of the postwar Treaty of Versailles.

Back in the Senate (1911), Clemenceau became a member of its commissions for foreign affairs and the army. He was convinced that Germany intended war, and, haunted by the fear that France might again be caught unprepared, he enquired diligently into the state of France's armaments. In order to publicize his views on rearmament, he founded in May 1913 a new daily paper, L'Homme Libre, with himself as editor.

When World War I broke out in July 1914, the partisan in him gave way to the patriot, who called upon every Frenchman to join the fray. L'Homme Libre suffered at the hands of the censors for Clemenceau's plain speaking and, in September 1914, was suppressed. Two days later, however, it reappeared entitled L'Homme Enchaîné, and, although at first it was subjected to much cutting, later excisions became rare. Meanwhile, in the Senate Clemenceau agitated for more and more guns, munitions, and soldiers, for judicious use of the available manpower, and for a better organized and equipped medical service. Deeply concerned about the attitude of the United States to the war, he sent urgent appeals to the American public and to Pres. Woodrow Wilson and was overjoyed at the United States' entry into the war in April 1917.

Above all, Clemenceau strove to create an indomitable "will to victory." As the war dragged on, weariness, slackness, and pacifism began to appear. He was the first to draw public attention to such insidious perils. In these difficult conditions, President Poincaré, in November 1917, called upon Clemenceau to form a government. Though he was 76 years of age, he formed his cabinet with himself as minister of war as well as premier. Clemenceau's single purpose was to win the war, and to this aim all other interests were subordinated. For traitors and defeatists he had no clemency. The hope of victory urged him on. Yet he was obsessed with the need for a unified military command and was able ultimately to convert to his viewpoint the allied governments and military leaders. In March 1918, Ferdinand Foch was designated sole commander. Despite disasters in May 1918, Clemenceau's resolve remained unshaken, and he declared that he would wage war "to the last quarter hour, for the last quarter hour will be ours."



Herbert Clark Hoover

Herbert Hoover gained a reputation as a humanitarian in World War I by leading hunger-relief efforts in Europe as head of the American Relief Administration. From there he moved into the post of U.S. secretary of commerce and spearheaded the construction of the St. Lawrence Seaway and the Hoover Dam. In 1928, Hoover was elected president, but eight months later the stock market crash of 1929 occurred, ushering in the Great Depression. Hoover's policies could not overcome the economic destruction and despair that resulted, and he lost his reelection bid in 1932.

A lifelong humanitarian, as an adult, Hoover was in China during the Boxer Rebellion (1900), and he organized the relief efforts for trapped foreigners. Four years later, he helped Americans stranded in Europe when World War I began, and for three years after, he headed the Commission for Relief in Belgium, helping to procure food for 9 million Belgians in the aftermath of the massive encroachment of German troops. His effectiveness prompted President Woodrow Wilson to appoint Hoover head of the Food Administration, which diverted American agricultural products overseas to American troops.

Hoover next served as head of the American Relief Administration, which helped post-WWI Europe feed its people. President Warren G. Harding then picked Hoover to be his secretary of commerce, as did President Calvin Coolidge after him. In this role, he was the driving force behind such projects as the St. Lawrence Seaway and the Hoover Dam.



Maximilian von Baden

Born on 10 July 1867 in Baden Baden the son of the Grand Duke Frederick I's brother Prince Wilhelm, Max von Baden became heir to the grand duchy in 1907.

Max's early role during World War One was chiefly confined to welfare work for prisoners of war (of all nationalities). Over time however he became a focal point for moderate political opinion opposed to the extreme right-wing policies as demonstrated by the Third Supreme Command, a virtual military dictatorship led by Paul von Hindenburg and Erich Ludendorff.

In 1917 he came out in firm opposition to a resumption in unrestricted submarine warfare. Instigated in any event the policy ultimately proved disastrous, eventually drawing the neutral U.S. into the war against the Central Powers.

Appointed Chancellor by Wilhelm II in October 1918 (succeeding Georg Hertling) with Germany staring military defeat in the face, the Kaiser and the military high command hoped that Max could - with his reputation for moderation, in particular his opposition to unrestricted submarine warfare negotiate favourable armistice terms via U.S. President Woodrow Wilson.



Radomir Putnik

Radomir Putnik (1847-1917), the Serbian Chief of General Staff, began the First World War in rather unfortunate circumstances, one that caused no small amount of amusement in diplomatic circles in August 1914. His health having suffered as a result of the Second Balkan War (1913), Putnik had elected to take the waters at an Austrian spa and was interned there by the Austro-Hungarian authorities when war was declared by Austria-Hungary against Serbia on 28 July.

- The Austro-Hungarian Emperor, Franz Josef, was however outraged that the 67-year-old Field Marshal should have been arrested in such circumstances and ordered Putnik's immediate release.
- By 1914 Putnik had already established a remarkable career as a fighting commander, dating back to the Balkan wars of the 1870s and 1880s, continuing up until the Balkan war which concluded just one year before the start of the Great War.
- In 1906 Putnik was appointed King Peter's Minister of War, in which capacity he oversaw Serbia's role in both Balkan Wars of 1912-13, from which Serbia emerged with her territorial mass doubled in size, while simultaneously modernising the army. In 1912 Putnik was made Field Marshal, the first to be promoted such in the Serbian army.

Once Putnik had managed to return to Serbia from Austria-Hungary in August 1914, still somewhat frail, he set about organising Serbia's defence against the Austro-Hungarian onslaught led by Potiorek; although the nominal Serbian Commander in Chief was Prince Alexander). In this Putnik was successful in all respects, ensuring that Austrian forces were in fact entirely expelled from Serbian territory.

Such a situation could not be expected to last however. Austria-Hungary's second planned invasion, launched in October/November 1915 with the aid of German and Bulgarian troops and led by the renowned German August von Mackensen, succeeded in driving the Serbian army across the wintry mountains of Albania to Corfu. Putnik himself, deeply ill, had to carried the entire distance in a sedan chair.



Herbert Henry Asquith

British politician Herbert Henry (also known as H.H.) Asquith (1852-1928), a reform-minded member of the Liberal Party, served in the British House of Commons for three decades and was prime minister from 1908 to 1916, leading Britain during the first years of World War I (1914-18).

Although convinced of the legitimacy of Britain's declaration of war against Germany in 1914, Asquith was reluctant immediately to extend government power to create an economy suited to fight an industrial war on a vast scale.

His 'business as usual' approach was accompanied by a process of decisionmaking in which Asquith deliberately and respectfully acknowledged the expertise of his military commanders.

In May 1915, after reports of munitions' shortages on the Western Front, squabbles between Lord Fisher and Winston Churchill at the Admiralty, and failures at Gallipoli, Asquith was forced into a coalition government with the Conservatives.

But he remained the focal point for blame for all military, naval and policy setbacks. He was increasingly sidelined in strategic decision-making and ultimately outmanoeuvred by Lloyd George.



Asquith resigned as Prime Minister on 5 December 1916.

Constantine I of Greece

Constantine I (1868-1923), the eldest son of George I, who came to power with the assassination of his father in 1913, ruled Greece twice, from 1913-17 and again from 1920-22.

Prior to war in 1914 Constantine, as Crown Prince, had led the Greek forces during the successful Balkan Wars of 1912-13. He ascended to the throne on 8 March 1913 with the news of his father's death in Salonika. Following an education in Germany, a spell spent serving in the Prussian army, and then marriage to the German Kaiser's sister Sophia (in 1889), Constantine's sympathies naturally lay more towards the Central Powers than to the Entente Powers once war broke out in August 1914. Nevertheless he was faced with the difficulty of determining officially where Greece's support lay once war was underway. This task was complicated by the plain fact that his government, led by Eleutherios Venizelos, was determinedly pro-Allied; added to this was the uncomfortable realisation that the Entente Powers were in possession of naval dominance of the Mediterranean. Constantine's true sympathies came out during the Allies' disastrous Dardanelles campaign. Despite popular support recently demonstrated at the general election of March 1915 where Venizelos won a landslide victory, Constantine dismissed Venizelos as Prime Minister in October 1915 in view of his increasing support for the Allies, and in his stead placed a succession of puppet premiers, all swayed by the King.

Venizelos retired to Thessalonica where with the support of the Allies he established a provisional revolutionary government, much to Constantine's dissatisfaction.

Greek postage stamp featuring ConstantineWith civil war apparently imminent in 1916 Constantine sought, from Germany, firm promises of naval, military and economic assistance - without success.

Meanwhile the Allies had lost patience with the King and threatened an invasion of Greece (sponsored by Venizelos) unless Constantine abdicated.

Consequently, and after some delay, Constantine reluctantly abdicated in June 1917 in favour of his second son Alexander and sought exile in Switzerland (click here to read Alexander's inaugural proclamation). While there he continued to harass the Greek government led once again by Venizelos.



David Lloyd George

David Lloyd George, also called (1945) 1st Earl Lloyd-George of Dwyfor, Viscount Gwynedd of Dwyfor, (born Jan. 17, 1863, Manchester, Eng.—died March 26, 1945, Ty-newydd, near Llanystumdwy, Caernarvonshire, Wales), British prime minister (1916–22) who dominated the British political scene in the latter part of World War I.

Lloyd George's major achievement during the years immediately before the war was in the field of social insurance. Inspired by a visit to Germany (1908), where he studied the Bismarckian scheme of insurance benefits, Lloyd George decided to introduce health and unemployment insurance on a similar basis in Britain. This he did in the National Insurance Act of 1911. The measure inspired bitter opposition and was even unpopular with the working class, who were not convinced by Lloyd George's slogan "ninepence for fourpence," the difference in these two figures being the employer's and the state's contribution. Lloyd George, undeterred, piloted his measure through Parliament with great skill and determination. He thus laid the foundations of the modern welfare state and, if he had done nothing else, would deserve fame for that achievement.

Though much of the government's time during these years was occupied by the Irish question, Lloyd George played little part in it and, on the whole, left foreign policy to his colleagues. It was, therefore, something of a surprise when, in July 1911, after careful consultation with Asquith and Sir Edward Grey, he issued a formidable warning to Germany over the Moroccan crisis. When the question of entry into the war convulsed the Cabinet in late July and early August 1914, he seemed at first to incline to the isolationist section. For a brief moment he contemplated retirement. But the tide of events swept him to the other side. As chancellor, he plunged into the financial problems posed by the war.



George Patton

Considered one of the most successful combat generals in U.S history, George Patton was the first officer assigned to the Tank Corps in WWI. During WWII, he helped lead the Allies to victory in the invasion of Sicily, and was instrumental to the liberation of Germany from the Nazis.

Patton had his first real taste of battle in 1915, when leading cavalry patrols against Pancho Villa at Fort Bliss along the Mexican border. In 1916, he was selected to aide John J. Pershing, commander of the American Expeditionary Forces in Mexico. In Mexico, Patton impressed Pershing by personally shooting Mexican leader Julio Cardenas during the Battle of Columbus. Pershing promoted Patton to captain and invited him to lead Pershing's Headquarters Troop once they left Mexico.

In 1917, during WWI, Patton was the first officer assigned to the new American Expeditionary Force tank corps. Tanks had proven effective in France at the Battle of Cambrai. Patton studied this battle and established himself as one of the leading experts in tank warfare. He organized the American tank school in Bourg, France, and trained American tankers to pilot the French Renault tanks. Patton's first battle was at St. Mihiel, in September 1918. He was later wounded in the battle of Meuse-Argonne and later earned the Distinguished Service Medal for his leadership of the tank brigade and establishing the tank school.



Vittorio Emanuele Orlando

Born on 19 May 1860, Orlando was raised in Palermo, Sicily. Aside from his prominent political role Orlando is also renowned for his 100+ writings on legal and judicial issues; Orlando was himself a professor of law.

On 30 October 1917, saw Orlando's appointment as Prime Minister, coming fresh in the wake of the disastrous campaign at Caporetto. Always a strong proponent of Italy's role in the war, Orlando was encouraged in his support of the Allies on the basis of secret promises made by the latter promising significant Italian territorial gains in Dalmatia (at the 1915 Treaty of London).

With his appointment as Prime Minister having boosted national morale, Orlando replaced Cadorna as Chief of Staff with Diaz. The following year consequently saw Italian success at Vittorio Veneto.

Prime Minister until the end of the war, Orlando headed the Italian contingent at the Paris Peace Conference in 1919. Unable however to obtain the expected territorial concessions - he ran up against U.S. President Wilson's policy of national self-determination, particularly with regard to Fiume - he dramatically left the conference early, in April 1919, returning only to sign the resultant treaty the following month.



Sultan Mehmed VI

Born on 14 January 1861 Mehmed - original name Mehmed Vahideddin - was unlike the brother he succeeded as Sultan, Mehmed V, in that he was both intelligent and politically capable of ruling the Ottoman Empire of his own accord without the backing of the Young Turks.

Succeeding his brother on 3 July 1918 Mehmed VI presided over the terminal decline of the Ottoman Empire. Determined to assumed personal control over government and, crucially, to ensure the continued survival of the Ottoman dynasty, Mehmed co-operated with the Allies in suppressing all nationalist groups in the wake of the unconditional surrender and armistice of 30 October 1918.

In this he was fortunately unencumbered by the Young Turk administration with many of its leaders seeking exile on a German ship bound for Germany following Turkey's military defeat. Instead an Allied military administration was formed in Istanbul a month later on 8 December 1918. Parliament was dissolved on 21 December with the Sultan publicly affirming his determination to suppress nationalist ideologies of all colours.

The nationalists nevertheless remained active in Anatolia. After prolonged negotiations they secured the Sultan's agreement to hold elections late in 1919.

The results were predictable in returning a majority of nationalists to the new Parliament. Equally predictably the Allies took fright at the nationalist gains and extended their own military zone in Constantinople, simultaneously arresting and exiling nationalist leaders.

On 11 April 1920 Mehmed dissolved Parliament, causing the nationalists to establish a provisional government in Ankara. However it was the Sultan's signing of the Treaty of Sevres on 10 August 1920 that sparked the ire of the nationalists under the leadership of Kemal Pasha. Under the terms of the treaty the Ottoman Empire was reduced to little more than Turkey itself.



Albert I

Albert I (1875-1934) was King of the Belgians throughout the war, organising resistance to German occupation of much of Belgium.

He came to the throne in 1909, succeeding his uncle, Leopold II.

Belgium occupied the only open tract of land between France and Germany, thus its stance as a neutral power was key to the balance of power in pre-war Europe.

Belgium's neutrality not withstanding, Germany issued an ultimatum on 2 August 1914, demanding that Belgium allow German forces access to its territory so that Germany could gain ready access to French borders. Albert I resisted the demand and took personal charge of his forces.

Germany therefore invaded Belgium on 4 August 1914, quickly overrunning the country's small army (consisting of 43,000 men in 1914, with 115,000 reserve troops) and forcing Albert I to move the Belgian government to Le Havre from where he continued to govern his nation (although he himself continued to live in Belgium, firstly in De Panne and then in Kasteel De Moeren).



Vasil Radoslavov

Vasil Radoslavov (1854-1929), the Bulgarian politician, was for five years a close aide of Tsar Ferdinand I and served as Bulgarian Prime Minister twice before ultimately being dismissed by Ferdinand, thereafter seeking exile in Germany.

In 1899 Radoslavov was appointed Minister for Internal Affairs in Ivanchev's cabinet, remaining in his post until 1900 when he became premier of the Kingdom of Bulgaria for the first time, his term chiefly being noted for the extent of its corruption.

Following the conclusion of this term of office Radoslavov remained out of power until, in 1913, his markedly pro-German (and anti-Russian in the light of the Second Balkan War of the same year) views struck a chord with Ferdinand who appointed him premier for the second time.

Working in tandem with Ferdinand (who took an active interest in shaping foreign policy), Radoslavov coerced the Bulgarian parliament into ratifying of a sizeable Austro-German Ioan in the midst of the July Crisis of 1914.

For the remainder of 1914 and into 1915 Radoslavov played his diplomatic cards artfully, managing to convince Allied diplomats of his earnestness is remaining neutral in the European war now underway. In reality he, along with Ferdinand, always intended to ultimately support the Central Powers.

With Bulgaria having finally entered the war in September 1915 (thus sealing Serbia's fate), Radoslavov found himself under increasing pressure from his German allies to make available various resources to aid Germany's war effort.

This, combined with shortages at home, led to a rapid diminishment in personal support both in parliament and in the country at large, unpopularity that was merely fuelled by his decision to commit Bulgarian resources to the fight against Romania in the autumn of 1916.



Sir Edward Grey

Educated at Winchester and Balliol College, Oxford, Grey was elected to Parliament as a Liberal member in 1892, representing the seat of Berwick-on-Tweed. Grey served twice as Foreign Secretary, firstly from 1892-95 in Gladstone's final administration, and then from 1905-16 in Henry Campbell-Bannerman and Herbert Henry Asquith's governments.

Sometimes criticised for a certain opacity in his administration of British foreign policy, Grey saw the defence of France against German aggression as a key policy component, consequently entering into an agreement with France and Russia, each guaranteeing to come to the aid of the others in the event of war. Unfortunately much of Grey's diplomacy was conducted behind closed doors, and was not made sufficiently public as to act as a deterrent to German policy.

It is argued that had Grey clearly stated in late July 1914 that Britain either would - or would not support France in the event of war, war itself could have been avoided. In short, if Britain had declared early support for France it is suggested that Germany would have convinced Austria-Hungary to settle with Serbia rather than declare war. Similarly, if Britain had made clear that she would remain neutral in the event of war, France (and possibly Russia) would have attempted to seek a resolution.

In any event, once Germany declared war against France on 3 August and invaded neutral Belgium the following day, Britain entered the war against Germany, Grey citing an 'obligation of honour' to France and Belgium - the latter through a 19th century treaty guaranteeing Belgian neutrality.

The nature of Grey's diplomacy led to dispute within his own party, and within the opposition Labour Party. Charles Trevelyan, the Liberal Secretary of the Board of Education, resigned from the government in protest over Grey's handling of the matter.

Grey himself was shocked by the turn of events, issuing his famous warning, "The lamps are going out all over Europe; we shall not see them lit again in our lifetime." His Balkan policy was blamed for antagonising Turkey and Bulgaria, and for complicating relations with Greece and Roumania, leading to his exclusion from Prime Minister Asquith's Inner War Cabinet in November 1915.

With Lloyd George's ascent to power as Prime Minister in December 1916, Grey was replaced by Balfour as Foreign Secretary. Ennobled earlier that year in July as Viscount Grey of Fallodon, he subsequently became Leader of the House of Lords.



Closing Note

Firstly thanks again for your attendance and hard works. We would like to remind you that this guide is not enough to fully understand the war, strategies, situations, reasons, answers, characters and on-going relationships with these characters. So from now you should research more and collect more facts. As you can also get we weren't able to put all of the things here. That's why; please don't stick with guide.

As most of you know; delegates have to use 'WE (plural pronoun)' instead of 'l (singular pronoun)' because of delegating a country or rebuplic **but** since you are representing characters and personalities you should use 'l (singular pronoun)' instead of 'WE (plural pronoun)'! Thank you for your high attention.



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