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Congress
Of
Berlin
STUDY GUIDE

Table of Contents

- 1) Letter From Secretariat**
- 2) Letter From Under Secretary General**
- 3) Letter From Academic Assistants**
- 4) Introduction the Committee Agenda Item and Further**
- 5) Russo -Turkish War (1877-1878)**
- 6) Treaty of Berlin**
- 7) Main Issues of the Discussion**
 - a) United Kingdom**
 - b) Russian Empire**
 - c) Austria-Hungary**
 - d) Germany**
 - e) France**
 - f) Kingdom of Italy**
 - g) Ottoman Empire**
- 8) Policies of the Participant States**
 - a) Russian Empire**
 - b) Ottoman Empire**
 - c) Austria-Hungary Empire**
 - d) German Empire**
 - e) France**
 - f) Kingdom of Italy**
 - g) Principality of Serbia**
 - h) Principality of Montenegro**
 - i) Romania**

- j) Kingdom of Greece**
- k) Albanian Delegation**
- l) Armenian Delegation**

9) Committee Matrix and Committee Maps for the Committee

- a) Matrix**
- b) Map for the Committee**

10) Bibliography

1) Letter From Secretariat

Dear Delegates,

It is our distinct honor and privilege to welcome you all to ATAMUN '2026. On behalf of the Secretariat and the Executive Board, we extend our warmest greetings as we prepare to embark on an exceptional journey defined by constructive debate, diplomatic negotiation, and global problem-solving.

This year marks a monumental step forward for our conference. We are exceptionally proud to announce our affiliations with Yale Model United Nations (YMUN LIII) and Oxford Global. These partnerships underscore our unwavering commitment to maintaining world-class academic standards, fostering international educational exchange, and offering our delegates a diplomatic experience rooted in the highest global benchmark of MUN excellence.

This Study Guide has been meticulously drafted by the Academic Team of Congress of Berlin to provide you with a comprehensive, nuanced foundation for your committee deliberations. It outlines the core historical context, key political dynamics, and central questions facing your respective committees. We strongly encourage you to immerse yourselves in your delegation's foreign policy, push the boundaries of innovative policymaking, and engage with the debate in a spirit of true diplomatic leadership.

We wish you a fruitful and rewarding preparation process, and we eagerly look forward to seeing the impactful debates you will lead at ATAMUN '2026.

Warmest regards,

Kerem Veysel Düzgün & Hasan Arif Ege Başkurt
Co-Secretaries-General, ATAMUN '2026

2) Letter From Under Secretary General

Distinguished participants of this committee,

As you all are familiar with, I am Sacit Eren TUNCER and I would like to honorably welcome you all to the “Congress of Berlin”. In our committee I will be serving as your Under Secretary General, during the long awaited days of this prestigious conference. First and foremost i would like to thank to the executive team for giving me this opportunity to realise this committee. We created this glorious committee with my Co Academic Assistants Ali Özer and Can Dağlı so I sincerely give my special gratitudes to them for supporting me in this journey.

First of all in order to ensure you a better perspective on our congress, we prepared a comprehensive study guide for you to emphasize some significant aspects that you will need to consider in official sessions. As your Under Secretary General i definitely would suggest you all to read this study guide and make further research. Despite this guide providing you significant informations upon our committee, as delegates you are obligated to do independent research in order to increase your understanding of the subject. I genuinely wish this committee will be an unforgettable and productive experience that contributes to your career and skills.

If you have any kind of questions prior to the conference, do not hesitate to contact me. You can reach me through my e-mail, erenter999@gmail.com

3) Letter From Academic Assistants

Esteemed participants of this committee,

I am Can Osman DAĞLI, and I would like to welcome you all to the Congress of Berlin. I am also the academic assistant for this exceptional committee.

First of all, I would like to express my gratitude to all of you for participating in the committee. I believe we will have a great time as the best committee of this unique conference.

I would like to express my endless gratitude to the dear executive team for giving me the opportunity to form this committee.

I believe it will be an unforgettable committee for you. I hope you all read and study the study guide we have prepared. If you do, I believe you will enjoy the committee immensely.

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact us. Your questions are very important to us.

Sincerely

Can Osman Dağlı

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4) Introduction the Committee Agenda Item and Further

Congress of Berlin, (June 13–July 13, 1878), diplomatic meeting of the major European powers at which the Treaty of Berlin replaced the Treaty of San Stefano, which had been signed by Russia and Turkey (March 3, 1878) at the conclusion of the Russo-Turkish War of 1877–1878. Officially convoked by the Austrian foreign minister, Count Gyula Andrassy, the congress met in Berlin on June 13.

Russia's resounding victory over the Turks, sealed in the Treaty of San Stefano on March 3, 1878, brought an immediate adverse reaction from Great Britain and Austria in the form of a demand that the government at St. Petersburg submit the peace settlement to an international congress of European states. The major reservation that Austria and Britain had regarding the Treaty of San Stefano was its provision for the creation of a greater Bulgaria with an outlet to the Aegean Sea. To Austria, this amounted to the establishment of Russian hegemony over the eastern Balkans, not to mention the violation of two Austro-Russian accords, those of Reichstadt and Budapest, forbidding the creation of an enlarged Slavic state.

After some preliminary arrangements between Britain, the Austro-Hungarian Empire, Russia, and the Ottoman Empire, a general European congress was convened in Berlin, with German chancellor Otto von Bismarck serving as host and "honest broker." Andrassy represented the Austro-Hungarian Empire, Gorchakov represented Russia, and Disraeli represented Great Britain. The Congress of Berlin decided that the enlarged Bulgaria, whose boundaries had been drawn up in March as part of the Treaty of San Stefano, should be divided into three parts: Bulgaria proper, located north of the Balkan Mountains, which was to become an autonomous province of the Ottoman Empire; Eastern Rumelia, located south of the Balkan Mountains, which was somewhat more closely tied to the sultan; and Macedonia, which was to remain under direct Turkish rule. Bulgaria was thus reduced by two-thirds and completely cut off from the Aegean Sea. Other provisions gave Bessarabia to Russia and allowed Austria to occupy Bosnia and Herzegovina as well as to garrison the Sanjak of Novi Bazar, a strip of land lying between Serbia and Montenegro. Great Britain's occupation of Cyprus had previously been arranged on June 4, 1878, before the congress formally opened.

5) Russo -Turkish War (1877-1878)

A series of Balkan revolts and minor wars against Turkish rule had begun in 1875 and continued into 1876. Austria and Russia, along with Germany and Britain, demanded on several occasions that Turkey make reforms to cope with the grievances and aspirations of the repressed areas. Sultan Abdülhamid II often rejected these proposals. Seeing no diplomatic resolution to the crisis after months of broken promises, and eager to extend its influence in the region, Russia declared war on the Ottoman Empire in April 24 1877.

The Russian strategy was to cross Romania , enter Bulgaria, and continue southward with the goal of forcing the Turkish government in Constantinople to surrender or make concessions. During the conflict that lasted less than one year, Russia also had limited military support from several small Balkan principalities: Serbia, Montenegro, and Romania. Three periods characterize the conflict: Russian invasion and initial success, increased Turkish resistance and Russia's campaign against Plevna and final Russian victory.

In the face of Turkish resistance, Russian commanders considered withdrawing from the region but in mid-September adopted a plan for a siege of Plevna. This lasted until the Turkish garrison of 43.000 surrendered in December 1877. Russia suffered average 38.000 casualties during the Plevna operations, while Turkish figures are lower. During the siege, Russian czar Alexander II stayed with the attacking forces, determined to conquer this strategically important point in the Ottoman Empire.

The mountainous terrain in Bulgaria created difficulties for the Russian advance, especially because Turkish troops held several key mountain passes of the Balkan mountain chain through which the Russians had to move to reach the open plains to the south. Shipka Pass was an especially important objective, and General Josif Gurko's cavalry command successfully took the pass in mid-July against Turks commanded by Süleyman Paşa. Several major engagements occurred there between July 1877, and January 1878, as Turkish forces attempted but failed to recapture this vital position and slow the Russian advance southward. At the conclusion of the fourth battle of Shipka Pass, 32.000 Turkish troops surrendered. The battles at Plevna and Shipka Pass are among the most famous military engagements of the war.

With Plevna's surrender in mid-December, sizeable Russian troops were available for the final push southward. They won a major battle against Süleyman Paşa at Plovdiv (Philippopolis) in January 1878. About the same time, Gurko's forces captured the important Bulgarian city of Sofia. Skobelev's forces occupied Adrianople on January 22, not far from Constantinople. Facing imminent collapse and the possible capture of its capital city, the Turkish authorities requested an armistice. The combatants signed a cease-fire at Adrianople on January 31 1878.

Another theater of military operations was fought along the east coast of the Black Sea to the south of the Caucasus Mountains. Russian forces crossed the border in June and attacked Turkish defensive positions in late summer and early fall. The conflict ebbed and flowed throughout the region before the fortress at Kars, a primary Russian objective, surrendered in November 1877. Approximately seventeen thousand Turks surrendered there. Portions of the captured territories in the region were included as Russian annexations in the eventual peace settlement.

Russia's decisive victory over the Ottoman Empire in this relatively short conflict determined the conditions in the Treaty of San Stefano (March 3, 1878), which provided advantages to Russia and its allies. Notable features of the treaty including;

- Montenegro, Serbia and Romania shall become fully independent states.

- A Grand Principality of Bulgaria shall be established; its borders shall be determined by a commission comprising Russian and Ottoman members.

- Bosnia and Herzegovina shall be granted autonomy, and no taxes shall be levied until 1880; after that year, the amount of tax to be levied shall be decided by Russia and Austria.

- Thessaly will be ceded to Greece.

- In return for 1 billion 400 million roubles in war reparations, Ardahan, Kars, Batum, Beyazıt and Dobruja will be ceded to the Russians.

In response to these significant geographic changes and strategic shifts, several European powers (notably Great Britain, Austria, and Germany) attempted to counter and limit Russia's success. Facing diplomatic and possible military opposition, the Russian government agreed to reconsider the San Stefano treaty. The Congress of Berlin (1878) extensively revised that agreement, permitting the creation of a small Bulgarian state as well as allowing Turkish authority to continue in much of southeastern Europe.

Comparing the two major combatants, the Turkish armament was equal to or better than that of the Russians, especially in the quality and accuracy of rifles and artillery. The top leadership on both sides, who were often members of the nobility or other privileged classes, usually is portrayed as marginal at best, permitting field commanders such as Skobelev, Joseph Vladimirovich Gourko, and Osman Nori Paşa to earn their reputations on the battlefield. The Russian strategy and tactics, while uneven, generally outclassed that of Turkey, which did not always utilize its forces effectively. The large geographic area involved in the Balkan and Caucasus campaigns was a serious challenge for the Turks, giving the Russians more opportunity to maneuver to outflank and defeat their rivals. Enlisted men on both sides fought bravely while coping with the great hardships of battle conditions, inadequate supplies, and the harsh winter of 1877-1878.

6) Treaty of Berlin

Following the Berlin Congress, the 64 article Treaty of Berlin was signed between the participating states in 1878. The most important articles of this treaty are as follows:

Article I.

Bulgaria is constituted an autonomous and tributary Principality under the suzerainty of His Imperial Majesty the Sultan; it will have a Christian Government and a national militia.

Article XIII.

A province is formed south of the Balkans which will take the name of “Eastern Roumelia,” and will remain under the direct political and military authority of His Imperial Majesty the Sultan, under conditions of administrative autonomy. It shall have a Christian Governor-General.

Article XXII.

The strength of the Russian corps of occupation in Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia, which shall be composed of six divisions of infantry and two divisions of cavalry, shall not exceed 50,000 men. It shall be maintained at the expense of the country [Page 901]occupied. The army of occupation will preserve its communications with Russia not only through Roumania, in accordance with arrangements to be concluded between the two States, but also through the ports of the Black Sea, Varna and Bourgas, where it may, during the period of occupation, organize the necessary depôts.

The period of the occupation of Eastern Roumelia and Bulgaria by the Imperial Russian troops is fixed at nine months from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the present Treaty.

The Imperial Russian Government undertakes that within a further period of three months the passage of its troops across Roumania shall cease, and that Principality shall be completely evacuated.

Article XXIII.

The Sublime Porte undertakes scrupulously to apply in the Island of Crete the Organic Law of 1868, with such modifications as may be considered equitable.

Similar laws adapted to local requirements, excepting as regards the exemption from taxation granted to Crete, shall also be introduced into the other parts of Turkey in Europe for which no special organization has been provided by the present Treaty.

The Sublime Porte shall depute special Commissions, in which the native element shall be largely represented, to settle the details of the new laws in each province.

The schemes of organization resulting from these labours shall be submitted for examination to the Sublime Porte, which, before promulgating the Acts for putting them into force, shall consult the European Commission instituted for Eastern Roumelia.

Article XXIV.

In the event of the Sublime Porte and Greece being unable to agree upon the rectification of frontier suggested in the 13th Protocol of the Congress of Berlin, Germany, Austria-Hungary, France, Great Britain, Italy, and Russia reserve to themselves to offer their mediation to the two parties to facilitate negotiations.

Article XXV.

The Provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina shall be occupied and administered by Austria-Hungary. The Government of Austria-Hungary, not desiring to undertake the administration of the Sandjak of Novi-Bazar, which extends between Servia and Montenegro in a south-easterly direction to the other side of Mitrovitza, the Ottoman Administration will continue to exercise its functions there. Nevertheless, in order to assure the maintenance of the new political state of affairs, as well as freedom and security of communications, Austria-Hungary reserves the right of keeping garrisons and having military and commercial roads in the whole of this part of the ancient Vilayet of Bosnia. To this end the Governments of Austria-Hungary and Turkey reserve to themselves to come to an understanding on the details.

Article XXVI.

The independence of Montenegro is recognized by the Sublime Porte and by all those of the High Contracting Parties who had not hitherto admitted it.

Article XXXIV.

The High Contracting Parties recognize the independence of the Principality of Servia, subject to the conditions set forth in the following Article.

Article XLIII.

The High Contracting Parties recognize the independence of Roumania, subject to the conditions set forth in the two following Articles.

Article LVIII.

The Sublime Porte cedes to the Russian Empire in Asia the territories of Ardahan, Kars, and Batoum, together with the latter port, as well as all the territories comprised between the former Russo-Turkish frontier and the following line:—

The new frontier starting from the Black Sea, and coinciding with the line laid down by the Treaty of San Stefano as far as a point to the northwest of Khorda, and to the south of Artwin, continues in a straight line as far as the River Tchoroukh, crosses this river and passes to the east of Aschmichen, going in a straight line to the south so as to rejoin the Russian frontier indicated in the Treaty of San Stefano, at a point to the south of Nariman, leaving the town of Olti to Russia. From the point indicated near Nariman the frontier turns to the east, passes by Tebreneç, which remains to Russia, and continues as far as the Pennek Tschai.

It follows this river as far as Bardouz, then turns towards the south, leaving Bardouz and Jönikiöy to Russia. From a point to the west of the village of Karaougan, the frontier takes the direction of Medjingert, continues in a straight line towards the summit of the Mountain Kassadagh, and follows the line of the watershed between the affluents of the Araxes on the north and those of the Mourad Sou on the south, as far as the former frontier of Russia.

Article LX.

The valley of Alaschkerd* and the town of Bayazid, ceded to Russia by Article XIX of the Treaty of San Stefano, are restored to Turkey.

The Sublime Porte cedes to Persia the town and territory of Khotour, as fixed by the mixed Anglo-Russian Commission for the delimitation of the frontiers of Turkey and of Persia.

Article LXI.

The Sublime Porte undertakes to carry out, without further delay, the improvements and reforms demanded by local requirements in the provinces inhabited by the Armenians, and to guarantee their security against the Circassians and Kurds.

It will periodically make known the steps-taken to this effect to the Powers, who will superintend their application.

7) Main Issues of the Discussion

a) United Kingdom

The main agenda for discussion at the Congress of England was to prevent Russia from gaining access to the Aegean Sea via 'Greater Bulgaria', established at Ayastefanos, and to safeguard the Eastern Mediterranean, the Suez Canal and the colonial routes to India. Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli went so far as to threaten the Congress with war by issuing an ultimatum to have the train prepared for the partition of Bulgaria into three parts and the severing of Macedonia from the Aegean coast to be returned to the Ottoman Empire; whilst, in order to free the Trabzon, Erzurum, Tabriz international trade route from Russian control, he secured the transfer of Doğubayazıt and the Eleşkirt Valley to the Ottomans. Furthermore, to counter Russia's unilateral claims of (In Turkish 'hamilik') in Eastern Anatolia, Britain had Article 61 added to the Treaty of Berlin, which distributed oversight of reforms in the provinces with Armenian populations amongst the six great powers. Whilst the Congress was still in session, Britain temporarily assumed administration of Cyprus in exchange for a promise to protect the Ottoman Empire against Russia, thereby consolidating its military hegemony in the Eastern Mediterranean.

b) Russian Empire

Russia, seeking to safeguard at the negotiating table the military victory it had secured in the War of 1877–1878, was unable to uphold the giant map of Bulgaria extending to the Aegean Sea conceived by the zealous Pan-Slavist diplomat Count Ignatyev due to the united Anglo-Austrian alliance it faced and the exhaustion of its army on the outskirts of Yeşilköy; it was thus forced to accept the reduction of Bulgaria's territory. Overshadowed by internal tensions between Foreign Minister Gorchakov and Shuvalov, the Russian ambassador to Berlin, who adopted a more flexible approach, Russian diplomacy managed to maintain control of Kars, Ardahan and Batum (Elviye-i Selâse) by focusing its main efforts on the borders of Eastern Anatolia and the Caucasus. Overcoming Britain's objections to the military threat posed by Batum by declaring the port a "Porto-Franco" (free port) open solely to civilian trade, Russia reclaimed Southern Bessarabia (which it had lost under the 1856 Treaty of Paris) from its ally Romania, and by securing the transfer of the Dobruja region (which had been wrested from the Ottoman Empire) to Romania in compensation for this loss, it emerged from the negotiations with strategic gains, albeit falling short of its military achievements.

c) Austria-Hungary

Following its defeat by Prussia in 1866, Austria-Hungary, having lost its influence on the European mainland and turned its attention to the Balkans, focused the main debate at the congress on preventing a rebellion by the Croatian, Serb and Slovenian populations within its borders, and to prevent Serbia and Montenegro from uniting to open up a powerful Slavic corridor to the Adriatic Sea. Citing lawlessness and a humanitarian crisis in the region, Foreign Minister Count Andr ssy forced the Ottoman delegation to accept the demand for the de facto occupation and administration by Austria of Bosnia-Herzegovina, which was legally Ottoman territory. Moreover, with the aim of permanently preventing the physical unification of the two Serbian states, the Empire secured the right to station an Austrian garrison in the strategically important Yenipazar Sanjak (Sand ak) between them; it also prohibited Montenegro from maintaining a warship at the port of Antivari on the Adriatic, thereby guaranteeing its naval supremacy over the Adriatic.

d) German Empire

In the German Empire, which had achieved unification in 1871 and had no direct territorial claims, Chancellor Otto von Bismarck defined himself as the "Honest Broker" and conducted the main debates at the Congress with the aim of preventing a massive continental war between his allies, Russia and Austria-Hungary, and of preserving the European balance of power so as not to leave Germany caught between two fires. Presiding over the Congress with an extremely stern, impatient and authoritarian demeanour, Bismarck resolutely suppressed the Ottoman delegation's legal objections and treaty rights, stating, "*We are not making international law here, but European peace,*" and expedited the proceedings. With the aim of preventing France from seeking revenge for its 1871 defeat in Alsace-Lorraine, Bismarck secretly encouraged the French delegates to occupy Tunisia, which was Ottoman territory, and, concluding the negotiations quickly, established Germany as the nerve centre of European diplomacy.

e) France

Following its heavy defeat at the hands of Germany in the Battle of Sedan in 1870, France, which was taking its place at the international diplomatic table as a 'Great Power' for the first time, aimed under the leadership of Foreign Secretary William Waddington primarily to secure confirmation of its rights to act as protector (capitulations) of Catholic Christians in the Eastern Mediterranean and Jerusalem (Article 62) and to restore its image. Upon learning during the Congress that Britain had secretly agreed with the Ottomans to take control of Cyprus, the French delegation reacted strongly, arguing that the balance of power in the Eastern Mediterranean had been disrupted, and threatened to walk out of the Congress; they were appeased by the "*Cyprus in exchange for Tunisia*" proposal put forward behind the scenes by Bismarck and Salisbury. France, having been granted tacit permission to occupy Tunisia (an Ottoman possession in North Africa) left the table having secured legitimacy for its colonial ambitions in the Mediterranean and reaffirmed its role as protector of the Catholic faith.

f) Kingdom of Italy

The Kingdom of Italy, which had only recently achieved political unification and had come to Berlin in the hope of gaining recognition amongst the great powers, lodged strong diplomatic protests (under the leadership of its Foreign Minister, Count Luigi Corti) against Austria-Hungary's occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which had upset the balance of power in the Adriatic in its favour. In line with the ideology of "*Italia Irredenta*" (Unified Italy), and in the name of preserving the balance of power in return for the territories gained by Austria, Italy demanded that either the Trentino region on the Austrian border or a strategic port on the Albanian coast be ceded to it. However, as its navy and military deterrent were deemed weak, Italy's demands were completely ignored by Bismarck and the other great powers. Having failed to secure any tangible territory or sphere of influence, Italy left the congress empty-handed, and this failure led to a political crisis in the Italian public sphere known as "*Return with Clean Hands*" (Mani Pulite).

g) Ottoman Empire

The delegation of the Ottoman Empire (Aleksandros Karatodori Pasha, Müşir Mehmed Ali Pasha and Sadullah Bey), which had suffered a severe military defeat in the War of 1893, seen its finances collapse and found itself completely isolated at the negotiating table, pursued a strategy of seeking Britain's diplomatic support as the only means of escaping the catastrophic consequences of the Treaty of Ayastefanos. Through this policy of balancing powers pursued at the cost of ceding the administration of Cyprus to Britain the strategic regions of Macedonia, Thrace, Doğubayazıt and the Eleşkirt Valley, which had been lost at Ayastefanos, were regained, thereby temporarily extending the state's presence in the Balkans and Eastern Anatolia. However, the strong legal objections raised against Austria's occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina were suppressed by Bismarck's threats that 'the Russian army will march on Istanbul once more; Article 61, which entailed reforms in the six vilayets inhabited by Armenians, and the heavy war reparations obligations were accepted out of desperation, resulting in serious damage to the Empire's sovereign rights.

8) Policies of the Participant States

a) Russian Empire

During the Congress Period, the foreign policy of the Russian Empire was shaped by its long-standing aspirations, such as access to the open seas (the Mediterranean), control of the Straits, expansion southwards into the Caucasus, and the ideology of Pan-Slavism, which had gained momentum in the 19th century. Following its victory in the Russo-Turkish War of 1877–1878, Russia's primary strategic objective was to completely liberate all Slavic peoples in the Balkans from Ottoman rule, unite them under the umbrella of a satellite state (Greater Bulgaria) loyal to St Petersburg, and establish an unimpeded Russian corridor between the Black Sea and the Aegean Sea. However, Tsarist diplomacy was forced to back down due not only to its army facing starvation, epidemics and exhaustion on the Yeşilköy front, but also because of economic collapse and a new threat of war posed by the Anglo-Austrian alliance. A policy of “*compromise and balance*” was adopted, in which the maximalist objectives of Pan-Slavist circles were abandoned in favour of giving strategic priority to strengthening the Caucasian borders via Kars, Ardahan and Batum (Elviye-i Selâse) and reaffirming regional power by regaining Southern Bessarabia, which had been lost under the 1856 Treaty of Paris.

b) Ottoman Empire

The foreign policy of the Ottoman Empire, which had suffered a heavy military defeat in the War of 1877 - 1878, seen its economy collapse and had its dominance in the Balkans shaken, consisted solely of clinging to the traditional “*policy of balance among the Great Powers*” in order to ensure its survival. Under the personal leadership of Sultan Abdülhamid II, Ottoman diplomacy sought to mitigate the immense devastation of the Treaty of Ayastefanos by relying on Britain's anti-Russian stance, and succeeded in securing Macedonia and Doğubayazıt at the cost of ceding the administration of Cyprus. However, the Congress of Berlin marked a historic turning point in Ottoman foreign policy: realising that Britain had abandoned its commitment to defending the empire's territorial integrity, Abdulhamid II lost his trust in the West. From this point onwards, whilst a shift was made in foreign policy towards establishing a strategic partnership with Germany in the military and commercial spheres rather than with Britain, the policy of Pan-Islamism (Islamic Unity) was adopted as the main force to prevent disintegration in domestic politics and international diplomacy.

c) Austria-Hungary Empire

The foreign policy of these empires was guided by a turn towards the former Balkans, which they viewed as their sole area for expansion following their defeat by Prussia in 1866 and their exclusion from German unification (*Drang nach Osten*), as well as by concerns over preserving their multi-ethnic structure. The primary fear of the Vienna diplomatic corps, led by the Hungarian-born Foreign Minister Count Andrassy, was that an independent Serbia under Russian influence might unite with Montenegro to gain access to the Adriatic, and that this large Slavic bloc might incite the Croatian, Serbian and Slovenian populations within the Austrian Empire to rise up in independence uprisings. To avert this critical threat, Austria pursued a policy of countering Russian expansionism in the Balkans whilst, at the same time, seizing control of Bosnia and Herzegovina and establishing a strategic military garrison (the Yenipazar Sanjak garrison) between Serbia and Montenegro. Vienna adopted as its fundamental doctrine the occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina without firing a shot, thereby fortifying its southern borders and keeping Slavic nationalism in the Balkans under military control.

d) German Empire

Having achieved national unification in 1871 and become the greatest military power on the European continent, the German Empire was based on the policy of preserving the continental status quo developed by Chancellor Otto von Bismarck. As Germany defined itself as a "*Satiated State*" with no direct territorial claims, the primary aim of its foreign policy was to prevent its two strategic allies, Russia and Austria-Hungary, from going to war over conflicting interests in the Balkans, and to avert a European catastrophe that would leave Germany caught between two fires. In line with this, Bismarck, having declared himself the "Honest Broker", used his diplomatic influence to reconcile the parties and prevent a major war. At the same time, in order to thwart France's quest for revenge (*revanchism*) following its defeat in the 1871 Battle of Alsace-Lorraine, he implemented a fundamental tactic for German continental security by directing the Paris government's energy and attention towards colonial expansion in North Africa.

e) France

Having suffered a heavy defeat in the Franco-Prussian War of 1870–1871 and entering the era of the Third Republic, France was focused on regaining the prestige it had lost as a "Great Power" in international diplomacy and on expanding its colonial spheres of influence in the Mediterranean. Seeking to emerge from isolation, the Paris administration aimed, on the one hand, to restore its prestige by having its right to act as the historical protector of the Catholic subjects in the Eastern Mediterranean and Jerusalem (capitulatory and religious rights) confirmed in treaty texts, while on the other hand, it closely monitored Britain's attempts to establish unilateral dominance in the Eastern Mediterranean. The diplomatic reaction it displayed upon learning of Britain's occupation of Cyprus was appeased by the implicit permission granted by Bismarck and British diplomacy to "*occupy Tunis, which was Ottoman territory*". Thus, France adopted a pragmatic foreign policy channelling its energy towards expansion in North Africa and the establishment of a powerful colonial empire in the Mediterranean, in the face of German pressure on the European continent.

f) Kingdom of Italy

The Kingdom of Italy, which achieved political unification relatively late compared to other states (between 1861 and 1870) was focused on seeking the prestige of being accepted into the club of European 'Great Powers' and on striving to maintain the balance of power in the Mediterranean and the Adriatic in its favour. Guided by the ideology of "*Italia Irredenta*" (Unredeemed Italy), the government in Rome, which had its sights set on the Italian-populated territories under Austrian rule (Trentino, Trieste), vehemently opposed the Austro-Hungarian Empire's occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which would have granted it unilateral power in the Adriatic. In the name of preserving the balance of power, Italian diplomacy argued that, in response to Austria's expansion, Italy should also be granted a share of the Adriatic coastline or Albania, as well as recognition of its rights to influence in North Africa (Tunisia/Tripoli). However, as its economic and military deterrence proved insufficient, Italy's demands were not taken seriously by the great powers, having returned empty-handed from the colonial race (Mani Pulite), it was forced to postpone its claims in the Mediterranean for a while longer.

g) Principality of Serbia

The Principality of Serbia, under the leadership of Foreign Minister Jovan Ristić, was shuttling between the corridors of the congress, seeking to secure full independence from the Ottoman Empire in recognition of its military sacrifices during the War of 1893, and to annex a vast geographical area, encompassing the Yenipazar Sanjak and the southern regions of Niš, Pirot, Leskovac and Vranje, in pursuit of the vision of 'Greater Serbia'. the Sanjak of Yenipazar, and the southern regions of Niš, Pirot, Leskovac and Vranje. As a result of the Congress, Serbia's full independence was recognised internationally, and the southern territories centred on Niš were ceded to it. However, due to Austria-Hungary's firm diplomatic blockade, it was unable to prevent the occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, its primary objective, by Austria, nor the stationing of an Austrian garrison in the Serb-populated Sandžak. This situation placed Serbia in Vienna's economic and political stranglehold, radicalised Serbian nationalism and laid the foundations for the hostilities leading up to the 1914 Sarajevo Assassination.

h) Principality of Montenegro

The fundamental policy of the Principality of Montenegro was to establish its independence under international law and to gain economic and strategic depth by opening up this small, mountainous country, which had been landlocked for centuries, to the Adriatic Sea. With Russia's full diplomatic support, Montenegro not only secured full independence at the congress but also more than doubled its territory, thereby gaining access to the Adriatic via the ports of Antivari (Bar) and, later, Ülgün (Dulcigno). However, as a result of pressure from Austria-Hungary, Montenegro was prohibited from stationing military equipment at these ports; its sovereign rights were restricted to maritime policing. Although Austria's intervention also prevented its geographical unification with Serbia, Montenegro emerged from the conference as one of the Balkan states that had secured the greatest territorial gains.

i) Romania

The Principality of Romania, which had provided vital military support to the Russian army at the Battle of Plevna, aimed, under the leadership of Prime Minister Ion Brătianu and invoking the principles of wartime alliance, to secure recognition of its full independence and to preserve its existing territorial integrity. However, Romania experienced the Congress's greatest diplomatic disappointment and betrayal: its allied Russia insisted on regaining the rich and strategic Southern Bessarabia, which it had lost in 1856, from Romania. Despite the Romanian delegation's vehement objections, the Great Powers accepted Russia's demand; in return for the recognition of its independence, Romania was granted Northern Dobruja and the Danube Delta, which had been taken from the Ottoman Empire, as a "consolation prize". Unable to forget the seizure of its territories, Romania completely lost its trust in Russia following this treaty and moved closer to the German-Austrian block.

j) Kingdom of Greece

The Kingdom of Greece, which did not officially participate in the War of 1893 but took advantage of the Ottoman Empire's precarious situation to instigate uprisings in Thessaly and Epirus, acted in accordance with the Megali Idea (Great Idea) doctrine under the leadership of Foreign Minister Theodoros Deligiannis. The aim of Greek policy was to use the diplomatic patronage of Britain and France, despite not having entered the war, to wrest Thessaly, Epirus and Crete from the Ottoman Empire. Although Greece did not have an official voting right at the Congress, it was heard in the committees and, under pressure from Britain and France, succeeded in having Article 24 added to the treaty, which provided for "*negotiations between the Ottoman Empire and Greece regarding border adjustments*". This diplomatic success bore fruit in 1881, and the Ottoman Empire was forced to cede the highly fertile region of Thessaly and the town of Narda to Greece without a fight.

k) Albanian Delegation

As Albania was not an independent state at that time, its political line was pursued by the League of Prizren (1878), which had been formed directly in response to the decisions of the Congress of Berlin. The aim of the Albanian representatives, led by Abdyl Frashëri, was to prevent the territories with a dense Albanian population (the vilayets of Shkodër, Kosovo, Monastir and Ioannina) among Montenegro, Serbia and Greece, and to unite these four vilayets under the Ottoman umbrella as a single autonomous 'Albanian Vilayet'. The delegation's demands, conveyed in memoranda sent to Berlin, were rejected by Chancellor Bismarck on the grounds that "*there is no such thing as an Albanian nation, it is merely a geographical term*", and some Albanian territories were ceded to Montenegro and Serbia. However, this diplomatic isolation served as the main spark that ignited armed resistance and the modern independence movement within the Albanian people.

l) Armenian Delegation

As Armenia did not exist as an independent political entity, the task of representation was carried out by a religious and civil Armenian delegation headed by the former Armenian Patriarch of Istanbul, Mkrdich Hrimyan (Hrimyan Hayrik). The delegation's political objective at the congress was to go beyond the unilateral protectorate granted to Russia under Article 16 of the Treaty of Ayastefanos, and to secure the appointment of a Christian governor for the Armenian population in Eastern Anatolia (Vilâyat-ı Sitte), local autonomy, tax reforms and international security guarantees against Kurdish and Circassian attacks. Following British intervention, Russian protectorate status was abolished and Article 61, which transferred oversight of the reforms to the six great powers, was adopted; however, the demands for autonomy were rejected. The famous "Iron Ladle" metaphor presented by Hrimyan Hayrik upon his return from the congress, illustrating that the great powers were carving up the spoils at the table with swords and force, whilst they themselves were trying to get a share of the soup with a paper petition, undermined the Armenian community's faith in diplomacy and set in motion a process of local organisation and radicalisation.

9) Committee Matrix and Committee Maps for the Committee

a) Matrix

UNITED KINGDOM

- Benjamin Disraeli
- Marquess of Salisbury

GERMAN EMPIRE

- Otto von Bismarck
- Bernhard Ernst von Bülow

RUSSIAN EMPIRE

- Alexander Gorchakov
- Pyotr Shuvalov

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

- Gyula Andrassy
- Baron Heinrich Karl von Haymerle

FRANCE

- William Henry Waddington
- Comte de Saint-Vallier

KINGDOM OF ITALY

- Luigi Corti
- Count Edoardo de Launay

OTTOMAN EMPIRE

- Sadullah Pasha
- Mehmed Ali Pasha

PRINCIPALITY OF SERBIA

- Jovan Ristić

PRINCIPALITY OF MONTENEGRO

- Božo Petrović

ROMANIA

- Ion C. Brătianu

KINGDOM OF GREECE

- Theodoros Deligiannis

ALBANIAN DELEGATION

- Abdyl Frashëri

ARMENIAN DELEGATION

- Catholicos Mkrtich Khrimian

b) Map for the Committee



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