



A Background Guide for the

SERBO-RUSSIAN WAR CABINET, 1914

July Crisis, 1914

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LETTER FROM THE EXECUTIVE BOARD

Dear delegates,

It is indeed a privilege to welcome you to the Serbo-Russian War Council, 1914 at ShishukunjMUN 2017. We feel extremely honoured to serve as the Executive Board of the SRWC and hope to see remarkable debate and creative ideas take centre-stage in this committee.

Human history is equal parts heroism, tragedy and misunderstanding. Very rarely have we displayed all three to such a degree as in the First World War. This war is called the 'seminal catastrophe' of the 20th century, because without it there is no World War 2. Without it, we don't have a Cold War that leads us to the very brink of nuclear annihilation. Nor we do see the stream of crises in the Middle East, caused by old men, bitter from events that happened years ago. World War 1, or the Great War, forced us to give up our last ties to our medieval understanding. World War 1 is the defining event of the 20th century.

But you, as members of this committee, haven't been called here to discuss about the World War itself. In this committee, we are focused on the events that led to this war. Delegates, the future of Europe and the world at large are in your hands as we discuss politics, war, diplomacy, and economics - all as individuals, citizens of Serbia, Russia and Montenegro, and finally, as Europeans to either compromise and prevent the headlong charge into humanity's greatest war, or to go along with history's natural course and enter World War 1.

Through our crises and debates, it is our goal that this committee will transform your view on the complex history of Europe, and better prepare you to form opinions on the intricacies of diplomacy and geopolitical tensions in other regions. We, as well as the Executive Board of the Austro-Hungarian Empire Emergency Meet (with whom we'll be running in sync), are preparing to ensure that you have an incredibly rewarding experience, filled with challenges, surprises, and intellectual stimulation. Above all, we aim to give you the opportunity to think outside of the box and alter the history of Europe at this critical juncture.

Also, keep in mind that this background guide has been drawn to give you an insight into the agenda, and that it is very important for each delegate to learn more through independent research using the resources and topics provided in the 'Further Research' sections. It is also advised that you go through the AHEEM background guide, as both committees are part of a common JCC, and both guides will give you an extensive understanding of the agenda.

Sincerely,
Executive Board
Serbo-Russian War Council, 1914
ShishukunjMUN 2017
srwc@shishukunjmun.com

Committee Background

The Serbo-Russian War Council shall be held in Belgrade, Serbia, and will start as an emergency summit of highly ranked ministers and war officials of Serbia and Russia, with the presence of the Prime Minister of Montenegro. Official proceedings of the War Council will begin at 3:30 p.m. on 28 June, 1914.

1. Mandate -

The Serbo-Russian War Council is the senior-most legislative and executive body of Serbia and Russia acting in times of crises, second only to the regency of the Serbia and Emperor of Russia in terms of powers.

The committee has been organized by Regent Alexander Karađorđević with representatives for the Russian government sent by Emperor Nicholas II, after the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand, to look into the matter and prepare for war and all other consequences if need be.

As members include ministers and heads of various departments of the two national governments, members will have individual portfolio powers, while also yielding some ad-hoc powers.

While the committee has been given the name of a 'War Council', acting as a legislative body concerning all the departments of a government shall give it full rights and powers to legislate on any matter – pertaining to war, or not.

Any directive passed by the committee shall be held in the highest regard and shall be treated as an executive order by the governments of Russia, Serbia and Montenegro.

The first order of business of the committee will be to **investigate within the Serbian and Russian governments and find if any official was involved in the assassination** of Archduke Franz Ferdinand. If any perpetrators are found, **what should their punishment be?** Other issues the committee will have to tackle are the **international response of Serbia, Russia and Montenegro to the assassination and reforming internal political structures** in the respective countries to accommodate the growing discontentment of the citizens.

2. Characters Biographies-

2.1 DRAGUTIN DIMITRIJEVIĆ

Dragutin Dimitrijević was a founding member and leader of the Serbian Black Hand secret society, and organised the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand which took place in Sarajevo on 28 June 1914. At this time, Dimitrijević was Chief of Serbian Military Intelligence. Apart from being a prime conspirator in Archduke Franz Ferdinand's assassination, he personally organized and participated in the coup against King Alexander and his wife Queen Draga that resulted in their murders, though he was not present when they were killed.

During the Balkan Wars that took place in 1912 and 1913, Dimitrijević's military planning helped the Serbian Army achieve several important victories.

2.2 JANKO VUKOTIC

Janko Vukotic was a general in the armies of the Principality and Kingdom of Montenegro in the Balkan Wars and World War I.

He served as Montenegro's Defence Minister in the periods of 1905-1907, 1911-1912 and 1913-1915, and as the Prime Minister of Montenegro from 1913 to 1915. During the First World War,

Vukotic was the Chief of Staff of the Montenegrin Army and the Commander of the Sandžak Army of Montenegrin forces. He is most famous for winning the Battle of Mojkovac.

2.3 NICHOLAS HARTWIG

Nicholas Hartwig was a Russian ambassador to Serbia. An ardent Pan-Slavist, he was said to be "more Serbian than the Serbs" and in the period prior to World War I was thought by many to practically control the policy of the Serbian government.

Hartwig was a key figure in the formation of the system of alliances formed in 1912, also known as the Balkan League. He was a violent opponent of Austria and thought of the alliance system as being primarily oriented against Austria.

After the assassination of Franz Ferdinand, Hartwig encouraged a militant Serbian line against Austria. It is unclear what, if any, role Hartwig might have played in the Black Hand. While visiting the Austrian minister to Belgrade, Hartwig collapsed of a massive heart attack on July 10, 1914.

2.4 NIKOLA PASIC

Nikola Pašić was a Serbian and Yugoslav politician and diplomat who was the leader of the People's Radical Party and, among other posts, was several times Prime Minister of the Kingdom of Serbia. He was an important politician in the Balkans, who managed to strengthen their small, still emerging national states against strong foreign influences, most notably those of Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman Empire and the Russian Empire.

He was one of the major players in the formation of the Balkan League which later resulted in the First and the Second Balkan Wars.

2.5 NIKOLAI YANUSHKEVICH

Nikolai Yanushkevich was a Russian General who served as Chief of Staff of the General Headquarters (Stavka) of the Imperial Russian Army from August 1914 to September 1915. He was appointed Chief of the General Staff in March 1914 and became Chief of Staff to the Supreme Commander in Chief at the outset of the war.

Several historians claim that Yanushkevich's appointment as the Chief of Staff owed as much to his political acceptability at court and to an attractive personality that endeared him to both the Tsar and Grand Duke.

NOTE: NIKOLAI YANUSHKEVICH IN THE COMMITTEE WILL ACT AS CHIEF OF STAFF OF GENERAL HEADQUARTERS OF THE RUSSIAN IMPERIAL ARMY DESPITE BEING ASSIGNED THE POSITION IN AUGUST.

2.6 PETAR BOJOVIC

Petar Bojovic was a Serbian military commander who fought in the Serbo-Turkish War, the Serbo-Bulgarian War, the First Balkan War, the Second Balkan War, World War I and World War II.

In the Balkan Wars, he was the Chief of Staff of the 1st Army, and brought victory in several battles. As a military expert in the Serbian Government delegation, he took part in peace negotiations with Turkey, held in London in 1913.

2.7 PYOTR BARK

Pyotr Bark was a Russian statesman. In 1911 Bark was appointed Assistant Minister of Commerce and Industry; in 1914 he was appointed Minister of Finance, replacing Vladimir Kokovtsov. Until the abdication of Nicholas II, he served in that position.

The Minister was in charge of almost all sectors of the economy and exercised a lot of power: finance, industry, and partly - railway construction.

2.8 SERGEI SAZONOV

Sergei Sazonov was Russia's Foreign Minister from November 1910 to July 1916.

Russian military weakness led Sazonov to prevent his country's direct participation in the Balkan Wars. This factor may also have informed his advice to Serbia during the July Crisis of 1914, when he recommended that she accept as many of Austria-Hungary's demands as possible as a means to avoid war.

2.9 STOJAN NOVAKOVIC

Stojan Novakovic was a Serbian historian, scholar, writer, literary critic, translator, politician and diplomat, holding the post of Prime Minister of the Kingdom of Serbia on two occasions. He was also one of the most successful and skilled Serbian diplomats, holding the post of envoy to Constantinople, Vienna and Saint Petersburg, one of the most important posts in that period.

Novakovic eventually entered into Serbian diplomacy in 1885. The diplomatic convention with Ottoman Turkey signed in 1886, due to Novakovic's skilful negotiations, made possible the opening of Serbian consulates in Skopje, and Thessaloniki. Novakovic stayed as Serbian envoy to Constantinople for almost seven years, until 1892.

2.10 VLADIMIR SUKHOMLINOV

Vladimir Sukhomlinov was a cavalry general of the Imperial Russian Army. In December 1908, he became head of General Staff and, in March 1909, Minister of War.

As Minister of War, Sukhomlinov was never trusted by the Army Committee of the Duma. Sukhomlinov was resented by Grand Duke Nicholas Nikolaevich of Russia, Commander-in-chief of the Russian forces in the first phase of World War I.

2.11 VOJISLAV TANKOSIC

Vojislav Tankosic was a Serbian military officer, major of the Serbian Army, and member of the Black Hand, who participated in events from the May Coup to the Assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria.

Together with the other members of the Black Hand, he pressured the Serbian government of Nikola Pašic before the Treaty of Bucharest. The government tried to retire Tankosic and Apis; however, the King disagreed. A conflict between the military and civilian authorities simmered during 1913 and escalated during 1914, with open threats made to certain ministers.

NOTE: All character biographies and portfolio powers will be provided as separate dossiers by June 25 on www.shishukunmun.com.

3. Joint Crisis Committee:

The Serbo-Russian War Cabinet and the Austro-Hungarian Empire Emergency Meet are subcommittees of a Joint Crisis Committee. Both have a common agenda, that of the July Crisis, and will run on the same timeline. The idea is for the committees to represent the two initial sides of the conflict. The JCC consists of two independently running subcommittees whose decisions and actions immediately affect the perpetual crisis at hand, hence also affecting the other committee.

Both committees will work in sync, however only the Executive Board will maintain the prerogative to share pertinent information with the other committee. That being said, delegates can communicate across committees through crisis notes, directives, or leaks. These forms of communication have been further explained in the 'Procedure' section.

Agenda: July Crisis, 1914

The July Crisis was a chain reaction of events that led to declarations of war by the major powers of Europe. It was essentially a European diplomatic crisis in July, 1914 that led to World War 1 and caused the death of millions across the continent.

1. Assassination:

Archduke Franz Ferdinand, next in line to the Austro-Hungarian throne, agreed to attend a series of June 1914 military exercises in Bosnia-Herzegovina. Austria-Hungary had just annexed these provinces a few years earlier against the wishes of neighbouring Serbia. Upon learning of Ferdinand's visit, Young Bosnia, a secret revolutionary society of students, conspired to assassinate him. In May, Gavrilo Princip, Trifko Grabež and Nedeljko Čabrinović traveled to Belgrade, where they received six handheld bombs, four semi-automatic pistols and cyanide capsules from members of the Black Hand, a terrorist group with close ties to the Serbian army and government. After practicing with their pistols in Belgrade, the three men went back to Bosnia-Herzegovina. To this day, it remains unclear whether the Serbian government colluded in this scheme.

On June 28, 1914, Franz Ferdinand and Sophie were touring Sarajevo in an open car, with surprisingly little security, when Serbian nationalist Nedeljko Čabrinović threw a bomb at their car; it rolled off the back of the vehicle and wounded an officer and some bystanders but left Ferdinand and Sophie unharmed. Čabrinović jumped into the mostly dry riverbed and made a half-hearted attempt to kill himself before being apprehended. Later that day, on the way to visit to the injured officer, the Archduke's procession took a wrong turn, where one of Čabrinović's cohorts, 19-year-old Gavrilo Princip, happened to be loitering. Seeing his opportunity, Princip fired into the car, killing Franz Ferdinand and Sophie at point-blank range. Princip then turned the gun on himself, but was prevented from shooting it by a bystander who threw himself upon the young assassin.

And so, with the assassination, the first domino fell, causing the mad and improbable events to happen in July, after the 28th day of June, 1914.

2. July Crisis:

Listed below, in chronological order are the events that follow, termed as the July Crisis:

NOTE: Provided here are the essential events that occurred during the July Crisis. However, it is advised that delegates research deeper with the help of the 'Further Research' section to get a better understanding of the crisis and all the parties, ideas, and incidents involved.

28 June: Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife, Sophie, are assassinated in Sarajevo by Serbian nationalists, who believe in the idea of pan-Slavism.

5-6 July: Austro-Hungarian envoy Hoyos travels to Berlin to establish German support for Austrian action against Serbia. Kaiser Wilhelm II, King of Germany and

Chancellor Theobald von Bethmann Hollweg encourage Austrian action and Germany issue a 'blank cheque', promising unconditional support to their ally.

23 July: Austria issues an ultimatum to Serbia, with ten unacceptable humiliating demands, two of which infringed Serbian sovereignty by demanding Austro-Hungarian officials operate and carry out investigations in Serbia, and gave 48 hours to reply. Russia resolves to defend Serbia and immediately after the delivery of the ultimatum to Serbia, on the following day, starts military preparations as well as diplomatic efforts to solve the crisis.

25 July: Serbia replies to the ultimatum, surprisingly accepting most of the demands. Still unsatisfied, Austria breaks off diplomatic relations with Serbia and begins to mobilize against it.

26 July: Britain proposes mediation conference. The idea of a conference is accepted by Russia but turned down by Austria-Hungary and Germany.

27 July: In response to the British request, Germany forwards another British mediation proposal to Vienna after telling Vienna it could be ignored and was only being forwarded to please the British in the hope that they would stay neutral.

28 July: Austria-Hungary declares war on Serbia, exactly a month after Ferdinand's death. The Kaiser himself, having only just seen the Serbian reply, now believes there was no cause for war, proposes that Austria-Hungary should accept it but occupy Belgrade until its demands were met, any remaining differences being settled by negotiations.

30 July: Tsar Nicholas II authorizes Russian general mobilization which

threatened Germany as well as Austria-Hungary. During this time on several occasions the French ambassador in St Petersburg assures the Russian government of France's full support.

By the following week, Germany, Russia, France, Belgium, Montenegro and Great Britain had all been drawn into the conflict, and other countries like the United States would enter later. Overall, more than 9 million soldiers and nearly that many civilians would die in fighting that lasted until 1918.

1.1 History

1. Russian History

NOTE: The background guide will not include the traditional history of Russia, but will instead begin Russian history from the inception of the Russian Empire.

Since 1613, the Romanov dynasty ruled Russia. For the first few generations, the Romanovs did very little to bring Russia up to speed with the rapid that were taking place elsewhere in Europe. Peter the Great, one of the most important Romanov leaders, decided to change all of that.

After suppressing numerous rebellions, Peter brought about several Western changes in the Russian administration. He died in 1725, after establishing the Russian Empire in 1721.

Peter was succeeded by Catherine the Great. She continued Peter's reforms of the Russian state. S was succeeded by her son Paul I. Paul was succeeded by his son Alexander I in 1801.

In June of 1812, Napoleon began his fatal Russian campaign. Having gathered nearly half a million soldiers, Napoleon entered Russia at the head of the largest

army ever seen. By September, however, the French Army had been reduced to a fraction because of hunger, desertion, and raids.

Nonetheless, it was clear that unless the Russians engaged the French Army in a major battle, Napoleon would take over Moscow. The two armies finally met at Borodino Field. By the end of the day, 108,000 men had died. After waiting in vain for Alexander to offer to negotiate, Napoleon ordered his troops to return home. The campaign ensured Russia's status as a major power. Yet even as Russia emerged stronger than ever, its internal tensions began to rise.

Russia's first revolution followed immediately after the death of Alexander I in 1825. Alexander was replaced by his younger brother, Nicholas I, who was confronted with an uprising. A group of officers made a bid to impose their constitutional demands upon the new Tsar. This became the Decembrist revolt. The revolt was easily crushed, but turned Nicholas away from any modernization. Nicholas' successor, Alexander II, however, was open to reform. As the country became more industrialized, its political system experienced even greater strain. Attempts by the lower classes to gain more freedom provoked fears of anarchy, and the government remained extremely conservative. As Russia became more industrialized, larger, and more complicated, the inadequacies of the Tsarist rule became increasingly obvious. By the twentieth century conditions were ripe for a change. Alexander II took the throne in 1855.

In the late 1870s Russia and the Ottoman Empire clashed in the Balkans. From 1875 to 1877, the Balkan crisis intensified with rebellions against Ottoman rule. This was seen as a risk in Russia, which similarly suppressed its Muslims in Central Asia. Russian nationalist opinion

became a major factor in its support for liberating Balkan Christians from Ottoman rule and making Bulgaria and Serbia independent.

In early 1877, Russia intervened on behalf of Serbia. Within one year, Russian troops neared Istanbul and the Ottomans gave up. Russian diplomats and generals persuaded Alexander II to force the Ottomans to sign the Treaty of San Stefano in March 1878, creating an enlarged and independent Bulgaria. When Britain threatened to declare war over the Treaty of San Stefano, a tired Russia backed down. At the Congress of Berlin, Russia agreed to the creation of a smaller Bulgaria, as an autonomous principality inside the Ottoman Empire. As a result, pan-Slavists were left with a legacy of bitterness against Austria-Hungary and Germany for not backing Russia. However, Russia did help Serbia and Montenegro gain freedom from the Turks.

In 1881 Alexander II was assassinated by a socialist organisation that wanted to bring freedom to the peasants. The throne passed to Alexander III, who believed Russia could be saved only through a purge of Western influences. During his reign Russia declared the Franco-Russian Alliance to contain the growing power of Germany.

In 1894 Nicholas II acceded to the throne. He was not the most competent of political leaders, and his ministers were reactionaries. To make matters worse, the increasing Russian presence in the far East provoked the hostility of Japan. In January of 1905, the Japanese attacked, and Russia experienced a series of defeats that dissolved the tenuous support held by Nicholas' already unpopular government. Nicholas was forced to grant concessions to the reformers, including a constitution and a parliament, or Duma.

You can read more about the Russo-Japanese war under the Recent Events section.

2. Serbian History

2.1 TILL 1889

The Serbs came to the Balkans, along with other South Slavic tribes, during the 6th and 7th century. The first chief Stefan I Nemanja, threw off Byzantine command and laid the groundwork for medieval Serbia. His successor, Stefan II Nemanja, was crowned King and he transformed Serbia into a stable state.

Serbia then dominated the Balkans under Stefan Dusan. Dusan wanted a weakened Byzantine Empire, but the Byzantine emperor suspected his intentions and summoned the Turks to restrain him. Dusan repelled several assaults but was finally defeated in 1352. A large force was raised to engage the Turks in the Battle of Kosovo in 1389. The Serbs were defeated, but they endowed the battle with myths of honour and bravery that helped them defend their dignity and sovereignty.

Civil war in the Turkish Empire saved Serbia in the early 15th century, but the Turks soon reassembled their people to overcome the last Serbian garrison in 1459. Serbs fled to Hungary, Montenegro, and Bosnia, while some formed outlaw bands. By the 16th century, southern Hungary had a large Serbian population that remained after the Turks occupied the region. Montenegro, which had declared itself a sovereign principality after the demise of Dusan, waged persistent guerrilla war on the Turks, and was never conquered.

Social and economic life in Serbia changed under the supreme rule of the Turkish sultan. The Turks divided Serbia among several provinces, forced Serbian boys into their elite forces, killed Serbian

nobles, and deprived the Serbs of contact with the West. The Turks used the Orthodox Church to intermediate between the state and the civilians, but most church lands were confiscated. Poorly trained Serbian priests tried to maintain the crumbling national identity.

Soon, Christian forces started pushing the Turks from the Balkans, inciting the Serbs to rebel against their Turkish overlords. The rebellion eventually failed, exposing the Serbs south of the Sava River to the vengeance of the Turks. Fearing Turkish reprisals, the Serbian patriarch, Arsenije Carnojevic, immigrated to Austrian-ruled southern Hungary. The Austro-Hungarian emperor promised the Serbs religious autonomy as well as the right to elect their own military governor, and incorporated much of the region where they settled, later known as Vojvodina, into the military border.

Austrian forces took Serbian regions south of the Sava from Turkey in 1718, but the Serbs came to hate the Austrians as well as the Turks. In the 18th century, the Turkish economy and social framework began weakening, and the Serbs who remained under the Ottoman Empire were attacked from bands of soldiers. Corrupt Greek priests, who had replaced Serbian clergy at the sultan's direction, also exploited of the Serbs. The Serbs in southern Hungary fared much better.

The 18th century brought Russian involvement in European events, particularly in opposition with Austria for the spoils of the Turkish disintegration. The Orthodox Serbs looked to the tsar for support, and Russia forged ties with Montenegro and the Serbian Church in southern Hungary. In 1774, Russia won the right to protect Christian subjects of the Turks.

When Russia and Austria fought another war with Turkey in 1787, Serbs participated in guerrilla battles against the Turks. Austria deserted the campaign, and the Serbs, in 1791. To secure their frontier, the Turks granted their Serbian subjects a measure of sovereignty and formed a Serbian militia. In 1804, turncoat Turkish soldiers in Belgrade murdered Serbian leaders, causing an uprising. Russia supported the Serbs, and in 1806, the sultan granted them partial autonomy. However, the French attack of Russia in 1812 prevented the tsar from protecting the Serbs.

In 1830, Turkey recognized Serbia as a principality under Turkish control, with Milos Obrenovic as prince. The sultan granted the Serbian Church autonomy and reaffirmed the Russian right to protect Serbia. But poor administration and corruption marred the political life of Serbia from the beginning.

After the sultan started allowing foreign governments to send ambassadors to Serbia in the 1830s, foreign intervention further complicated the circumstances. Despite these problems and his autocratic style, Milos Obrenovic encouraged trade, opened schools and guided development of peasant lands. He stepped down in 1838 when Turkey imposed a constitution to limit his powers.

The European uprising of 1848 degraded relations between the Serbs and their neighbours. As part of their revolutionary program, the Hungarians threatened to 'magyarize' (coercive adoption of Hungarian culture and language) the Serbs in Vojvodina. Some Serbs declared their freedom from Hungary and declared an autonomous Vojvodina; others rallied behind the Austrian-Croatian invasion of Hungary. The Serbs nearly called for war, but Russians and Turkish diplomacy restrained them. The Serbs in Hungary obtained nothing from assisting Austria to

crush the revolution. Vienna ruled Vojvodina unsympathetically after 1850 and silenced Serbian irredentists there.

When Austria joined Hungary to create the Dual Monarchy in 1867, Vienna returned Vojvodina and its Serbs to Hungary. Prince Mihajlo Obrenovic, son of Milos, was an effective ruler who further loosened the Turkish grip on Serbia. Western-educated, Mihajlo liberalized the constitution and, in 1867, secured the departure of Turkish garrisons from Serbian cities. Scandal damaged Mihajlo's popularity, however, and he was ultimately killed. Political parties emerged in Serbia after 1868, and features of Western culture appeared. A widespread revolt in the Ottoman Empire prompted a failed attack by Serbia and Montenegro in 1876, and a year later those countries allied with Russian, Romanian and Bulgarian rebels to overcome the Turks. The subsequent treaties of San Stefano and Berlin made Serbia an independent state, while Montenegro gained a seacoast.

Worried by Russian gains, the growing stature of Serbia, and irredentism among Vojvodina's Serbs, Austria-Hungary pressed for and won the right to occupy Bosnia, Herzegovina and the Novi Pazar in 1878. Serbia's Prince Milan Obrenovic (1868-89), a cousin of Mihajlo, became disillusioned with Russia and afraid of the newly created Bulgaria. He, therefore, signed a commercial treaty in 1880 that made Serbia a client state of Austria-Hungary. Milan became the first king of modern Serbia in 1882, but his pro-Austro-Hungarian policies eroded his popularity, and he renounced the throne in 1889.

2.2 AFTER 1889

Upon abdication, former King Milan put up a Regency to rule in the name of young King Alexander. In the summer of 1891,

Prince Alexander visited Russian Tzar Alexander III Romanov. Romanov promised that Russia would not allow Austro-Hungarian annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina and that Russia would support Serbian interests in "Old Serbia".

At the beginning of his reign, King Alexander was prescribing a program of Government in matters of the military, the economical and the financial life of the state. He disapproved an unprincipled party competition and invited his father back to Serbia. The influence of ex-King Milan in state affairs could be seen immediately after his return to Serbia.

King Alexander tried to keep a policy of neutral governments but he did not have much success. Therefore, on 9 May 1894 he conducted another coup, abolished the Constitution from 1888 and put into force the old one from 1869. Milan's return to Serbia did not last long because he quickly got into a conflict with his son.

On his father's command, King Alexander paid a visit to Vienna where, as a sign of Austro-Serbian friendship, he awarded the Austrian Minister of Finance, who was also the Minister for Bosnia-Herzegovina. This was not well received in Serbia because of the Austro-Hungarian tendency to annex Bosnia-Herzegovina.

In the summer of 1900, King Alexander suddenly announced his engagement to the widowed Madame Draga Mašin, formerly a lady-in-waiting to his mother and 12 years older than him. The proposed union aroused great opposition: at 36 years of age, the chances of her bearing an heir were dim. Alexander was an only child, and it was imperative to secure the succession.

The independence of the senate and of the council of state caused increasing irritation to King Alexander. In March

1903 the King suspended the constitution for half an hour, time enough to publish the decrees dismissing and replacing the old senators and councillors of state. This arbitrary act increased dissatisfaction in the country.

Because of this increasing disagreement between the King and the civilians, and apparently to prevent Queen Draga's brother being named heir-presumptive, but in reality to replace Alexander Obrenovic with Peter Karadordevic, a conspiracy was organized by a group of Army officers headed by Captain Dragutin Dimitrijevic. The royal couple's palace was invaded. The conspirators searched the palace and eventually discovered the royal couple and murdered them in the early morning of May 29, 1903.

International outrage over the coup came swiftly. Russia and Austria-Hungary vehemently condemned the brutal assassination. The United Kingdom and the Netherlands withdrew their ambassadors from Serbia, thus freezing diplomatic relations, and imposed sanctions, which were not abolished until 1905. As of January 1904 only the ambassadors of Greece and the Ottoman Empire stayed in Serbia.

Petar Karadordevic, who knew of the conspiracy, returned from exile to take the throne, restored and liberalized the constitution, put Serbian finances in order, and improved trade and education. Petar turned Serbia away from Austria-Hungary and toward Russia.

In 1908, Austria-Hungary annexed Bosnia-Herzegovina, disrupting Serbian designs on those regions and precipitating an international crisis. The Serbs mobilized, but under German pressure Russia persuaded Belgrade to cease its protests. Thereafter, Belgrade maintained strict official propriety in its relations with

Vienna; but government and military factions prepared for a war to liberate the Serbs still living under the Turkish yoke in Kosovo, Macedonia and other regions.

This was followed by the First and Second Balkan Wars that were bloody and brutal, and created a new political situation in Europe which led to the First World War. You can read more about the Bosnian annexation and the Balkan Wars under the Recent Events head.

1.2 Recent Events

1. Serbian Massacre

The Vilayet of Kosovo was an administrative division of the Ottoman Empire in the Balkan Peninsula which included the current territory of Kosovo and some parts of Macedonia. The areas although under Ottoman control were in fact under Austro-Hungarian occupation from 1878 until 1909, as provided by Treaty of Berlin.

In 1901, there were numerous massacres of Serbs in the Kosovo Vilayet, carried out by Albanians. Serbs were abused and called traitors. Serbs from various regions fled to Serbia. The situation became serious, with the Serbs smuggling weapons from Serbia to protect themselves. The killings caused Russian intervention. Russia demanded that the Albanians be punished and the Serbs be allowed to keep the arms. Austria-Hungary, who favoured the Albanians, downplayed the slaughter.

2. Russo-Japanese War:

The Russo-Japanese War was fought between the Russian Empire and the Empire of Japan for dominance in Korea and Manchuria. Tsarist Russia, as a major imperial power, had ambitions in the East.

By the 1890s it had extended its realm across Central Asia, absorbing several local states. Russia hoped to further consolidate its influence in the region.

The Japanese government thought Russia a threat to its interests and chose to go to war. The details of the conflict and its various military encounters are not relevant to the central issue at hand. The outcome of the war, however, is very important as it rocked Europe to its core. Russia suffered multiple defeats by Japan and was humiliated, which not only made it lose self-esteem in the eyes of the great powers of Europe, but also caused increasing political unrest throughout the nation.

The defeats of the Russian Army and Navy shook up Russian confidence. Throughout 1905, the Russia was entrenched in revolution. The population was against escalation of the war. This forced Russia to negotiate peace, and the war was concluded with the signing of the Treaty of Portsmouth.

Though there had been popular support for the war among the Russian public initially, it soon turned to discontent after suffering shock defeats at the hands of the Japanese forces. For many Russians, the immediate jolt humiliation at the hands of Japan caused the conflict to be viewed as a metaphor for the inadequacy of the autocracy. Anger in Russia after the war added more fuel to the already simmering Russian Revolution of 1905.

Russia also lost international esteem. This was particularly true in the eyes of Germany and Austria-Hungary. Russia was France's and Serbia's ally, and this loss of prestige had a large effect on Germany's and Austria-Hungary's plans for war with France and Serbia.

3. Pig War:

The Pig War was a tariff conflict from 1906 to 1909 between Serbia and Austria-Hungary so named because during it the export of live Serbian pigs to Austria-Hungary was prohibited. In 1903 the Austro-Serb commercial treaty was running out. Renewal negotiations foundered, for Serbia wanted to reduce its economic dependence on Austria, which took and supplied a majority of its exports and imports. In January 1904 Serbia placed a munitions order with a French firm rather than the usual Austrian one, and a Serbo-Bulgarian customs union ruined the trade negotiations between Austria-Hungary and Serbia. On March 1, 1906, the "Pig War" started with the closing of the frontier to trade. As a result, Serbia found fresh markets, foreign trade increased by 10 million dinars, credits for slaughterhouses and canning plants were obtained from France, and imports were arranged from Germany. Serbian hostility to Austria-Hungary had increased, and a need for a trade outlet to the Adriatic Sea developed, sharpening Serbia's nationalist ambitions with regard to Bosnia. Russia supported Serbia's actions, and war between Austria-Hungary and Russia was averted only because of a German ultimatum in 1909 demanding a halt of Russian aid to Serbia.

4. Bosnian Annexation:

The history of the Bosnian annexation history stretches back to the violent rebellions against the Ottoman Empire during the mid-1870s. The Russian Tsar at the time wished to intervene against the Turks and hence sought and obtained an agreement with Austria-Hungary. The agreement formed the Budapest Conventions of 1877, which stated that in the event of a Russian attack on Turkey, Austria would remain neutral, but could

occupy Bosnia-Herzegovina at a time of its choice.

Russia declared war on the Ottoman Empire and drove the Turkish forces back soon imposing the Treaty of San Stefano on the Turks, which stated the region of Bosnia-Herzegovina would be jointly occupied by Russian and Austrian troops. This was a deviation from the Budapest Conventions. However, the Russian government stated that the Treaty of San Stefano was only a rough draft. The Congress of Berlin officially overturned the Treaty of San Stefano through the Treaty of Berlin, which declared the independence of Romania, Serbia, Montenegro and Bulgaria from Ottoman rule. One of the most important articles of the Treaty, Article 25, stated: "The provinces of Bosnia-Herzegovina shall be occupied and administered by Austria-Hungary." As tensions between Serbia and Austria-Hungary gradually escalated after the coup of 1903, Austria-Hungary planned to formally annex Bosnia-Herzegovina to suppress the idea of pan-Slavism in 1908.

The Bosnian annexation was surrounded by dubious politics between Russia and Austria-Hungary because of scandal and corruption in the Russian Foreign Ministry. The Russian Foreign Minister at the time, Alexander Izvolsky, is in particular criticised, and is generally considered responsible for elevating the crisis, although the details regarding crisis and Izvolsky's involvement are still murky.

Based upon controversial Russian assurances, and also in order to take advantage of an internal crisis Turkey was facing, Austro-Hungarian Emperor Franz Joseph signed a proclamation announcing the annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina on 6 October, 1908.

As soon as the annexation was announced, a diplomatic crisis erupted. The annexation was viewed as a violation of the Treaty of Berlin. France, Britain, Russia and Italy therefore were in favour of a conference to consider the matter. On October 7 Serbia demanded complete restoration of the Treaty of Berlin or compensation. Milovanovitch, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Serbia, was urged by the powers to avoid hostilities and await an international conference. He replied that Serbia wished recognition of Serbian integrity, and that Austro-Hungary through annexing Bosnia-Herzegovina was threatening Serbian sovereignty.

To resolve the issue, a plan for an international congress was drawn up. But fearful of being voted out on the issue, Austria-Hungary called the idea unacceptable. The Berlin Government, supporting Austria-Hungary, insisted that annexation be excluded from discussion, and that no compensation be given to Serbia without Austria's consent. Thus the idea of a conference was abandoned.

Russia was a staunch supporter of Serbia in this matter, but the Russian government had realized that it would be unable to support its Balkan allies if a war were to arise, because of its recent defeat to Japan in 1905. Exploiting this fact, the Berlin government informed Russia that in case of war, Germany would support Austria. Russia at once submitted and accepted the annexation.

In March 1909, Austria mobilized three army corps, and demanded renunciation of the Serbian claims. Following in the steps of Russia, Serbia yielded, accepting the annexation. While the crisis for a short term was resolved, the results of the annexation were heavy on Austria. Trade losses to Turkey, alienation of most of the great powers from Austrian policy, and a heavy debt to Germany.

5. Balkan Wars:

The Balkan wars consisted of two conflicts that took place in the Balkan peninsula in 1912 and 1913. These successive wars deprived the Ottoman Empire of almost all of its remaining territory in Europe. By early 1900s- Bulgaria, Serbia, Montenegro and Greece had achieved independence from the Ottoman Empire, but still a large chunk of their populations were under Ottoman influence and rule. The Balkan League was formed between these countries in 1912.

Since a long time, people in the Balkan Peninsula wanted to unite all the Slavic people and create a single identity for the Balkans. However the idea was thwarted several times by Germany, the Ottoman Empire and Austria-Hungary. After the Bosnian Crisis of 1908, the Balkan governments could not move forward with the idea of uniting Slavic people in Bosnia-Herzegovina. So they looked towards Turkey, which was already weakened after the Italo-Turkish wars. With superior forces both in terms of quality and quantity, the Balkan League struck while the iron was hot.

The First Balkan War took place from October 12 to May 1913, and ended with a victorious Balkan League capturing almost all remaining territories of the Ottoman Empire in Europe. This land was divided and taken into possession by the members of the Balkan League. The independent nation of Albania was created as well. However there was much in-fighting between Serbians and the Albanians after the war.

The war was concluded with the signing of the Treaty of London. However, Bulgaria had unresolved issues with Serbia and Greece over the division of

Macedonia. Bulgaria thought itself capable enough to deal with the problems by force and started heavy military mobilization. Through intricate political manoeuvring, Greece and Serbia settled their differences and signed a military alliance against Bulgaria on May 1, 1913. This set the stage for the Second Balkan War.

Bulgaria attacked its former allies on 16 June, 1913, causing the Second Balkan War. Initially, the war was limited to Serbia, Greece and Bulgaria. But as battles spilled out, Romania and the Ottoman Empire intervened against Bulgaria. Serbia and Greece also had the support of the Russian Empire.

The Second Balkan War ended with the signing of different treaties and humiliating losses to Bulgaria. The war left Serbia as the most militarily powerful state south of the Danube.

1.3 Society, Economy and Politics

1. Russia:

1.1 SOCIETY

Russian society at the end of the late 19th century was strongly hierarchical. Tsarist political structures, religious and social values, rules governing land ownership and Russia's legal code all reinforced the nation's social hierarchy, defining position and status and restricting social mobility.

The poor peasantry and the industrial working-class made up more than four-fifths of the population; while Russia's educated and professional middle classes were tiny when compared to societies in Britain or France.

Russia's middle-classes worked both for the state or the private sector, either as

small business owners or trained professionals. Industrial growth in the 1890s helped to expand the middle-classes by increasing the ranks of factory owners, businessmen and entrepreneurs. The middle-classes tended to be educated, worldly and receptive to liberal, democratic and reformist ideas. Members of the middle-class were prominent in the Duma.

The largest social class in Russia was the peasantry. Most Russian peasants worked small plots of land using antiquated farming methods. Before 1861 most peasants had been serfs, with no legal status or rights as free men. Few peasants had any understanding about government, politics or economics. Many were intensely religious and superstitious to the point of medievalism; they believed in magic, witchcraft and devilry and carried symbols and icons to ward off bad luck. A sizeable proportion of the peasantry was loyal to the tsar; a similar number knew little of him and cared even less. They disliked the establishment for its stringent impositions and feared the army. But for all their political apathy, the peasantry was occasionally roused to action – particularly by changes that affected them directly, such as food shortages or new taxes. There were significant peasant protests in 1894.

Peasant unrest and violence later erupted during the 1905 Revolution, though it was directed at land-owners more than the government. Though peasant uprisings were never widespread or coordinated, they were nevertheless a worrying sign for the tsarist regime.

Regardless of class or status, Russian society was deeply patriarchal. Men were dominant in the community, the workplace and the government. This was not just a product of social values, it was codified in law. The Russian legal code gave husbands almost unlimited power to

make decisions within the family. Wives were expected to concede to and obey their husbands. If a man died then his male children inherited most of his property; his wife and daughters received only a small share.

1.2 ECONOMY

The economy of the Russian Empire in the early twentieth century was a complicated hybrid of traditional peasant agriculture and modern industry.

Only about 15 percent of the population lived in towns, and fewer than 10 percent worked in industry. Agriculture, the largest sector of the economy, provided the livelihood for 80 percent of the population and was dominated by peasants, whose traditional household economies were extremely inefficient.

But small islands of modern industrial capitalism, brought into being by state policy, coexisted with the primitive rural economy. spurts of rapid industrialization in the 1890s and in the years before World War I created high rates of economic growth and increased national wealth but also set in motion destabilizing social changes. Despite its islands of modernity, the Russian Empire lagged far behind advanced capitalist countries like Great Britain and Germany.

Industrialization accelerated in the 1890s, pushed forward by extensive state intervention under the guidance of Finance Minister Sergei Witte. He used subsidies and direct investment to stimulate expansion of heavy industry, imposed high taxes and tariffs, and put Russia on the gold standard in order to win large-scale foreign investment. Although the process slowed from 1900 through the 1905 revolution, it soon picked up again and was very strong from 1910 to the outbreak of the war.

Starting in the later 1890s foreign investment became an important factor in

the economy. In 1914 it amounted to one-third of total capital investment in Russian industry. France, England, and Germany were the primary sources of foreign capital.

Russia was highly dependent on Western imports of manufactured goods, largely from Germany. Raw materials, such as cotton, wool, silk, and nonferrous metals, comprised about 50 percent of all imports. Exports were dominated by grains and other foodstuffs (55% of the total). Russia was the world's largest grain exporter, supplying Western Europe with about one-third of its wheat imports and about 50 percent of its other grains.

The tsarist economy collapsed under the strain of World War I, subdued by political as well as economic limitations from meeting the demands of total economic mobilization and undermined by bad fiscal policy. But part of the collapse must be traced to prewar roots. Chief among these was the traditional serfdom: an agricultural arrangement that was unproductive, deficient in funds and technology, heavily taxed, and therefore, unable to provide a sound standard of living for an accelerating population.

1.3 POLITICS

The Russo-Japanese War created a tense atmosphere of revolution among all classes. By early 1904, Russian liberals had formed an organization called the Union of Liberation. The revolution of 1905 was set in motion by the brutal suppression of a mass demonstration of workers with an appeal for the tsar on January 9 (Bloody Sunday) in St. Petersburg. Bloody Sunday was followed, nationwide, by workers' and students' strikes, street demonstrations, spates of vandalism and other periodic violence, assassinations of government officials, naval mutinies, nationalist movements in the imperial borderlands, and anti-Jewish

pogroms. Activists from the broad professional Union of Unions formed the Constitutional Democratic Party, or the Kadets.

In late 1905, Nicholas agreed under pressure, to issue the October Manifesto, which promised Russia a reformed political order and basic civil liberties for most citizens. New fundamental laws established the legislative State Duma, or parliament, but also restricted its authority in many ways.

This caused the formation of a new group, the Octobrists. However, the Kadets still held out for a legitimate ministerial government. Because of their political principles and continued violent uprisings, Russia's leftist parties were unsure about their participation in the Duma elections, which were to be held in early 1906.

On 21 July 1906, Nicholas installed Pyotr Stolypin as the new Prime Minister, while continuing on as the Internal Minister too. The First Duma was elected in March 1906. The Kadets and their allies dominated it. Relations between the Duma and the Stolypin government were hostile from the beginning. A deadlock of the Kadets and the government over the adoption of a constitution and peasant reform led to the dissolution of the Duma and the scheduling of new elections.

The Second Duma met in 1907, but this too was dominated by the Kadets. The Second Duma was dissolved in July 1907. New elections returned a more conservative Third Duma, dominated by the Octobrists. Even this Duma disagreed with the government over several issues.

In 1911 Stolypin was murdered while in a theatre and was replaced by Vladimir Kokovtsov. Kokovtsov was a very able and a supporter of the tsar, but could not compete with the influential court factions that dictated the government.

Historians have argued about Russia's potential to develop a constitutional government between 1905 and 1914. The tsar was not willing to give up autocratic rule and hence there was a lack of political progress.

2. Serbia:

2.1 SOCIETY

After conquering Serbia, The Ottomans remained in Serbia until the nineteenth century. During this time Serbian society was reshaped at its foundations. The pre-Ottoman political elites were uprooted and all secular institutions dismantled. The advance of Turkish troops, coupled with civil strife in the areas under their control, contributed to large migratory flows. Large numbers of Serbs resettled outside of the Ottoman Empire, while many Turks and Albanians moved in to replace them. The only pre-Ottoman institution of note that survived was the Serbian Orthodox Church, which overcame considerable regulation to maintain a prominent position in Ottoman society.

Once halted by the Habsburg Empire, the Turks soon turned their attention inward. Like all Christians, the Serbs were forced to pay heavy taxes and were treated as second-class citizens who could neither join the army nor organise politically. These hardships caused strife which allowed the Church to present the Nemanja age as a golden era.

The Orthodox Church remained an influential institution throughout most of the Ottoman period. Restrictions that existed on ecclesiastical activities were often circumvented. A ban on the construction of Christian houses of worship, for instance, was defied by building churches and monasteries in remote locations where Ottoman law enforcers rarely travelled. Thus, the

Church became the main protector of Serbian culture and identity.

Oppression at the hands of the Ottomans forced many Serbs to seek asylum in foreign lands. Serb enclaves began to appear in Hungary, Croatia and Romania, where traces of Serbian culture exist to this day.

Many of the Serbs who left Serbia resettled in the border provinces of the Habsburg Empire, agreeing to help to defend its border in exchange for religious freedom and community rights. These border guards, who became exposed to Habsburg culture and fought continuously with the Turks, would with time develop an identity of their own, with implications for Serbia's development as an independent state in the 19th century.

One of the biggest influences in the Serbian society was of the ideology of pan-Slavism, which created a lot of violent tendencies among Serbians, and aggressive organizations like Narodna Odbrana and the Black Hand began to develop. The pan-Slavic ideology has been explained more in the 'Trends' section.

2.2 ECONOMY

Serbia's economy in almost all periods was in one way or another dependent on another nation. After being incorporated into the Ottoman Empire, most Serbians were oppressed. Taxes and unemployment rates- both were high. This was as the 'Dark Night' of Serbia. After independence from the Turks, recovery was difficult for Serbia.

Between 1850 and 1876, there was a huge change in foreign trade as it nearly doubled, as there was growing demand for Serbian exports of livestock. Serbia's market of exported livestock was primarily to Austria-Hungary; however

the trade also occurred in the opposite way, as most of the Serbian goods were from Austria-Hungary. This left Serbia in a situation where they were dependent upon Austria-Hungary for economic trade. However, before the 1880s, Serbia had a very gradual, slow change to industrialization. Serbia created ironworks and also building roads and bridges. Communication efficiency and factories increased as trade regulated throughout Serbia helping Serbia's poor economy. Even though Serbia experienced gradual industrial change, agriculture was still prominent throughout Serbian society and culture. By 1900, 84% of all Serbians were involved in agricultural activity. Even at the beginning of World War I, Serbia remained a country full of peasants.

By 1904 and 1905, Serbia began to build trade links with France and Bulgaria. This incensed Austria-Hungary, which brought upon the Pig War. You can read more about the Pig War in the 'Recent Events' section.

2.3 POLITICS

Serbian politics was a mishmash of liberals, conservatives and progressives. From the 1880s, politics in Serbia was dominated by two parties: the People's Radical Party and the Serbian Progressive Party.

The Progressive Party was mainly headed by Stojan Novaković and was in power through the reign of King Milan Obrenović, and members were openly favoured by the King. The party was not inclined towards Russia, and advocated close relations with Austria-Hungary.

When the new Serbian king Aleksandar Obrenović succeeded his father, a Regency was set up. But King Aleksandar organized a coup in 1894 and took all power. Afterwards he occasionally used Progressivist politicians to fill in places in

subsequent governments. However, the party ceased to exist in organisational terms by 1898. The party was renewed in 1906, still under the leadership of Stojan Novaković.

The People's Radical Party was formed on 8 January 1881. It was mainly led by Nikola Pašić. The Radicals were instrumental in the adoption of the 1888 Serbian Constitution, which established parliamentary democracy, in almost full compliance with their political programme. The Radicals were ardent supporters of unification of all Serb-inhabited lands in the Balkans and adopted the slogan "Balkans to the Balkan nations". In foreign policy, strongly anti-Austrian, they were mostly Russophile and Francophile, supporting the French-Russian Alliance and Entente Powers.

The Radical governments led the Kingdom of Serbia through its Golden Age (1903-1914), as well as through the First World War.

1.4 Trends

The path to the July Crisis and the World War was marked by several trends. These trends would play a vital role in creating a tense geo-political situation among the powers of Europe and the Ottoman Empire.

1. Pan-Slavism:

Pan-Slavism was a movement in the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century which was governed by the political ideology concerned with the unity of all Slavic people.

The pan-Slavism ideology was particularly strong in countries like Serbia and Montenegro, who had been continuously oppressed by the Ottoman

Empire and Austria-Hungary. Slav nationalism in the Balkans certainly ramped up tensions in that region and across the continent. Pan-Slavist tendencies inflamed Russian policymakers, with the long-standing national commitment to Serbia increasingly determining a strong stance to be taken over the actions of Austria-Hungary in that region. After the Balkan Wars of 1912-13, increasing attention was paid by Russian leaders to the ambitions of Austria-Hungary in that region. Serbia had enlarged itself in one direction – eastward – and it was suggested that phase one of Serbian expansion was now over; phase two was westward, into Austria-controlled Bosnia. Austria-Hungary had annexed Bosnia in 1908, a move which angered the Serbs. This could be said to have created the building blocks for an existential crisis between both nations; Austria-Hungary needed to hold on to Bosnia, and the Serbs felt that it was an essential part of their nation.

2. Decline of the Ottoman Empire and the Eastern Question:

The issues that created the Eastern Question emerged when the Ottoman high tide in Central Europe began to recede. The failed Ottoman siege of Vienna in 1683 was the last important Turkish threat to a European Power. Thereafter, the Ottomans were on the defensive.

What should happen to the Balkans if the Ottoman Empire disappeared in South-eastern Europe? This was the issue that the Eastern Question talked about. The Great Powers approached this with the hope of emerging with the maximum advantage. Sometimes this led one or another to support revolutionary change. More often, state interests led them to support the status quo.

The diplomacy of the Eastern Question often went forward in ignorance of the wishes of the Balkan people. Because of its traditions, old-style diplomacy was inadequate to deal with popular movements like nationalism. The diplomacy of the Eastern Question began in the Early Modern Period, before modern nationalism or representative governments. Diplomats from the Great Powers did not take into account the wishes of their own citizens, so why listen to Balkan peasants?

Hence, the diplomacy was ill-managed, by parties who regularly went against popular wishes and ignored the social impact of their actions. As a result, diplomacy in the Balkans was often unsuccessful because it did not take into account all operating forces. How diplomats carried out their business played a great role in Balkan politics.

1.5 International Treaties and Factions

1. League of 3 Emperors:

The League of 3 Emperors was an alliance between the German Empire, Russian Empire and the Austro-Hungarian Empire. This alliance was established in 1873 for the promotion of peace and security in Europe. The alliance being constituted by the European super powers helped in maintaining peace, but not to a large extent. The alliance commenced in a friendly way but created more tensions between Austria-Hungary and Russia due to their territorial disputes over the Balkans. Also, Serbia had occupied some area in the Balkans which was resisted by the Austro-Hungarian Empire, but supported by Russia. Austria-Hungary did not want Russia to support for a cause which was against the interests of the Austrian-Hungarian territories. Also, the

Ottoman defeat in Balkans against Russia led to the formulation of the 'Treaty of San Stefano' which brought a significant amount of influence of Russia in the Balkans. This caused a split between Russia and the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Germany always wanted to be on the Austro-Hungarian side because of its personal interests, therefore this triple alliance of the League of 3 emperors dissolved in 1887 after being renewed twice.

But, Germany still had some hope to continue its bilateral ties with Russia with the formulation of the 'Reinsurance Treaty' of 1887. But, this treaty was not renewed again in 1890. And now, Russia was free to enter into an alliance with France to work collaboratively against the dual alliance of Austria-Hungary and Germany, and also to save its interest.

2. Dual Alliance:

The 'Dual Alliance' was signed in 1879 between the Austro-Hungarian Empire and Germany. This alliance was a defensive alliance to limit, prevent and defend a war. Germany considered itself a universal saviour of humanity. The Austro-Hungarian Empire and Germany resolved to cooperate, defend and militarily aid each other in times of a war. One motive of creating this alliance was hostile relations between Russia and Austria-Hungary in the alliance of the League of 3 Emperors. This led to the formation of the Dual Alliance to save the Austro-Hungarian interests and prepare itself and Germany for a defensive approach against Russia.

Some of its provisions are as follows-

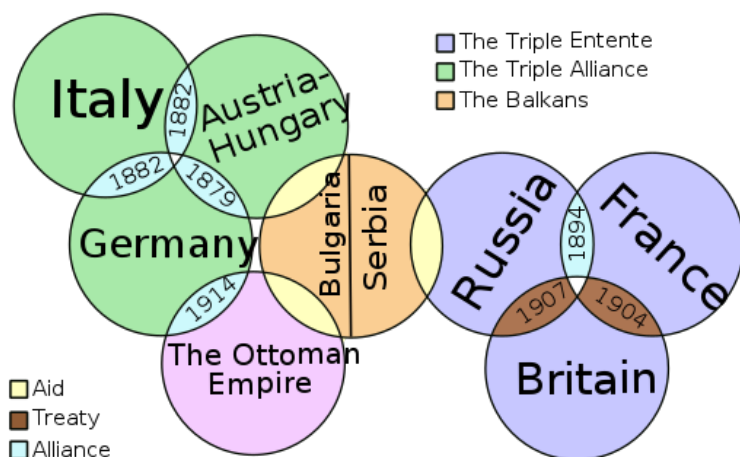
- a) If one of the two is attacked by Russia, then the other is bound to assist and to conclude peace.
- b) If any of the two is attacked by another power supported by Russia, the other Power should assist. If any Power

attacked either Austria or Germany and is not helped by Russia, the other party is to keep neutral.

This alliance lasted till the end of World War 1. The alliance between these 2 powers helped them rescue and fight several conditions of the war. It was particularly a boon for the Austro-Hungarian Empire that it was backed by the German empire.

3. Franco-Russian Alliance:

The Franco-Russian Alliance was between France and the Russian Empire which was formulated in 1892. The Franco-Russian Alliance was a result of the deteriorating relations between Austria-Hungary and Russia against whom Russia could not fight unilaterally. Germany's aim to create the League of 3 Emperors was to put pressure over France by bringing Russia and Austria-Hungary to its side. This increased enmity between France and Germany, which had developed when the German forces had attacked French troops in a war. The Russian approach was to get into an alliance with France so as to save and defend its interests and attack the Austro-Hungarian and German interest, should such a situation arise. France also had a lot of trust over Russia as Russia once convinced Germany to not declare a war against the French forces.



4. Triple Alliance:

The Triple Alliance was signed between Austria-Hungary, Germany and Italy in 1882 which was just an extension of Italy to the Dual Alliance. Italy joined this alliance due to the fear of an attack from France. Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy having a common enemy, strengthened their relationships and came to an agreement as stated below-

- Germany and Austria-Hungary were to assist Italy if it was attacked by France without provocation.
- In turn, Italy would assist Germany if attacked by France.
- Neither Austria-Hungary nor Italy would change the status quo in the Balkans without previous consultation.

5. Treaty of Björkö:

The Treaty of Björkö was a secret agreement between Tsar Nicholas II of Russia and Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany in Björkö signed in 1905. The Germans, through this treaty, hoped to reverse the Russian-French alliance. The negotiations took place directly by the two emperors, without any mediation. Each party pledged, in the case of an attack on the other party by a European power, to help the other with all available forces. The two parties also pledged not to conclude a separate peace with a mutual foe. According to the treaty, Russia also guaranteed not to alert France about the treaty until its execution; only after it came in effect would Russia have the right to tell France, the idea being to prompt France into joining the treaty as a friend. Going against the wishes of Tsar Nicholas, the Russian government did not accept

the treaty, remaining loyal to France. Because they were never consulted beforehand, the Russian prime minister Sergey Witte and the foreign minister Vladimir Lambsdorff insisted that the treaty never come into effect unless approved by France.

5. Triple Entente:

The Triple Entente was formed in 1907 between Russia, France and Great Britain through an agreement known as Anglo-Russian Entente. Russia and France had been already an ally of each other but the British entry into this alliance was due to the growing power of Germany and its competition with Britain in acquiring colonies in North Africa. In 1914, Germany wanted to execute its Schlieffen Plan by using the Belgium territory and attacking France. Belgium had to forcibly intervene into the whole matter due to Germany's aggression to execute its plan. Belgium was totally reluctant in providing its territories and naval bases to Germany to come into action against France. The 'Treaty of London of 1839' signed between Britain and Belgium persuaded Britain to come into action and declare a war against Germany and Austria-Hungary in August 1914. Britain associated itself with France and Russia, formed the 'Allies', and entered into the war.

1.6 Questions to Consider

As members of the Serbo-Russian War Council, it is important that certain questions are discussed by all of you. While new crises are being introduced will mean that there will be a host of new things to talk about, several fundamental questions regarding the basic crisis will have to be dealt with first.

These questions will include-

1. How will the governments of Serbia and Russia respond to the crisis internationally?
2. What internal steps will the two countries take to identify the perpetrators of the assassination?
3. If found, what punishments if any, will be handed out to the perpetrators?
4. With the geopolitical situation already so tense, will any public declarations of war be made on the Triple Alliance?
5. Should Russia continue to act as a patron of Serbia if any Serbian involvement is found in the assassination?
6. If choosing to declare war, how will Serbia and Russia respond to the threats made by the Ottoman Empire, Austria-Hungary and Germany?
7. How will Russia reform its government further to accommodate the wishes of the civilians there?

While these are imperative to answer, do not limit yourself to only these questions, as you will have to respond to new questions put forth by the development of the crisis arc.

1.7 Procedure

The Serbo-Russian War Council and the Austro-Hungarian Empire Emergency Meet will follow a modified version of standard parliamentary procedures. Being crisis committees and part of a JCC, the parliamentary procedures are much more relaxed.

1. Debate Procedure:

In the committees, we are going to set up a Provisional Speakers List that works like a perpetual moderated caucus. Speakers will be called in succession by the chair. Whenever, there is a need to hasten up proceedings, round robins would be utilized which are a relaxed form of a moderated caucus.

Voting will not take place in either committee and any formal document to be passed will only be passed with the consensus of the committee. Therefore, even if one member doesn't lie in concurrence with the committee directive, it will not be passed. However, documents that can be passed autonomously do not need a consensus.

2. Committee Documents:

2.1 CRISIS NOTES

These notes can be sent by any participant in his or her personal capacity and do not need committee approval. These are things that you want to do unilaterally. You can send orders that can be taken under your portfolio.

The crisis notes usually include things that you want to hide from the committee or something that you don't want the rest of the committee to know. These notes can be sent to anyone outside the committee. They can address anyone and everyone, ranging from your personal secretary to Woodrow Wilson to your aunt to your high school teacher.

Since we work in real time, we respond to your crisis notes as if we are the receiver. That means that if you send a note to your aunt, then we will reply as your aunt.

Hence it is possible for a member of one committee of the JCC to address a crisis

note to a member of the other committee. Conversations and communication across the two committees are therefore facilitated by crisis notes.

2.2 COMMITTEE DIRECTIVE

A committee directive is an action that the committee wants to take. Say if you are the Indian cabinet and the Indian parliament is attacked then the decision that the cabinet jointly makes is the committee directive.

One of the major differences between a resolution and a directive is that a directive contains actionable measures and not mere recommendations.

2.3 PERSONAL/JOINT DIRECTIVE

These are actions that you can carry out in your portfolio powers. If two or three people collaborate and make one single directive, then it is called joint directive. Neither requires committee approval.

2.4 COMMITTEE COMMUNIQUE

A communiqué sent from the committee can be written to anyone on behalf of the whole committee. It usually addresses another nation or an international organization. It doesn't require signatories but just the committee's approval. Either committee part of the JCC can make a communiqué to the other.

2.5 PRESS RELEASE

A press release is any release of information from the committee into the international media. It requires committee approval and can be presented through any news agency of the sponsor's choice.

2.6 LEAK

A leak can be written by any delegate and is typically unknown to the committee. It can contain any classified information that wasn't meant to be shared. Though

press leaks can be anonymous, there is always a risk of the author being exposed. Any leak or press release made in either committee of the JCC shall be made public to the other committee immediately.

3. JCC:

As both the committees are part of a greater Joint Crisis Committee, they will be in sync with each other, i.e. both will run in the same time frame and one's decision will affect the other. The degree to and the time at which one committee's resolutions will affect the other shall be decided by the Executive Board.

As mentioned above, interaction between committees is possible through crisis notes, communiqués, press releases and leaks. We suggest you take advantage of these means of communication as the crisis arc develops.

1.8 Final Remarks

Through this background guide we aimed to give you an understanding of the history to the July Crisis, the July Crisis itself and the various internal problems that the Russian Empire and the Kingdom of Serbia were facing. These are the issues that the committee will be traversing through, in some form or other. It bears repeating that this guide only provides the minimum details regarding the crisis and resources for you to investigate further. **Go beyond these resources to gain the information that will be required to participate in this committee.** This includes reading different opinions, blogs and articles for formulating your own ideas and opinion on the topic. As a delegate, you must have your own opinion and solution to every topic which will only develop after comprehensive and diverse readings.

The agenda of the committee has been quoted as July Crisis which is a reference to the turn of event after the assassination of Archduke Ferdinand which eventually led to World War I. However, this simulation starts right before the July Crisis and would be traversing through the crisis or maybe more in the course of the conference.

We will post a video regarding the procedure to be followed in the committee. So be sure to watch it, because it will help clear all your procedural concerns.

By the end of the conference, we hope that you exit the committee having thought more critically and substantively about a host of issues regarding World War 1. Within your directives and crisis notes, we urge you to craft realistic and creative solutions by thoughtfully debating and compromising with other delegates and responding to exciting crises simulations that expose the nuances within each topic.

We strongly encourage the compromising and merging of ideas to yield the best directives rather than tactics to gain control of the committee as Model UN is first and foremost an educational experience, not a competition. And of course, each one of your actions will have a reaction, so think carefully and thoroughly.

If you have any questions regarding the conference or the committee, feel free to mail us at srwc@shishukunjmun.com.

We wish you the very best of luck in your research and further exploration of the July Crisis, and look forward to meeting all of you at ShishukunjMUN!

Executive Board,

Serbo-Russian War Council

1.9 Further Research

1. July Crisis

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/July_Crisis
<http://alphahistory.com/worldwar1/july-crisis/>
<http://www.bbc.co.uk/timelines/zgy334j>

2. The Last Assassin: Muhamed Mehmedbašić

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Muhamed_Mehmedbašić
<http://www.juliusandtheblackhand.co.uk/Muhamed%20Mehmedbasic.html>

3. The Hoyos Mission and the Blank Cheque

<http://www.world-news-research.com/WWIstartp2.html>
https://wwi.lib.byu.edu/index.php/The_'Blank_Check'

4. The Ultimatum

<http://www.firstworldwar.com/source/austrianultimatum.htm>
[https://wwi.lib.byu.edu/index.php/The_Austro-Hungarian_Ultimatum_to_Serbia_\(English_translation\)](https://wwi.lib.byu.edu/index.php/The_Austro-Hungarian_Ultimatum_to_Serbia_(English_translation))

5. Serbian Response

[https://wwi.lib.byu.edu/index.php/The_Serbian_Response_to_the_Austro-Hungarian_Ultimatum_\(English_translation\)](https://wwi.lib.byu.edu/index.php/The_Serbian_Response_to_the_Austro-Hungarian_Ultimatum_(English_translation))

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