

Modernization Efforts of Prussia and the Ottoman Empire in Army and Military Education and the impact of Prussia on Ottoman Military Education

Prusya ve Osmanlı Devleti'nin Ordu ve Askeri Eğitimlerinde Modernleşme Çabaları İle Osmanlı Askeri Eğitimi Üzerinde Prusya Etkisi

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In this study, the modernization studies conducted by the Ottoman Empire and Prussia in their armies and in their military trainings are discussed. The Military Schools established by both Ottoman Empire and Prussia for military education were examined separately and the effects of Prussian officers on Ottoman military education system was stated. In the related literature, it is mostly stated that the Ottoman military education was tried to be modernized by taking example of the western states, the establishment process of Military Academy in Ottoman Empire by Sultan Mahmud II as a model of Royal Military School (Ecole Royale Militaire) in France and increment of the effects of Prussia on Ottoman military system in line with the developing political relations between these Empires. However, the related studies about the military education of the western states where the Ottoman military education reforms are taken as an example, and the military education of Prussia who has a significant role in Ottoman military education are limited in number. For this reason, the military education reforms carried out by the Ottoman Empire and Prussia, which is an important example of the reforms in Ottoman military education, were examined in this study. In this context, it is defined that why these reforms wanted to be realized, which deficiencies were tried to be eliminated, what kind of role the officers played in these reforms and which institutions they established. Therefore, the military modernization policies of both Prussia and the Ottoman Empire, their military education, the curricula taught in military schools, the position of Prussian influence in Ottoman military education and its effects, were indicated by examining the Ottoman archive documents and related research studies.

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Öz

Bu çalışmada, Osmanlı Devleti'nin ve Prusya'nın ordularında ve askeri eğitimlerinde gerçekleştirdiği modernleşme çalışmaları ele alınmıştır. Hem Osmanlı Devleti'nin hem Prusya'nın askeri eğitim için kurdukları Harp Okulları ayrı ayrı incelenmiş olup Prusyalı subayların Osmanlı askeri eğitimine etkisi belirtilmiştir. Literatürde Osmanlı askeri eğitimin batılı devletler örnek alınarak modernleştirilmeye çalışıldığı, II. Mahmut tarafından kurulan Harbiye Mektebi'nin Fransa'daki Kraliyet Askeri Okulu (Ecole Royale Militaire) örnek alınarak kurulduğu, daha sonra gelişen siyasi ilişkiler doğrultusunda Prusya'nın

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Osmanlı askeri sistemi içerisinde daha etkili olduğu yer almaktadır. Ancak Osmanlı askeri eğitim reformlarının örnek alındığı batılı devletlerdeki sistemin ve Osmanlı askeri eğitiminde giderek önemi artan Prusya'nın askeri eğitiminin nasıl olduğuna dair çalışmalar sınırlı kalmıştır. Bu çalışmada Osmanlı'nın ve Osmanlı askeri eğitiminde yapılan reformlara örnek olan Prusya'nın, kendi içinde gerçekleştirdiği askeri eğitim reformları incelenmiştir. Bu reformların hangi olaylar sonucunda gerçekleştirme ihtiyacının ortaya çıktığı, hangi eksikliklerin giderilmeye çalışıldığı, subayların reformlarda nasıl bir rolünün olduğu ve bu bağlamda hangi kurumları kurdukları, Osmanlı askeri eğitiminde Prusya'nın Fransa'nın yerini hangi olaylar sonucunda aldığı belirtilmiştir. Bu bağlamda hem Prusya'nın hem Osmanlı Devleti'nin askeri modernleşme politikaları, askeri eğitimleri, askeri okullarda okutulan ders programları ile Prusya nüfuzunun Osmanlı askeri eğitimindeki yeri ve ne derece etkili olduğu Osmanlı arşiv belgeleri ve araştırma eserler incelenerek ele alınmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler:

Eğitim, Modernleşme, Ordu, Osmanlı Devleti, Prusya.

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Introduction

XIX century and the early of XX century, revolutions in Europe caused the collapse of multinational monarchies, and then new ideologies appeared in this direction. After French Revolution, Napoleon Bonaparte was crowned in 1804 and he brought France into a period of conquest. After that, he started to conquer most of European lands and changed the political map of Europe for a certain period (Hobsbawm, 2008, p. 66). This change had negative effects to Holy Roman Empire, which had not yet been able to form a national unity and it consisted of many states. Napoleon's campaigns on Prussia delayed the German unity. Even though the revolutions of 1830 and 1848 played a leading role in preparing Germany's nation-state, the Germans had to wait until the 1870s for a strong and unified Germany (Roberts, 2014, pp. 346-348). In the process leading to German unity, Prussia made efficient efforts to strengthen its army and to innovate in military training. On the other hand, with the effect of the nationalist movements that emerged because of the French Revolution, multinational states began to disintegrate. The Ottoman Empire started to lose its superiority against the western states since the XVII century and negatively affected by the nationalist movement and began to seek remedies to save the empire from disintegration (İnalçık, 2018, p. 125). For this reason, the Ottoman Empire entered a renewal period in which significant innovations will be experienced. One of the most important parts of these innovations are the regulations and education reforms in the army.

In this study, the army reforms and military training arrangements made in both Prussia and the Ottoman Empire as a result of the developments in Europe and the changing political ideologies are discussed. These arrangements and reforms made by Prussia and the Ottoman Empire were examined separately. In addition, the effects of Prussia, which had a significant role in the Ottoman military system in the XIX century were discussed.

This study consists of three main chapters. In the first main title, it was stated that why did Prussia need to modernize its army during the process of Prussia's political unity, which states did Prussia take as an example while carrying out the army modernization, the prominent officers in army modernization process and their roles in military education for Prussia are explained. In this context, the studies conducted for the improvement of military education, the operation of the established military schools, the curriculum, the conditions for accepting students to the schools, the duration of education, position, and importance of the military schools in the Prussian military reforms are detailed. In the second chapter, the efforts of the Ottoman Empire to establish a new army instead of the traditional one, and the establishment and organization of the Military School (Harbiye Mektebi) which will train officers for the army are discussed. The curriculum applied in the Military School, the duration of the education, the stages through which students were admitted to the school, and the assignment of students as an officer who graduated from the school were explained. In the third chapter, the events that started the educational relations between Prussia and the Ottoman Empire, the effects of Prussia on the Ottoman army reform, the Prussian

military delegations that came to the Ottoman Empire and their roles in the Ottoman military education were emphasized.

This study is constituted by Ottoman archival documents and secondary sources. The army reforms and the efforts to achieve political unity continued in an integrated manner in Prussia. For this reason, Prussia's struggles with Austria and France and the army reforms undertaken to gain the upper hand in these struggles were mentioned with the aid of current and essential literature sources in the first part of this study. Regarding the military education system in this respect, it has been seen that there are mostly related sources in the literature that include general descriptions of European military schools. Within this context, relevant sources about Prussia were used. In the second part of this article contains the modernization of the Ottoman army and military training that mostly using the Ottoman archive documents. The number of studies about the Ottoman Empire's attempts to establish a new army and military schools is increasing in the related literature. In addition to the documents used in this section, the study was supported by examining the current studies. In addition, the efforts of Prussian officers who came to the Ottoman Empire to improve military education system were examined together in the third part of this study. Ottoman archive documents related to this subject were also used in this section.

It has been seen that the Prussian influence on the Ottoman modernization took place in related literature. However, studies that detailing of the Prussian army modernization and military education system, which had such a significant impact on the Ottoman Empire are limited. The main purpose of this study is to deal with the modernization efforts of the armies of Prussia and the Ottoman Empire, which were affected in different ways politically in the revolution era. Furthermore, the aim is to deal with the military schools that will provide the officer reserve of the newly established armies of the Ottoman and Prussian armies separately and to reveal the Prussian influence in the Ottoman military education system.

Prussia's Army Modernization and Military Training System

Prussian Army Modernization

Prussia refers to the Berlin-based German Kingdom established in the eastern part of today's Germany. Originally, Prussia was a part of the Holy Roman German Empire. In 1871, it began to be known as the German Empire. The political unity of Prussia and the realization of the army reforms were integrated events. First, Wilhelm, who came to the throne after the Thirty Years' War, made significant attempts to eliminate the security and defense problems which, were serious issues in that period. During this period, the Junkers held the political, economic, and military power in the state. The Junkers were the landed nobles in Prussia, and the Prussian officers were selected from Junkers (Gorski 1993, p. 300). The Junkers were mercenary, and they had lack of education. Moreover, they are opposite of innovations. As the defense of the country remained weak with the Junkers, Calvinist Huguenots who migrated from France were tried to be assigned to the Prussian army. Thus, the bureaucrat class began to form in Prussia. (Dolman, 2004, p. 125; Uyar & Gök, 2003, p. 9). From the beginning of the eighteenth century, Friedrich Wilhelm I had assigned a cantonal district to each

regiment. Each regiment carried a trained troop reserve in its canton. Prussia could increase its power by summoning of soldiers from the cantons in wartimes (Shanahan, 1945, p. 7).

Prussia-Brandenburg becoming a military power in the era of Friedrich “The Soldier King” Wilhelm (1713-1740) and II. Friedrich “The Great” (1740-1786) (Calinger, 2006, p. 239; Beydilli, 2007, p. 354). Frederick I assigned a cantonal district to each regiment. Each regiment had a trained troop reserve in its canton. In wartime, Prussia could increase its power by summoning soldiers in the cantons (Graham, 2004, p. 5; Shanahan, 1945, p. 7). In this period, with the adoption of pietism among the soldiers, the Berlin Military Academy turned into a pietist structure. Thus, the loyalty of the soldiers for the state was increased and the officers were made more open-minded to innovations (Gorski, 1993, p. 294-295; Uyar & Gök, 2003, p. 10). In addition, Wilhelm wanted to start working on conscription as happens in France. Therefore, conscription process from the villagers began, but this situation was not tolerated well among the junkers. For this reason, a strict discipline was applied in the military system (Uyar & Gök, 2003, p. 11). In the Friedrich III era, more radical steps were taken in Prussian military reforms. He accelerated the Prussian military reforms after the Napoleonic Wars, which started because of the French Revolution, and especially after the defeat in the Battle of Jena (Schulze, 1999, p. 73; Breuilly, 2011, p. 2). In this period, the efforts for modernize the army were started in 1807 when Emperor Friedrich III appointed August Neidhardt von Gneisenau and General Scharnhorst, who took part in the Battle of Jena, and the reform process of the Prussian army began.

Scharnhorst established a commission of core 'reformers'. Prominent figures, such as Gneisenau, Karl von Grolman, and Hermann von Boyen, took part in this commission. A member of Scharnhorst's personal staff, von Clausewitz, also became the secretary of the commission (Holborn, 1986, p. 281; Davis, 2006, p. 84). Although Clausewitz was on the commission as Scharnhorst's assistant, he would later settle at the center of the reform. Clausewitz lived in a time when Europe was exposed of great upheavals and changes. As a Prussian officer, he was brought up with the values of the European order established with the Peace of Westphalia (1648). With the Revolution, the European system became incompatible, internal political-social orders became the object of wars, France adopted compulsory military service, leaving the old period to the wars of those with huge armies, and the changes Napoleon brought to his understanding of strategy revealed that Clausewitz's understanding of war was affected by these factors. He had the opportunity to observe that how the French Revolution began to destroy the Old Order. He created a unique way of thinking by combining the French Enlightenment tradition and German Idealism (Karaosmanoğlu, 2011, p. 8). Clausewitz did significant scientific analysis of battles. At the same time, he wrote about the relations of military theory between the past and the present (Paret, 1986, p. 193). In particular, he analyzed the battles of Austria, France, and Prussia well. He evaluated these battles from many aspects such as strategy, attack, defense, evaluation of geographical conditions, equipment, subsistence, and alignment of the

army (Clausewitz, 2015). Later, he conveyed these evaluations to the officer candidates during his teaching at the Military Academy.

Scharnhorst and the other military reformers aimed to create a new military system undoubtful. With the efforts of Boyen, laws about army reforms were drawn up. Conscription was introduced with the Service Act of 1814 (Wehrgesetz) and the Landwehr Regulation 1815 (Landwehrordnung). The Landwehr was a citizen militia separated from the regular army (Shoy, 2003, p. 17; Walter, 2009, p. 270). King Frederick William III of Prussia first ordered that about 3% of citizens from all cities and Kreise (government rural areas) should be recruited for the Prussian Landwehr and lifted the exemption from military service in 1813 (Takaoka, 2021, p. 18; Walter, 2009, p. 269). A very meticulous and ruthless discipline was applied to the Prussians who had joined the army. In this way, the Prussian army gradually became stronger. While the army reform continued, there was an important development for the German unity. Prussia established the customs union (Zolleverein) with almost all the smaller German states. With the 1830 and 1848 revolutions that emerged in Europe after the Congress of Vienna, Prussia increased its power again.

In 1848, when the uprising for freedom of the local people and Hungarians in Vienna put Austria in a tricky situation, the nationalists in Germany took action to establish German unity and chose Prussia as their leader. In fact, the King of Prussia aimed to form a German Empire by establishing a constitution. However, in the face of this situation, Prussia could not afford to go further in the face of the severe threats of Austria, and the attempt for unity was inconclusive (Armaoğlu, 2012, p. 31). One year after the start of the 1848 revolution, a famous name appeared on the stage of history who would change the fate of Germany. Otto von Bismarck entered the Prussian Landtag from the Brandenburg-Zauche-Belzig constituency on February 5, 1849. Hans von Kleist, who would become president of the Rhine State in 1851, was elected from Belgrade. The elections to the Union Parliament were held on 31 January 1850. The first meeting of the Parliament was held in Erfurt on March 20, 1850, and Bismarck was elected as the Secretary of the Parliament (Steinberg, 2015, p. 132). The 1850s were a period of radical changes for Germany.

Helmuth von Moltke, who had a conservative view, was appointed to the Chief of General Staff in 1857. The Minister of War of the period was Roon (Uyar & Gök, 2003, p. 19). Chief of the General Staff Helmuth von Moltke and Minister of War Albrecht von Roon later did important works in the establishment of the German Union and the realization of military reforms. Captain Albrecht von Roon who graduated from the Kriegsakademi [Prussian Military Academy] met Bismarck in the summer of 1834. In the 1820s, Roon started an extensive project to scan and map the topography of the Kingdom of Prussia. The General Staff Topography Department recruited talented young officers who could not be assigned to the regiments as staff officers and could not pay their horse and equipment fees. Therefore, Roon made his name. Moltke and Roon, who walked alongside Bismarck in the parade held on Unter den Linden street in honor of the victory over the French in 1871 and the unification of Germany, spent many years together in the Topography Department (Steinberg, 2015, p. 57).

While the progress in Prussian politics continued, Moltke and Roon started to work to provide political unity and a stronger army for Prussia. First, they attempted to disband the local militia forces. Because the Landwehr did not consist of educated staffs. It was founded because of the insistence of three Prussian rulers in desperate attempts. The Landwehr's severe problem was the qualification and unity of its officer corps. Almost nothing was being done to develop this officer corps. For example, a young lieutenant might have to wait too many years to be promoted. On the other hand, half of the company officers in the army were reserved for the uneducated ordinary citizens in the country (Goerlitz, 2011, p. 80).

Prince William wanted to assign the officers who member of regular army to the Landwehr. However, these regular army officers were reluctant to this situation. Landwehr officers were offered low salaries and social incentives. This case caused unqualified officer candidates to join Landwehr (Walter, 2001, p.9). Furthermore, the military tools and equipments of the Landwehr soldiers were also behind the times. Prussia had an army with weapons such as a center-fired "pingun" and a tail-loaded steel cannon. In addition, people with secondary education were given the right to enlist in the army voluntarily for one year. After three years of service, the soldiers were transferred to a combative (Landwehr) reserve class (Seignobos, 1960, p. 350). Besides, the officers made up from volunteers could not prepare well for the wars. The Landwehr officer corps had suffered major disruption long before 1840. Related line officers were assigned to Landware to resolve the problems. Almost half of the Landwehr infantry divisions and nearly all of the cavalry squadrons were led by line officers in 1841. The Landwehr began to be institutionalized in 1852 with the creation of six additional captains in each line regiment which were enough to command half of the 12 companies. Since that moment, the participants commanded all Landwehr infantries. In 1859, with the support of Prince William and the leadership of the Moltke - Roon duo, the effectiveness of the Landwehr was reduced (Walter, 2009, p. 281-282). Instead, they tried to increase the competencies of the staff officers who graduated from the Military Academies. Moltke created his own team in this process. He took important persons such as Friedrich von Hesse, Werner Ollech, Hans Stiehle, Gunther Vieth, Johann Petersen for his team. These persons were the leading officers of the general staff. They specialized in mobilization and war plans. Thus, the General Staff which formed by Moltke and Roon became the main element of the Prussian Army (Bucholz, 2001, p. 53).

On the other hand, Moltke thought that a war against Austria was inevitable at that time. Germany's economy was rising rapidly. Germany strengthened economically and removed Austria from the Customs Union in 1865. After that, other German principalities had become dependent on Prussia (Fullbrook, 2018, p. 126). Meanwhile, Battle of Sadowa had taken place in 1866. As a result of this war, Austria began to lose its influence on the German states. In addition, this situation accelerated the political unity of Prussia. Germany's rail network was also enormously developed. Moltke had brought the army to the Austrian border using the railway network (Holborn, 1986, p. 291; Uyar & Gök, 2003, p. 21). At the end of the Austro-Prussian War in 1866, both Italy

and Prussia became closer to establishing their political union, and the Austrian monarchy was damaged eventually. In particular, Austria, which was unable to meet the expenses of the war, underwent a great economical defeat. The Hungarian and Czech nations moved further away from Austria (Wawro, 1995, p. 247). Prussia captured the North German states and dominated the military and foreign policies of Southern Germany (Parker, 2014, p. 268). The fact that Prussia defeated Austria in the Battle of Sadowa and became increasingly stronger worried France. In addition, some problems arose in the Spanish succession system at that time. Discussions about who would take the Spanish throne disturbed France.

In 1869, Leopold, from the Catholic branch of the Hohenzollerns, the Prussian Royal family, was elected as a candidate for the Spanish throne. This was met with a great reaction in Paris, with the thought that France would be surrounded by the Germans from the north and south. France asked Prussia to prevent this situation and emphasizing that this would upset the balance of European powers. Although Bismarck suggested that the request was accepted, Wilhelm I abandoned Spain to not cause any problems with France. France demanded assurances from Prussia that the Hohenzollern princes could no longer be placed on the Spanish throne. Prussia did not give this guarantee under the influence of Bismarck and France declared war on Prussia on 19 July 1870 (Wetzell, 2001, p. 61; Uçarol, 2008, p. 247).

In the summer of 1870, the Kingdom of Prussia and its German allies destroyed the military power of the French Empire. Within a month, Prussia had established a military superiority and a political hegemony. One of the reasons for the French defeat was that the Prussians followed the military and industrial developments in Europe better than France did. On the other hand, the Prussians realized the importance of the railways in the 1830s. Prussia considered the railways not only as a new economic unit, but also as an asset that allowed the army to quickly concentrate its power at any point. For this reason, General Helmut von Moltke said that “every new development in the railways is a military advantage and the necessary finance should be provided for the completion of our railways for national defense” (Howard, 2006, p. 2). In 1870, Prussia was able to deploy and direct large armies, which they easily dispatched, thanks to their railway networks. The war was more difficult for France, which did not have such a railway network or order (Parker, 2014, p. 269).

During the war, France did not get enough support it expected from states such as Austria, Italy, Russia, and England. Soldiers from Bavaria, Württemberg, and Baden were sent to Prussia. The allied southern army was in command of the King himself. Thus, Prussia gained numerical superiority in terms of both the number of soldiers and equipment (Badsey, 2022, p. 20). In addition, Prussia had trained talented generals. Helmut Von Moltke commanded the war. On August 21st, Moltke gave the order to continue advancing westward, dividing the Prussian forces into two groups of the three armies. The battle fought near the city of Sedan on September 1st. At the end of the war, France was besieged. The French army, which had no clear direction, lost the battle. After the Battle of Sedan, Moltke's reputation was crowned with a brilliant success (Davis, 2006, p. 89).

After Moltke, Schlieffen became the chief of staff. Schlieffen graduated from the Joachimsthaler Gymnasium, which provided education with the Protestant pietism ecole (Rothenberg, 1986, p. 311). Schlieffen increased the number of technical units in the army and tried to equip the army with modern machine guns (Clark, 2006, p. 510; Craig, 1964, p. 283). Although Bismarck started to work to strengthen the Prussian army after his significant efforts for the Unification of Germany, he had to resign in 1890 (Schulze, 1991, p. 98). Thanks to the developing army and economy after Bismarck, Prussia entered to colonialism race like other European states (Uyar & Gök, 2003, p. 23). Proving the strength of its newly formed army, Prussia set an example for states that would modernize their army, such as the Ottoman Empire.

Prussian Military Education

In the process of the leading to political unity, Prussia needed to improve military education along with the army reform. When Scharnhorst took office to reform the army, he felt that the Prussian officers must first learn the methods of command and warfare based on discipline and drill. For this purpose, he wanted to ensure the establishment of institutions that serve the implementation of compulsory military service in the education reforms he thought. In addition, he emphasized that the education given in military schools should be limited to only necessary military courses to be useful for the battles. He also prioritized the issues of military authority and easing of disciplinary sanctions. On the other hand, thinking that a system in which students will gradually reach the upper levels from the lower levels would be beneficial, he proposed dividing the military education and training institutions into three groups, as military schools, non-commissioned officer schools currently in service, and adjutant schools (Mueller, 1984, p. 158). In other words, a three-stage education system was predicted. The first two stages of this three-stage education system had been practiced in Prussia since the eighteenth century. Students who would enter the Military Academy, which would be established later, were educated in Gymnasiums after completing their primary education. With the establishment of the Military Academy in the nineteenth century, the officers who graduated from here became staff officers. Especially the officer reserves of the reformed army consisted of the Military Academy during the Moltke period. For primary schools, Heinrich Pestalozzi's style of teaching was used. Pestalozzi was a Swiss-German pedagogue. According to him, education had to be conducted with a special technique that focused on music and industrial arts. Therefore, his style was adopted at the primary level. However, civil servants to be employed in the civil service had to get a university education (Schleunes, 1989, p. 8).

An Abitur (certificate of completion) was needed from a Gymnasium. In 1788, the Prussian state standardized the Abitur for Gymnasium school graduates. As head of the Department of Worship and Public Education at the Ministry of the Interior, Wilhelm von Humboldt was the organizer of the institution of compulsory education in Prussia. He argued that there should be a neo-humanist curriculum for the Gymnasium. Humboldt's plan was to achieve the full integration of the Prussian schools, removing them from the control of the churches. Gymnasiums were the

beginning stage of the nationalization of Prussian education. The basis of Humboldt's reforms in Bavaria was "unity and stability in education" (Schleunes, 1989, p. 74). As a result of the organization of gymnasiums and the soldiers who graduated from these institutions, the first non-commissioned officer corps system was formed.

In 1824, the commander of the Guard Units, Count Karl von Mecklenburg-Strelitz wanted to establish a school for NCOs in the Guard Units. He expanded part of the infantry teaching battalion to train young graduates of the Potsdam Military Orphan House and the Annaburg Military Institute for charging in the permanent army. Three hundred students between the ages of 17-20 were admitted to the school. Significant criterias were set for these students, such as being at least 5 feet 2 inches tall and passing science, morals, and physical strength tests. For three years, Reading, Writing, Mathematics, German, Geography, History, Astronomy, Physical Education, Military Discipline and Marching courses were taught. When training was completed and they had served in their regiment for three years, the best ones were commissioned as non-commissioned officers. Between 1825-29, only 177 of 400 first-class students were able to graduate, and only 15 achieved the status of NCO. However, only a few of them reached general rank in the army. (Bucholz, 2001, p. 21).

In the first half of the nineteenth century, non-commissioned officers' schools were developed and organized into three levels. First level schools consisted of Military Shooting School in Spandau, the Riding School in Schwedt, and the Central Gymnastics School in Berlin. These were the private schools that train NCOs. Second level schools consisted of Potsdam, Jülich, Biberach, Weissenfels, Ettlingen and Marienburg, which prepared NCOs for promotion to higher ranks within the NCO schools and the Military Colleges were organized for promotion to officer rank in Anklam, Potsdam, Erfurt, Neisse, Engers, Hanover and Cassel (Bucholz, 2001, p. 22). Schools up to the third level trained non-commissioned officers. The Military Academies trained staff officers and its foundations were laid in 1810 in the third level.

Accordingly, three cadets for lieutenants were established in Berlin, Königsberg and Breslau, in addition to the cadet corps existing in Berlin. In 1810, the General Military College started to operate simultaneously with the University of Berlin. These two institutions were located opposite of each other on Unter den Linden Street. Karl Friedrich Schinkel designed the building of the Academy (Wilkinson, 1895, p. 160; Bucholz, 2001, p. 18). This school also undertook the advanced training of artillery and engineering officers (Hall, 2002, p. 93). After the military academy was established, it was revealed that the biggest problem of the German army during the wars was the need for trained middle-class officers. This need had been tried to be met as a part of both the Prussian army reform and military training arrangements.

Moltke expressed this shortcoming after the Franco-Prussian War of 1871. In the German Army, officers started their military service as privates (without rank). Military service was carried out before or after the student recruitment activity. There was no compulsory military service in Germany. However, the basic military training (Grundausbildung) included in the content of military service was a joint training phase for senior and volunteer soldiers in the armed forces, and military service was

kind of compulsory for seniors. (Özdemir & Alperen, 2019, p. 51). Building on the work of Scharnhorst, the director of the Berlin Military Academy and the head of the Army Reform Commission, the system of obtaining promotion in the rank by merit came, and the rank units were expanded.

In the army education system, the criteria for admitting students to military schools was restructured. Young men went to military school by taking the lieutenant exam and examination commissions. This school became three schools where lieutenants learned the essentials of their duties, a war school for officers, and later, the Kriegsakademie (Military Academy) where young officers received further training, preparing for duty in the General Staff (Barnard, 1872, p. 396). After the issue of rank, Scharnhorst intensified the lessons on teaching shooting and combat techniques. Innovations such as improving the treatment of soldiers, limiting corporal punishment, removing legal restrictions on access to officer rank, expanding military obligations were established. For these reforms to be effective, they had to be complemented by other reforms. The conduct of the officers who served in the wars during the operation was investigated and several were tried and convicted (Stahl, 1993). On June 4, 1808, a committee was formed under the chair of Yorck II to prepare the instructional instructions. He appointed Yorck, one of the important strategists and generals of the Friedrich Wilhelm era, as Inspector General of all light units in the army. When Yorck took office, he gave written instructions to all his units. The most prominent of these instructions is that the tactical lessons in the military school will be given by Tiedemann and Clausewitz (Paret, 1966, p. 143–147).

Commissions were established to determine and implement the curriculum of the Prussian Military Academy. The commissions established for the reform of the army and the military academy, which trained officers for the army, made important decisions. According to the report of the Military Restructuring Commission, every officer and civil servant should have the following qualifications: efficient writing in calligraphy and spelling, knowledge of arithmetic including proportions and fractions, knowledge of plane geometry, ability to draw plans, knowledge of basic geography, knowledge of general world history, and a history of their homeland. information. Those who did not know this to the maximum level could not be officers and civil servants in Prussia. For this reason, the students to be admitted to the Military Academy were subjected to a difficult exam that included Geography, Algebra, Geometry, Trigonometry, History, Military Administration and French courses. Only logarithmic tables and French dictionaries were allowed to be used as an aid for the students in these exams (Upton, 2018, p. 214). Therefore, the students admitted to the Military Academy were subjected to a strict examination. The students who were admitted to the school by passing the exam went through an intensive curriculum at school. In the Prussian military school, in addition to courses such as mathematics, geometry, history, geography, and French, and training such as mapping, trench building, taking cover, the basics of field and permanent fortification, weapons and ammunition, technical drawing, field research, and tactics were taught. While the students continued their education at the Military Academy, the most talented ones

were selected and placed in a separated class to train artillerymen and engineers. Here they took higher mathematics, chemistry, artillery, architectural drawing courses for a year (Walford, 1857, p. 18). In Prussian Military Academy, Russian and Japanese were added to the foreign language lessons. The Prussian Military Academy was planned as three years and the courses were taught as follows (Clemente, 1992, p. 180).

Table 1: *Prussian Military Academy Curriculum*

First Year	Second Year	Third Year
Tactics	Tactics and General Personnel Service	Tactics and General Personnel Service
Military History	Military History	Military History
Weapons and Ammunition	Fortification and Siege War	Siege War
Maritime Warfare	Map Drawing and Measurement	History
Military Hygiene	Communication	Measurement (with astronomical drawing)
Military Justice	History	French
History	Constitution	English
Geography	Administration	Russian or Japanese
Mathematics	Civil Law and Finance	-
French	Mathematics	-
English	French	-
Russian or Japanese	English	-
-	Russian or Japanese	-

(Clemente, 1992, p. 180)

Weekly course hours were planned as 19–23 h in the first year, 24–25 h in the second year, and 19–21 h in the third year. Under the guidance of their professors, the students were able to visit the military workshops, technical institutions, exercise fields, and fortifications of Spandau in Berlin and Spandau. They participated in the exercises of the railway regiment and made training journeys on the military railway. Tactics, fortification, and transport lessons were supplemented with practical exercises. Lectures were usually given by professors at the University of Berlin and officers in the Great General Staff. Civilian teachers taught non-military courses. There were very distinguished names among these educators. Clausewitz was headmaster of the school from 1818 to 1830. The great geographer Carl Ritter was one of the teaching professors from 1820 to 1859. For students to graduate from the Military Academy, they had to score at least five points on the exams (Wilkinson, 1895, p. 152). Matter of discipline had given importance in this school. Discipline was ensured by giving authority to manage to officers in command of regiments, battalions, troops, and detachments. Punishment was given according to the magnitude of the crime committed at the school. Penalties of arrest, imprisonment, deprivation of duty are given for minor offenses. Serious crimes were punished by a military court (Upton, 2018, p. 224).

The graduates of the Prussian Military Academy were appointed in four ways. These were, respectively, those who were suitable for the duty of the General Staff, those who were qualified for the position of higher-level adjutant, those who had the qualification of teaching in military schools, and those who were suitable for line duty (Clemente, 1992, p. 192). In the Military Academy, it was aimed to fully prepare the officers for the modern requirements of war. In this way, the students learned the nature of war and got an idea about the operation of the armies during their three years at the Military Academy. However, the Military Academy was subordinate to the Military General Inspectorate, not the General Staff. In 1872, it was given to the control of the General Staff. The fact that the Military Academy was attached to the General Staff raised the standard of military education to the highest level (Wilkinson, 1895, pp.152–163). The reforms made in the Military Academy were not limited to military education. One year after the establishment of the Military Academy, a Medical-Surgical Academy was established within the Military Academy to train military doctors. In 1818, the medical school was named the "Friedrich Wilhelm Institute for medical surgery". The surgical schools of Breslau, Königsberg, Greifswald, Magdeburg, and Münster produced second-rate surgeons until 1848. Here, physicians were only allowed to perform minor surgery. However, later, the doctorate requirement was introduced for physicians, and the Prussian physicians, whose number was around 325 in 1850, were equipped with physicians, 84% of whom had a doctorate within a quarter of a century (Stahl, 1993, p. 206). As a result of all these military reforms, the Prussian army made great progress until the World War I.

Modernization and Military Training in The Ottoman Army

Modernization of Ottoman Empire

The Ottoman Empire rose militarily, politically, and economically with great momentum since its establishment and became a world state. Until the 17th century, it expanded its territory on three continents and advanced to the center of Europe. However, the military, scientific, and technological developments in Europe could not be followed sufficiently by the Ottoman Empire. Geographical Discoveries, Renaissance, Reform Movements, and revolutions that paved the way for free thought and created nation states in Europe which enabled the modernization of Europe. With this modernization, Europe developed itself in every field, especially in the military. The Ottoman Empire, on the other hand, entered a period of decline due to its inability to follow these developments in Europe and the political turmoil in domestic politics, and began to lose its superiority over Europe.

Land losses in the west and east, and internal revolts forced the Ottoman Empire to make various reforms, especially in the military department. It was understood that the territorial integrity of the Ottoman Empire with the traditional Sultan's Household troops and the Janissaries could not be preserved, especially in the face of the changing and developing armies of Europe. Therefore, the need to renew the army arose first. Sultan Osman II was the first to realize that it was necessary to abolish the Janissaries and replace them with a modern army. In 1620, Osman II went on an expedition to Poland. However, the Ottoman army failed in Hotin and the war was lost. The sultan

acknowledged the fact that the state officials did not take the war seriously enough and the undisciplined and reluctant fights of the Janissaries were the main reasons for the loss of the war (Kazalak & Gündüz, 2003, p. 144). After the defeat of Battle of Hotin, on the advice of Dilaver Pasha, the grand vizier at the time, Osman II attempted to remove the Janissaries and started to establish a new army in Damascus. This attempt by the Sultan was heard by the Janissaries and a rebellion against the sultan began. The Janissaries finally captured and martyred Osman II (Başer, 2013, p. 51). Thus, the attempt to modernize the army could not actualized.

Another attempt to modernize the Ottoman army took place during the reign of Sultan Selim III. He was the son of Sultan Mustafa III, who established the speed artillery unit of the Ottoman army and brought an officer named Baron de Tott from France for military training. Mustafa III founded the Imperial Muhendishane-i Bahri Humayun (School of Naval Engineering). Uncle of Selim III, Abdulhamid I ordered to open the fortification school and improved the miner and grenadier quarry (Uzunçarşılı, 2000, p. 473). However, since the periods of Mustafa III and Abdulhamid I passed with heavy wars, army reforms were limited to these changes.

When Selim III came to the throne, the French Revolution was taking place in Europe. The Ottoman Empire was also at war with both Austria and Russia. These wars ended in failure. In 1792, the Treaty of Sistova was signed with Austria as well as the Treaty of Jassy with Russia. The terms of these two treaties had too heavy clauses for the Ottoman Empire. Selim III searched for a solution to overcome the military failures in the military reforms. He wanted to create a “new order” to preserve the existence of the empire and base it on new foundations (Karal, 1983, p. 13). Since his heirship, Selim III communicated with King XVI Louis with the help of the French ambassador and through one of his trusted men, İshak Bey, by correspondence and received information about the situation in Europe.

Selim III took France as an example for his reforms (Tunç, 2018, p. 370). First, he wanted to prepare placards with the idea of determining the merits of statesmen and benefiting from them and creating the infrastructure of reforms for the deteriorations that occurred in the empire and their solutions (Şen, 2003, p. 219). In these documents, the state order of the Ottoman Empire and the Janissary Army were disrupted, the war technologies of the European States were advanced, the members of the army were engaged in professions other than military service, the soldiers of Armorer, Artilleryman, Mortar Combat Troops, and Military Engineer quarries were far from having the necessary knowledge, techniques, and discipline, and their salaries were insufficient. There were important recommendations made, such as the soldiers should be trained and these arrangements should be made in the European style (Öğreten, 2014, p. 141–145). Selim III acted immediately upon these recommendations and started a new reform period under the name of Nizam-ı Cedid. The Sultan first established a treasury called İrad-ı Cedid (the New Treasury) to meet the expenses of Nizam-ı Cedid (the New Order) reforms.

The income sources of this treasury were created by taking them from the hands of a certain group who had captured the state revenues and establishing new income

sources (Beydilli & Şahin, 2001, p.43). After the treasury was created, new order laws were created. Accordingly, there were laws such as appointing officers loyal to the state to head the grenadier and artillery corps, in which the soldiers would be evaluated and polled twice a year, and their salaries would be regulated. (Koç & Yeşil, 2012, p. 17–27). After the laws were passed, it was time to establish a new army. Grand Vizier Koca Yusuf Pasha brought some European officers with him on his way back to Istanbul after signing peace with Austria and Russia. These officers were assigned to train the soldiers in the Levent farm. After the arrival of the European officers, the Ministry of Trained Soldiers was established to train trained soldiers. The Sultan wanted Nizam-ı Cedid to be a military headquarters, but the Janissaries refused. After the martyrdom of Osman II, the statesmen found it dangerous to establish an independent corps next to the Janissary Corps. Therefore, the Nizam-ı Cedid Army was established in Levent Farm as the Bostancı Gunsmith Barracks, affiliated to the Bostancı Barrack (Karal, 1983, p. 65).

The privates to be elected to the Nizam-ı Cedid Corps were chosen from related families who did not exceed the age of twenty-five. The privates who entered the barracks gained ranks as they became artillerymen and cartwrights. In addition, one cannon was arranged for each of the twelve divisions formed. Privates used weapons such as flints, bayonets, rifles, and swords. Officers received a salary from the Tımar income taxation. Bread supplies were given to the privates with their daily wages. These salaries were paid from the İrad-ı Cedid Treasury (New Treasury) (Çataltepe, 1997, p. 104–111).

Although it was aimed to prove that the new army was not an independent army and was a part of the Bostancı Corps, the financial and political arrangements implemented for the new structuring made Nizam-ı Cedid felt privileged by the Janissaries. The revenues of the İrad-ı Cedid Treasury were used for the new army made worse the conditions of Janissaries. This situation led to thoughts that the Janissary Corps would be abolished in the future. As a result of the increasing unrest, the Janissaries united under the leadership of Kabakçı Mustafa in 1807 and started a rebellion against Sultan. As a result of the rebellion, Sultan Selim III was deposed (Sunar, 2010, p. 527). Thus, this attempt in the army reform, which was desired to be made, was also inconclusive.

Selim III also included education in the reform movements. He started under the name of the 'New Order'. In particular, he made applications that brought military training to the forefront. In 1795, he ordered to open Mühendishane-i Berr-i Hümayun (the Imperial School of Military Engineering) in Hasköy. This school was the second engineering school of the empire. It was known as Fünûn-i Harbiyye Tâlimhânesi, Mekteb-i Fünûn-i Harbiyye, or Mühendishâne-i Sultanî, and then as Mühendishâne-i Berrî Hümayun (Imperial School of Military Engineering). Lessons were conducted under the chairmanship of geometry and algebra teacher Abdurrahman Efendi, who was the administrator and head teacher at the school for many years (Beydilli, 2006, p. 516). Later, Hoca İshak Efendi was appointed as the head teacher at the school and

conducted some science lessons along with foreign language lessons (Koçer, 1987, p. 32).

The education was divided into four classes and different courses were taught in each class. In general terms, the curriculum included Calculus, Geometry, Geography, Military Engineering, Astronomy, Algebra, History of War, and Arabic lessons. French as a foreign language was added in the third and fourth class. In addition, a library and a printing house were opened in the Engineering School (Kenan, 2010, p. 141). Moreover, professors from Europe visited the Engineering School to instruct the students. The correspondence of Selim III with Louis XIV, the Ottoman-France relations, and the strength of the French army in this period led to French influence in the Engineering School in Ottomans. In the delegation from France, important names, such as Laurent-Jean François Truguet, who was responsible for preparing the maps, Tondule Du Rest, who was responsible for giving astronomy and geometry lessons, took part in teaching (Zorlu, 2014, p. 148). It was also the first educational institution to teach a foreign language and place its students in rows. Selim III also reformed the Mühendishane-i Bahri Hümayun (Imperial School of Naval Engineering), which was established during the reign of his father, Mustafa III. Two schools formed the basis of the military and naval schools (Unat, 1964, p. 14).

It was Sultan Mahmud II who followed in the footsteps of Selim III in the modernization of the army and military education and achieved results. The breaking point in Mahmud II's reform of the army was the Greek Revolt of 1821, which broke out under the influence of the nationalist movement that emerged after the French Revolution. When the Greek Revolt broke out, Mahmud II asked for help from the Egyptian governor, Mehmet Ali Pasha, who had restructured the provincial army in Egypt independently from the Ottoman administration (Shaw and Kural Shaw, 1977, p. 9). During the war with the rebels, Mahmud II was impressed by the chain of command system in Egypt's army and especially the effectiveness of the officer class. After this, Mahmud II began attempts to abolish the Janissaries and replace them with a brand-new modern army. First, he removed the anti-reform statesmen and instead, appointed staffs he trusted. Thus, he started to strengthen his authority (Uyar & Erickson, 2017, p. 235–236).

Sultan Mahmud II later established the Eşkinici Ocağı (Cavalry Corps). Eşkinici Ocağı was established in a way similar to the Nizam-ı Cedid and Sekban-ı Cedid, but instead of recruiting soldiers again, 150 people were selected from each of the Janissary middles. Corps forces were trained in a European style and equipped with new weapons and equipment (Çadırcı, 1963, p. 64). The Janissaries were disturbed by this situation and started a rebellion movement again. Aga Hüseyin Pasha and Mehmed Reşid Pasha, along with technical classes, such as artillery, military engineers, mortar artillery troops, and marine troops, responded to the rebellion with the forces they prepared for such a day, and the rebellion was suppressed harshly (Beydilli, 2012, p. 455). After the revolt, a ballot was held to abolish the Janissary Corps. Even though there was a majority in the voting to rehabilitate the corps because it was an ancient

and valuable corps, Reisülküttap Şeyda Efendi took the floor and explained the necessity of removing the Janissaries (Ahmet Cevdet Paşa, 2016, p. 868).

As a result, the Janissary Corps was abolished definitively in 1826. All the barracks belonging to the Janissaries in Istanbul were demolished and new barracks were built instead. Davutpaşa, Üsküdar, Rami Paşa, and Maçka were among the recent built barracks. The Military School, which trained officers for the new army, was also located in Maçka Barrack (Baykara, 1995, p. 6). The name of the new army established instead of the Janissary Corps was the Asâkir-i Mansûre-i Muhammediyye Army (the Mansure Army). A law was prepared on how the army would be formed. In the law, the composition of the new army, its amount, the amount of salary they will receive, their daily training and worship, their clothing, permits, equipment, and retirement status were included. According to the law, the order of the new army was as follows: eight units were formed in Istanbul, under the command of Serasker Pasha, comprising twelve thousand soldiers. There was a major in each order, right and left armies in each major's entourage, and captains, corporals, artillery and coachman and military chiefs, tutors, soldiers, imams, military clerks, mehterhane team, engineers, physicians and surgeons, and officers in each squadron, which included 1527 soldiers (Keleş, 2006, p. 227). In 1837, a high council called Dar-ı Şura-yı Asker was established. This board was tasked with making important decisions, such as planning the need for soldiers, training the personnel, appointment and promotion, and health services (Yıldız, 2013, p. 50).

Ottoman Military Education

To train officers for the newly established army, Hassa Müşiri Pasha and Ahmed Fevzi Pasha laid the foundation of the Military Academy by choosing some soldiers from among the second battalion of the fourth regiment of the Hassa Army (Private Army) in Selimiye in 1834. The Maçka Barracks, built for the new army, were turned into a school. The barracks were repaired and a mosque and two large schools that could accommodate four hundred students, and a library, Turkish bath, hospital, pharmacy, and printing house were built. The necessary materials for the school were bought from Europe (Ergin, 1977, p. 355). The Imperial Military School was moved to the Tiled Kiosk in Dolmabahçe in 1844 and moved to its new building in Pangaltı in 1847 (Yıldız, 2013, p. 65). After the establishment of the Imperial Military School was completed, some students were sent to Vienna, Paris, and London to receive European-style education (Mehmed Esad, 1895, p. 19). In addition, officers were brought from Europe to train students who could not go to Europe for education (Avcı, 1963, p. 28).

Colonel Mustafa Mazhar was appointed as the Commander Chef of the School. The school's staff was established by appointing officers of various ranks, from sergeants to colleagues, to carry out the education and training (Yarar, 2000, p. 254). Among those who wanted to be a soldier, students from a regular family, talented, well-mannered, and hardworking students were selected and recruited by the Military Academy. Since these students had received traditional madrasah education before, they were trained from scratch in the Military Academy.

However, with the modernization of education, students who wanted to enter the Military Academy first graduated with a diploma from a military high school that provided education at the primary education level, then they came to Istanbul and attended the Mekatib-i Askeriye-i Şahane Nezaret-i Celilesi (the Imperial School of Higher Military Training) and were offered military education at the secondary education level. Those who were successful after completing the military high school were able to enter the Military Academy (BOA, DH.MKT, 1944-54). It was important that the students were given medical examinations and smallpox vaccinations, as was taking exams, and receiving their diplomas while they were advancing in military schools or for their admission to the school. Students who had not been vaccinated against smallpox were not admitted to military schools without vaccination first (BOA, DH.MKT, 2530-37). It was deemed appropriate to enroll as many officers as there was a need for each year. In addition, if a student was thought to be unfit for military service after being accepted by the school, or if a student had anarchist ideas, that student was expelled (BOA, Y.MTV, 126-86).

The necessary books to be taught in the school were determined. Eight of the books could not be obtained from second-hand booksellers. Upon this, it was understood that among the books that were taken out of the Galatasaray library and taken to the Hagia Sophia-i Kebir and Fatih Mosque-i Şerîfi libraries, there might be books necessary for the Military School, and these books were procured (BOA, İ. DH, 60-2990). The books and course materials required for the military schools were not sent to the schools free of charge, and the materials were transferred by the military transport commission at their own expense. In addition, the textbooks taught in western military schools were also taught in Ottoman military schools. The book prepared by Baron Zastrovi, the first quartermaster of the First Regiment of the Prussian Army for fortification classes in military schools, was presented to the sultan (BOA, TS.MA.e, 590-1). With the supply of the books, new rifles had to be procured, both for the new army and for the practical lessons in the Military Academy. However, the small rifle shop at the Selimiye Barracks and the stalls at Tophane-i Amire could not meet the needs of the new army. Hence, weapons brought from Germany were used. Von Der Goltz, a German soldier who served in the Ottoman Empire, was effective in this as well (Ortaylı, 1981, p. 68).

When the Military Academy was opened, the students came without any education or without graduating from modern educational institutions, so primary, secondary, and high school first-class education was provided until 1851. The first eight years of the nine-year education were called "first school" and the ninth year was called "second school". Those who finished the first school, where literacy and catechism were taught, were entitled to study in the second school. In addition to science courses, such as geometry, physics, and astronomy, applied courses on military service were also given (Özcan, 1997, p. 116). After 1851, the education period of the Military School was reduced to four years, and then it was planned as three years (Yarar, 2000, p. 254). Curriculums were based on the programs of military schools in Europe. Along with the theoretical lessons, it was also given importance to give training lessons (BOA, İ. DH, 690-48181). Accordingly, the curriculum was as follows (BOA, Y. MTV, 226-51)

Table 2: Ottoman Military Academy Curriculum

First Year	Second Year	Third Year
Algebra	Mathematics	Resistance of Objects and Equilibrium and Material Management
Analytic Geometry	Numbers	French
French	Trigonometry	German
German	Geometry	(For artillerymen) Barrel and Bullet Manufacturing
(For artillerymen) Manufacturing Cannon Parts	Algebra	(For military engineers) Engineering Permanent Bridges and Projects
(For military engineers) Train Construction, Management and Project Design	French	(For military engineers) Stock and Car Manufacturing
Electricity	German	(For military engineers) Fort Construction and Project
Medical Operation	(For artillerymen) Operating War Battles	(For artillery men) Detailed Ballistics
-	Medical Operation	Medical Operation
-	-	Telegram

(BOA, Y. MTV, 1902- 226)

A manege building was built inside of the Military School for riding lessons for two thousand six hundred kese. (BOA, İ. MVL, 155-4447). In 1846, a sultan's office was established in the Military School and exams were given to the students during the sultan's visit period. A cafeteria and a gymnasium building were added by Abdülhamid II in 1887 (Türkmen, 2015, p. 161).

Ensuring discipline was also crucial in the school. Those who acted unethically were punished. Although these punishments varied according to the nature of the crime, for some crimes the permits were revoked, and for other crimes, students were suspended from the school for a while or permanently (BOA, Y, PRK.ASK, 27-50). The students who graduated from the Military School became officers who would serve in the army after an internship period. It was reported that graduate officers were immediately sent to the army units and began their duties with a salary of seven hundred twenty-two thousand twenty-one kurus (BOA, İ.HUS, 61-2). Graduate officers did not only serve in the army. If they did not want to leave their hometown, they were employed in a suitable job within their hometown. An inspection commission was also established to check whether military school graduates went to their assigned region (BOA, Y. PRK.KOM, 10-80). Salaries to be given to officers who graduated from

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military schools and were employed were also regularly monitored, and notifications were made regarding the payment of the required amount (BOA, İ. AS, 53-35).

Despite the innovations made in the Military School, Ottoman military training lagged many European military trainings. The Military School provided higher education and there was a need for military schools providing education at primary and secondary education levels. Furthermore, the importance of reforming the existing higher education schools, such as Mühendishane-i Bahr-i Hümayun (Imperial School of Naval Engineering) and Mühendishane-i Berr-i Hümayun (Imperial School of Military Engineering) and opening new schools to strengthen the Military School was understood. For this, the regulations in military training continued in the period of Mahmud II and later periods as well. Mahmud II opened the doors of the Tanzimat Reform Period (Reorganization Period), in which the Ottoman Empire would enter a new phase in its modernization, with the Supreme Court, which would carry out all of the innovations, and the Military Assembly, which would regulate the military reforms (Seyitdanlıoğlu, 1996, p. 24).

Significant improvement was seen in military training reforms in the Tanzimat Reform Period and then in the period of Abdülhamid II. Radical changes took place, especially in the period of Abdülhamid II. First, it was decided to establish military secondary schools, which would train students for military high schools and provide education at the primary level. Related to this, a general secondary school was opened under the name of Mahreç-i Mekatib-i Askeri in 1864, and in 1875, military secondary schools began to be opened across the empire (İlkin & Tekeli, 1999, p. 69). During the period of Abdülhamid II, many high schools were opened in the Baytar, Eyüp, Soğukçeşme, Beşiktaş, Fatih, Koca Mustafa Paşa, Toptaşı, and Bahriye districts of İstanbul. In the Rumelia, Anatolian, and Arab provinces of the Ottoman Empire, military high schools were opened, and the educational organization was moved to the provinces. In general, the Qur'an and Religious Sciences, Turkish, Arabic, Persian, French, Morals, Accounting, Geometry, Geography, History, Science of Goods, Health Sciences, Calligraphy, and Painting classes were taught in the military high schools (Ünal, 2015, p. 18).

It was decided to establish a military high school in each army center to open a school that would largely determine the students who would enter the Military School and provide education at the secondary level (Ergin, 1977, p. 426). Accordingly, military high schools were established in İstanbul and Bursa in 1846, in Edirne and Manastır in 1847, in Damascus in 1848, in Erzurum in 1873, and in Baghdad in 1876. In 1864, Idadi-i Umum-i Military was formed by merging the military high schools (İlkin & Tekeli, 1999, p. 68). In 1866, military high schools were partially transferred to Kuleli (Ergin 1977, p. 888). In 1897, four years of education were given in each military high school.

During this period, it was planned that military high schools would have have a boarding system. This system delayed the execution of many different services and the appointment of personnel to perform these services. Teacher positions were also largely also filled. Health personnel were also brought to a sufficient level (Çam, 1991,

p.90). In Kuleli, which was the İstanbul military high school, Geometry, Algebra, Geography, History, Inscription, Painting, Turkish, Arabic, Persian, Calligraphy, Building, and Spelling classes were taught (Özkat & Akça, 2007, p. 38). During the period of Abdülhamid II, courses such as Chemistry, English, Construction and Planning, Science, and Military Knowledge were added (Mızrakçı, 2017, p. 67). When the exams held in the military high schools in this period were examined, it was seen that in the Kuleli Military High School, which was located in İstanbul, two written exams and one oral exam were taken in an academic year, starting from 1872. To be able to move on to the next higher grade, it was expected that the students in the intermediate grades would reach a certain score in the average of the written and oral exams. As for senior students, the graduation grade was calculated by the total of the oral graduation exam, and the average of the written and oral exams taken during the academic year (Parmaksız, 2008, p. 68).

Later, a veterinary class providing veterinary education was established in the Military School. German veterinarian Godlewsky was summoned to teach veterinary training to the Ottomans. Veterinary students were taught courses such as veterinary law, medical law, animal science, agriculture, health information, and surgery (BOA, Y.MTV, 226-51). The veterinarian class, which followed a special program, was transferred to the Military Medical School in 1872. In the Republican era, it became completely civilized.

The Military Academy was one of the most important schools opened within the scope of the Ottoman military training reforms. In 1848, began its education and training activities within the scope of the Military School. This was a higher education institute where students graduated with the rank of major after completing two years of education after graduating from the Military School. The education period was planned as three years, with the students who successfully graduated from the Engineering School enrolling in this school (Unat, 1964, p.69). There were two different curricula in the Military Academy. The first part consisted of mathematics and science courses related to military service. In the second part, the main principles of mathematics related to military service and some important courses of science took place. Accordingly, the mathematics and science courses of the first part were as follows: Construction, War History, Offensive and Defense, Training, Tactics, Science, Bayonet and Sword Practice, Architecture, Bridge Construction and Repair, French, Field Artillery, Gymnastics, Railroad, Ballistics, and Engineering. In the second part, mathematics and science lessons were taught on Railway and Telegraph Construction, Big Machines, Algebra, Geometry, and Terrain (Avcı, 1963, p. 48-50; Yazar, 2000, p. 285).

The Military Medical High School was a high school opened during the period of educational reforms. Five years of education was given at the school. Accordingly, the courses taught in the first year were Philosophy, Chemistry of Metals, Geology, and French; those in the second year were Chemistry of Living, Plant Science, Anatomy, and French; in the third year were Chemistry of Human Vitality and Analysis, Zoology, Physiology, French; in the fourth year were Tissue Science, Surgery, General

Diseases, Hygiene, Medical Curriculum and Scientific Treatment, Surgery of Children and Elderly, and French; and in the fifth year were Diagnosis of Disease, Contagious Internal Diseases, Contagious External Diseases, Obstetrics, and Bacteriology, Clinical Instruction on Internal Medicine and External Medicine, Ear, Nose, Throat, Eye Diseases, and Dermatology (Ergin, 1977, p. 1199).

With the opening of the new schools, still functioning old military schools were also renovated. Mühendishane-i Bahr-i Hümayun (Imperial School of Naval Engineering), which was opened during the reign of Mustafa III, was also among the reformed higher education institutions. It was moved to Kalyoncu Barracks in Heybeliada in 1834. Later, on the ridge behind the shipyard, the mansion of Algerian Hasan Pasha, was purchased and a Naval Engineering House with a four hundred student capacity was built. This naval engineering house remained there until the Crimean War (Uzunçarşılı, 1984, p. 510; Yolalıcı, 2000, p. 658). The Naval Engineering Department consisted of two parts, as Mapping and Navigation and Shipbuilding. The necessary books were translated by bringing teachers from Europe for the school (Örenç, 2019, p. 399). Arithmetic, Geometry, Painting, and Ship Depictions, and how to apply the learned rules were taught at the school. Furthermore, applied lessons on the construction, repair, equipment, and arrangement of ships were given by visiting the Shipyard once a week (Kaçar, 2008, p. 72).

Mühendishane-i Berr-i Hümayun (the Imperial School of Military Engineering), opened by Selim III, was also reformed during the Tanzimat Reform Period. In 1848, efforts were made to reorganize the Engineering School as the Artillery Military School. High school classes were also opened, expanded, and arranged. In the last two years, students were divided into two branches, as artillery and architect (Unat, 1964, p. 59). With the new curriculum made in the second half of the 19th century, the Qur'an, Arabic, French, Painting, Geography, History of War, Geometry, Calculus, Algebra, Trigonometry, Cosmography, Topography, Sewer, Engineering, Drill, and Rules courses were taught at the school (Yarar, 2000, p. 243). Along with mental sciences, theoretical and practical lessons about the military profession took place in the schools, and foreign language lessons were also given importance. As can be seen, the establishment of modern military secondary schools, high schools, and higher education curricula, and the understanding of military service in the Ottoman Empire underwent major reforms.

Prussian Effects on Ottoman Military Training

The Ottoman Empire sought alliances after signing the Treaty of Karlowitz with the members of the Holy Alliance and Passarowitz with Russia (Reyhan, 2005, p. 218). Prussia had aimed to establish commercial relations with the Ottoman Empire since the reign of Friedrich I. However, the political and commercial relations between the Ottoman Empire and Prussia gained momentum during the reign of Friedrich II. After Friedrich II succeeded to the throne, he thought of making an alliance with the Ottoman Empire, which was at war with Austria and Russia, due to issues such as Russia's Swedish policies and the war with Austria (Beydilli, 1985, p. 18). King of Prussia sent an ambassador named Gottfried Fabian Haude from Silesia in the middle

of the XVIII century. He wanted to get information about the domestic and foreign policy of the Ottoman Empire with the duties he gave to the ambassador.

The ambassador was given the identity of Karl Adolf von Rexin from Pomeranian so that he would not be recognized (Kurtaran, 2015, p. 119). During of the Rexin ambassadorship, with the efforts of Grand Vizier Koca Ragıp Pasha, the Treaty of Friendship, Shipping, and Commerce was signed between the Ottoman Empire and Prussia on 2 April 1761 (Tansel, 1946, p. 163; Özaslan, 2018, p. 34). After the signed Treaty of Commerce, the Ottoman-Russian War broke out in 1768. Despite his best efforts, Friedrich II was unsuccessful in preventing this war. He remained neutral in order not to break the alliance with Russia after the war broke out (Köse, 2006, p. 19). In 1788, a new alliance was established through Von Diez, the Prussian ambassador in İstanbul. This alliance, which took place in the reign of Selim III, was also formed against the Austrian-Russian alliance (Şen, 2003, p. 30; Kurtaran, 2020, p. 129).

Ottoman-Prussian relations developed through political and commercial alliances made in the XVIII century. During these years, issues such as the lack of political unity in Prussia, the revolutions in France, and the unsuccessful attempts to modernize the army in the Ottoman Empire caused a delay in the Ottoman-Prussian training relations. Although people such as Colonel Von Goetze and Major General Von Knobelsdorf from Prussia visited the Ottoman Empire for the training of the Nizam-I Cedid army during the reign of Selim III, the French school was mostly based on the formation of the Nizam-ı Cedid (Turan, 2000, p. 168; Cantemir, 2019, p. 22). The Prussian influence on the Ottoman military training started in the period of Mahmud II and gained momentum in the period of Abdülhamid II.

Hüsrev Pasha stated in a biograph that he wrote to Mahmud II that a military school should be established in the style of Ecole Militaire in France (Özcan, 1997, p. 115). Although the school was established by taking the example of France, the Prussians were quite influential on the Ottoman military through their officers who visited the Ottoman Empire later and the changes that they brought about in the Ottoman military training. From this period, Prussian officers came to the Ottoman Empire for a century and made long contracts (Uyar & Güvenç, 2022, p. 92). Mahmud II requested officers from the Prussian embassy through Serasker Koca Hüsrev Pasha in 1835 for the training of the newly established Asakir-i Mansure-i Muhammediye Army. Prussia assigned Helmut von Moltke, who was in İstanbul at that time, to service the Ottoman Empire (Tızlak, 2019, p. 16). Later, Moltke was admitted to the presence of the Sultan. In this meeting, they talked in detail about the Prussian military system and Moltke's actions to carry out in the Ottoman military.

At the end of the meeting, the sultan presented the Order of Osmanieh to Moltke through Vassaf Efendi (Moltke, 1969, p. 86). During his stay in İstanbul, Moltke prepared a report that the provincial military organization in Prussia should also be established in the Ottoman Empire. Furthermore, he drafted plans and maps of important castles, passages, and straits of the Ottoman Empire (Beydilli, 2005, p. 268). According to Moltke, the general condition of the Turkish officers and the equipment of the troops were deficient. A complicated situation arose as the officers comes from

Europe wanted to organize the Ottoman army according to military system in their own country. In this direction, Moltke gave Hafız Pasha a memorandum contains his proposals, and he started the reform process in the Ottoman army (Wallach, 1985, p. 17). Moltke left the Ottoman Empire and returned to Prussia after the 1839 War of Nizip waged against Egyptian governor, Mehmed Ali Pasha. After Moltke, Prussian officers continued to serve for the Ottoman military. Some of these prominent names were Artillery officer Koczkawski, Captain Artillery officer Schwenzfeuer, and Artillery commander Stercka (Turan, 2000, p. 141).

Abdulhamid II asked Prussia to send a military delegation again in 1880 for army and military training reform. After extended discussions, Bismarck responded to this request. (Beydilli, 1979, p. 492). When the discussions were positive, a certain budget was prepared for the employment of officers from Prussia. The expenses of the officers were covered by Bank-ı Osmani (the Ottoman Bank) (BOA, Y.A.RES, 20-30). In 1882, four officers, named Colonel Kaehler, Infantry Captain Kamphövener, Artillery Captain von Hobe, and Captain Ristoui from the Dragon regiment were sent from Prussia to the Ottoman Empire. Kaehler started to work in the Ottoman Army with the rank of Mirliva (Major General), and later became Ferik (Lieutenant General) and rose to the position of aide-de-camp to the sultan (Ortaylı, 1981, p. 60). The salary Kaehler would receive during his stay in the Ottoman Empire was much higher than his salary in Prussia and was legally guaranteed (Alkan, 2012, p. 164). When Kaehler started the reform efforts for Ottoman army, he found that the training of the Military Academy was inadequate. He also stated that the school mostly taught to students the theories of various courses such as civil and mechanical engineering, ballistics, and geography but the practical part of the courses was insufficient. Moreover, he pointed that it was wrong to assign officers who graduated from the Military Academy without field experience (Uyar and Varoğlu, 2008, p. 187). After this progress, Colmar von der Goltz Pasha became a legend because he made radical changes in the actual Ottoman military training. Goltz Pasha was appointed to the Military Academy in 1883 with the advice of General Kaehler. His duty was extended three times and he served in the Ottoman Empire for twelve years (Triumpener, 1975, p. 5; Çalık, 1996, p. 773).

Goltz Pasha expressed his views on the military in his work entitled "Army Nation". This work was also taught as a textbook to students in military schools. In his work, he wrote that the war administration and military regulations depend on the general situation of the country while emphasizing that the morality of the soldiers should be strong (Goltz, 2016, p. 31). Goltz Pasha, who argued that every military arrangement should be in accordance with the nature of the nation, first prepared a report for the reforms that needed to be done and presented it to the sultan. While Goltz Pasha was preparing the report, he took the German Military Academy for the Military Academy, and Berlin Military Academy for the Staff School as an example (Erickson, 2001, p. 4; Wallach, 1985, p. 54).

In this report, he stated that the number of military service courses was less than the other courses in the Military Academy. Furthermore, breakfast should be served with tea and coffee before the morning classes, and that training courses should be

given after breakfast by making use of the morning hours. Moreover, he mentioned the importance of increasing the number and hours of military service in the Military Academy classes and putting the difficult lessons in the early hours of the morning (BOA, Y.PRK.KOM., 4-13). He also requested that field exercises should be done frequently in practice.

Goltz further wanted the physical punishments in Ottoman military training to be abolished (Turan, 2000, p. 153). After this report, the curricula of the Military School and Military Academy were changed. Many non-military courses were removed from the curriculum, and courses such as staff duties, weapons knowledge, war history, war art history, fortress battles, Ottoman army history, literature and history, army organization, strategic geography and statistics, and tactics in the field, as well as German and Russian were implemented into the curriculum (Akcan, 2015, p. 36; Turan, 2000, p. 149). Goltz Pasha specifically conducted the training courses himself. Along with Goltz Pasha, other Prussian officers were also present in the practical training courses (BOA,Y.PRK.ASK., 41-115; BOA,Y.PRK.ASK., 95-58). Goltz Pasha opposed officers who were lacking in military knowledge and rose through the ranks as a result of bribery and favor. He argued that those who graduated from the Military Academy should be employed with a higher rank. At the end of the 19th century, those who graduated from the Military High School were given the rank of junior, those who graduated from the Military School were given the rank of captain, and those who graduated from the Military Academy were given the rank of major (Ergin 1977, p. 888; Gülcü, 2019, p. 314).

Goltz Pasha introduced the students to the German Worldview (Weltanschauung) in the lectures he gave at the Military Academy in Istanbul. One of Goltz's important publications, *The Nation in Arms* in 1883, which contained a lot of information about the German worldview, was translated into Ottoman Turkish in 1884 and became a compulsory book in military schools (Grüßhaber, 2018, p. 11). After returning to Prussia in 1895, Goltz returned to the Ottoman Empire for Turkish-German alliance negotiations before the declaration of the Constitutional Monarchy in 1908 (Goltz, 2012, p. 11). He also came to the Ottoman Empire for the First World War and died in Iraq in 1916 (Ortaylı, 1981, p. 66). After Goltz Pasha, military delegations continued to visit the Ottoman Empire.

The officers who were influential in the proclamation of the Second Constitutional Period were mostly the students of the Military Academy, which Goltz Pasha reformed (Karabekir, 1993, p. 291). During the Second Constitutional Period, relations with Prussia advanced intensively. Firstly, Lieutenant von Hoh de Hettr, who retired from his service in the Prussian Army, was employed as a teacher in the Fifth Army with the rank of captain (BOA, İ. HB, 42-21). People such as Major von Lossow, Major Weiz, First Lieutenant Von Presying, and Staff Major Von Stempel were among those that came in the Constitutional Period (Turan, 2000, p. 169). The last military delegation from Prussia to the Ottoman Empire came with the mission chaired by Cavalry General Otto Liman von Sanders. Before the Sanders delegation started its work, it was brought under the control of the Ottoman General Staff and the German General Staff.

Enver Pasha was appointed as the Chief of the Ottoman General Staff. Bronsart von Schellendorf was appointed as the head of the Sander aid committee (Uyar, 2019, p. 49). The delegation that came before the First World War aimed to gather the Ottoman army, which was defeated in the Balkan Wars, and prepare it for the war (Uyar, 2021, p. 6; Tunç, 2018, p. 616).

The German influence in the Ottoman Empire was seen not only with the incoming officers and the German textbooks taught in the classes, but also with the German weapons used in the applied lessons and wars. The arrival of the German arms industry in the Ottoman Empire was due to the influence of Goltz Pasha (BOA, Y.PRK. TKM, 10-20). With the trade agreement between the Ottoman Empire and the German government, a regulation was prepared regarding the weapons to be imported by Germany to the Ottoman Empire (BOA, MV, 51-29). Financing for the arms purchase was mostly obtained from German Banks. Two banks in Germany became guarantors for the rifles to be purchased from the Mauser company (BOA, Y.PRK.HR, 10-23). Deutsche Bank also provided the loans. Another financing tool used in the purchase of arms was the fund created under the name of the Military Aid Fund (Kartepeter, 1991, p. 58; Tetik and Soyluer, 2013, p. 111). Accordingly, heavy artillery was purchased from the Krupp factories. Carbines, rifles, and ammunition were purchased from the Mauser/Loewe company (Ortaylı, 1981, p. 68). After Kaiser Wilhelm II's visit to the Ottoman Empire, the importation of weapons from Prussia to the Ottoman Empire increased and loads of orders were given from the Ottoman Empire. Before the Second Constitutional Period, 91 batteries of cannon and bullets, and other necessary items were purchased from the Krupp company for 1,967.634 Ottoman Liras and 7 kurus. Moreover, 670,000 rifles were purchased from the Mauser/Loewe company (Beşirli, 2004, p. 131–133).

It is seen that the German military delegation staffs such as Moltke, Kaehler, Goltz and Sanders had an enormous influence, especially in the nineteenth century, while the Ottoman Empire carried out the army and military education reform. This interaction has manifested itself not only in the military but also in the technological field (Aydın & Zorlu, 2015, p. 257).

Conclusion

In the process of modernization, some turning points were experienced for Europe. The wars that broke out at these turning points required the states to reform their army systems. Prussia and the Ottoman Empire were also affected by these political milestones and experienced a series of wars. They conducted army and military education reforms to gain superiority in these wars and to protect their territorial integrity. Prussia realized the army reform in the process of its political unity. Various commissions had been established to take and carry put relevant significant decisions for reforms. Furthermore, Prussia attempted conscription to strengthen its army of mercenaries such as Junkers and Huguenots. Local militias were formed from volunteers and uneducated people, mostly villagers at that process. Persons such as August Neidhardt von Gneisenau, General Scharnhorst, Hermann von Boyen, Clausewitz were among the important names who made crucial efforts to create and

develop paramilitary forces (Landwehr) composed of citizens. After the economic and political empowerment of Prussia, Bismarck, who was the Prussian prime minister, and Helmuth von Moltke, the Chief of the General Staff, and Roon, the Minister of War at the time, wanted to make radical changes in the Prussian army. They attempted to create an army composed of staff officers who graduated from the Military Academy rather than an untrained army of volunteers. With the General Staff became the core element of the Prussian army, Prussian political unity was achieved. On the other hand, an arrangement was made in military schools that meet the military needs of the army. While the Prussian military education was limited to the Gymnasium, which trained mostly non-commissioned officers, the Military Academies were established to train the officers who reached high ranks and the training curriculum was determined in this way.

With the efforts of Scharnhorst, a Military Academy was established in 1810 by taking model of France and the Netherlands as an example. The characteristic features of the students to be accepted for the Military Academy and course curricula were determined in this period. Foreign language, engineering and drawing courses were concentrated in the content of the curriculum. Students who wanted to apply to the school were admitted by passing serious exams and a strict discipline was applied in these schools. Thus, it was ensured that the students who entered to these schools graduated as well-educated and qualified officers. The Officers and statesmen such as Bismarck, Roon, Moltke, Scharnhorst, Yorcke, Boyen, Gneisenau made serious efforts in these reforms. Thanks to these efforts, compulsory military service was introduced in Prussia, powerful chain of command system was established, and the army was formed with well-trained officers. Thus, Prussia won an important victory against France in 1870. After the victory, political unity was achieved. Deficiencies of the army in these wars were determined and military regulations were continued. Thanks to these arrangements, the German army became one of the strongest armies in Europe until the First World War.

The Ottoman Empire also made its military reforms according to the Prussia army system. Although there were important efforts to modernize under the influence of France, the Ottoman Empire turned to the Prussian ecole after Prussia completed its political unity and proved its military power and France took side with Russia. Although the army reform efforts of the Ottoman Empire started in the eighteenth century, they could not be successful because of the opposite position of the Janissary Corps, which constituted most of the traditional army, and the conservative section. This situation began to reverse when Mahmud II strengthened his authority. Revolts against modernization were met with a harsher response, and reliable bureaucrats were placed in the government ranks.

Regular modernizations were achieved by establishing various commissions for reforms. As a result of this more controlled progress, the traditional army was abolished, and a modern western-style army was established. To train officers for the modern army, a military school was opened according to the requirements of the age. Modern military training in the Ottoman Empire started at the high school level. First

the Mühendishane-i Bahr-i Hümayun (Imperial School of Naval Engineering), and then the Mühendishane-i Berr-i Hümayun (Imperial School of Military Engineering) and the Mekteb-i Harbiye-i Şahane (Imperial of Military School) were opened. Veterinary school and Military Academy were established within the school. Later, the Mekteb-i Tıbbiye-i Askeriye (Military Medical School) trained physicians within the army were opened. After the higher education was organized, military high schools were opened at the secondary education level, and finally, military secondary schools were opened at the primary education level. The students to be admitted to the schools were meticulously selected, their course schedules were arranged, and their exams were held. Officers came from Europe to teach in the schools. Officers who graduated from the Military Academy were assigned to army centers.

Military schools in the Ottoman Empire were established by taking the example of the Royal Military School (Ecole Royale Militaire) in France. However, due to the changing political situations in the following periods, the Ottoman military schools were rearranged according to the Prussia, England, and Royal Military Schools of Austria. Especially during the reign of Abdulhamid II, with the intensification of political relations with Prussia in the 1880s, the Prussian military mission had a greater impact on Ottoman military education. The Military School was reorganized according to the Prussian Military School with the influence of the military delegations of Moltke, Kaehler and Goltz Pasha during their visits in Ottoman Empire. The curriculum was reconstructed according to the statements prepared by Goltz Pasha according to the Prussian Military School. Several practical courses on military service have been increased and German as a foreign language has been added to the curriculum. Books, course tools and equipments and weapons used by the military personal were brought from Prussia.

Ottoman Army War College (Erkan-ı Harbiye) was also established with the effect of France. This college was established by taking the example of the Headquarters Practice School (L Ecole Dapplication Detat-Major) in France, which provides two years of academic education after the Military Academy. However, in line with the developing military education relations with Prussia, the school was reorganized according to the programs of the Military Academy in Prussia. Since France and the Ottoman Empire were ruled by a monarchy, the military schools here were established as royal military schools. After the French Revolution, with the loss of power of the monarchies, the term "Royal" in the European Military Schools was gradually removed and the military schools here also underwent a transformation. Likewise, the word "Şahane", which was the imperial expression in the Ottoman military high schools, was abolished with the Republican era in Turkey.

In Prussia, the situation seems different. Since the Prussian Military School was established after the French Revolution, it has a more independent structure. In the curriculum of the school, religious courses are not taught as in other European military schools. Relevant religion courses about Islam are taught in military schools in the Ottoman Empire and they are included in the curriculum. Courses such as Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, History, Geography and Geometry taught in the

Prussian Military School were also included in the Ottoman State military schools. However, it has been observed that theoretical and practical courses on military service were taught more intensively in Prussian military schools. In addition, while it was necessary to pass hard exams to join the Prussian military schools, even illiterate students were admitted to the military schools in the Ottoman Empire. Because high and secondary schools were established before primary and secondary education in the Ottoman Empire.

In Europe, it was necessary to finish lower-level schools before entering higher schools. From the second half of the XIX century, the Ottoman Empire tried to find solution to this situation and organized the Military Academy and military high schools and demanded a diploma from these schools while entering the Military, Medical and Naval Schools. The military delegations led by Moltke, Kaehler, and Goltz Pasha created significant differences in the Ottoman military system especially from XIX century. The understanding of military service, training curriculum and applied courses underwent radical changes. Especially to get rid of the devastating effect of the 1877-1878 Russo-Turkish War against Russia, Abdülhamid II gave more importance to cooperation with Prussia. Goltz Pasha, who came during this period, served for the Ottoman military. As a result of the military education reforms he made, he established the Army-Nation mentality and ensured that the education was higher quality and more efficient. The military delegation headed by Liman von Sanders, which came to the Ottoman Empire before the First World War, was the last Prussian delegation.

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