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JOINT CABINET CRISIS

STUDY GUIDE

SULEIMAN'S MARCH ON VIENNA

The Ottoman-Habsburg War in Central Europe (1526)



LETTER FROM THE DIRECTORS

Hello and welcome to the SGMUN 2018 crisis Study Guide.

On behalf of the entire crisis team we would like to welcome you to the SGMUN Crisis experience. We are pleased to announce the topic for this year's conference will be 'The Ottoman-Habsburg War in Central Europe' and hope you enjoy participating in such a pivotal period of history as much as the team did while working hard to ensure this crisis would be a success.

This welcome is extended to crisis 'veterans' just as it is to fresh faces. For experienced crisis people, we hope the intricacies of the historical aspects of fractured nobility politics in Central Europe and Balkans will give you a different crisis experience, where you are forced to think local instead of straight out showing off your big powers on the battlefield.

As for first-timers and those new to Crisis, we are preparing a great experience for you to enjoy, and hope this will be an amazing experiment that you can take with you in your (hopefully) future crisis to come, as a gateway to many other Crisis and its intricate world-building, especially if you are also interested in joining a crisis staff some time soon!

We all sincerely wish and believe you will have an enjoyable time with us if it is your first time or your ninety first time.

The team has been specially selected based on their abilities and, like you all have a large spectrum of experience and background. The staff you will meet at SGMUN 2018 are all more than happy to answer any questions or queries which you may have, before or during the conference.

You will meet the staff in good time but until then from all of us, welcome to the SGMUN 2018 Crisis!

Best regards,
Arkan Diptyo and Ben Bolton

Your SGMUN 2018 Crisis Directors



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INTRODUCTION TO CRISIS

Unlike other committees in MUN, Crisis gives you the possibility of stepping into the shoes of important statesman within history's many inflection points. Instead of representing countries delegates are assigned an important historical character from the era of the topic throughout the sessions. Here you will not only be expected to be diplomatic and produce legislations/resolutions, but also to act on the ever-changing political landscape through so-called personal directives, using the initial resources given such as budget, army, or agents and building them up through time. All coordinating with your government cabinet together in face of the opposition. At the same time, delegates also have the opportunities to use these personal directives not only to further their own cabinet's goals, but also to build up their own personal power and probably change the course of history. Chairs in Crisis also engages in the roleplaying as the figureheads of the respective sides/governments. This is intended to make sure beginner delegates have a figure they can consult to regarding how to advance their directives as well as the narrative of their own characters they are representing. The personal directives as well as committee works are then processed by the crisis backroom staff, who will continuously churn out results and consequences of these actions (e.g. battles, royal marriages, coup d'états) in news updates and theatrical acts. This cycle will continue to proceed forward until the last day of session where a conclusion (or sometimes, non-conclusion) of this alternate historical timeline would be reached.

Beginning on the 29th of August 1526 at the Battle of Mohacs, this crisis will explore the conflict and rivalry between two great empires fighting for dominance, religion and land. With semi-independent territories held by the two great empires delegates will be forced to focus not only on state rivalries but also on maintaining stability in their own lands.

The Osmanoglu dynasty has well and truly asserted their dominance in the European war theatre and show no signs in slowing their rapid expansion subjugating and enveloping Christian lands into their own Sunni Empire. Ottoman fleets were a vital component to their military prowess and before long Europeans saw the Ottoman Imperial fleet surpass trading republics such as Venice and Genoa, previously thought to have sole domination over the mediterranean and black seas. Ottoman invasion of the Venetian islands of Rhodes, Crete and Malta had asserted their power in controlling trade through the Mediterranean, forcing merchants in the Adriatic and the cote d'Azur to bow to their demands. Never before had european nations been so outraged and united against a common foe, as for both newly reformed protestant and traditional catholic nations the Ottomans were a threat to not only their trade, but also entire belief system.

For this reason, it was only natural that the Habsburg empire seated in Vienna, the bastion of the Catholic faith in Central Europe, was the clear defender against the Turkish menace.



HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

OTTOMAN EMPIRE IN THE BALKANS AND IN CENTRAL EUROPE AFTER 1453

After Mehmed II came to power in 1453, the Ottomans established the Danube as the empire's northern border. Mehmed's policy did not only include the defence against foreign states intruding, but also to annex already existing foreign states south of the Danube. The main challenge for the Ottomans was to push back growing Hungarian influence. After Serbia seized the Kruševac region (modern central Serbia) with the aid of Hungary in 1451, and after the Hungarian forces forced Mehmed II to abandon the siege of Belgrade in 1456, the Ottomans retaliated with four campaigns leading up to the conquest of Serbia in 1459. In 1461, the Hungarians support Wallachia in their attack on the Ottomans. Soon after, Mehmed the Conqueror retaliated by invasion of Wallachia. (Inalcik, 2013)

Additionally, to the traditional states in the Balkans, the Ottomans also faced the threat of the Venetians in the region of Albania and Morea (Southern Greece). While Albania was conquered between 1464 and 1478, Morea came under Ottoman rule after two campaigns in 1458 and 1460. (Inalcik, 2013)

The Ottoman conquest of Bosnia started already in the end of the 14th century. It was also affected by the arrival of fleeing Serbs in the 1430s. In 1451, the Ottomans capture Sarajevo. By 1463, much of the rest of Bosnia fell under Ottoman rule, Herzegovina followed by 1481. (Carmichael, 2015) Under Selim I, the Ottoman Empire expanded mainly in the South, acquiring Syria in the Middle East and Egypt in northern Africa. (Imber, 2002)

Suleiman the Magnificent, son of Selim I and grandson of Mehmed II, continued the legacy of his grandfather, preparing the conquest of Belgrade in 1520. Without the help from the side of Hungary, Serbia fell in 1520. In the following years, Suleiman the Magnificent captured Buda and occupied Transylvania. (Imber, 2002) The Battle of Mohács marked the end of the Hungarian middle ages and parted the kingdom of Louis II among the Ottomans and the Habsburgs as well as the Principality of Transylvania.

CONSERVATION OF POWER OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE OVER ITS SUBJECTS IN THE BALKANS AND CENTRAL EUROPE

In the 15th century, the Ottoman Empire expanded both in Anatolia and the Balkans. The rapid expansion of the Empire led to the incorporation of vast territories. Mehmed II mainly relied on non-Turks with family connections. Not only did this facilitate the territorial incorporation, it also made Mehmed II less dependent on Ottoman nobility. Marriage to Ottoman princesses assured the loyalty. (Isom-Verhaaren, 2014) In some cases, Mehmed removed local dynasties by sending them to remote areas and by paying them pensions in order to keep them from collaborating with enemy forces. (Inalcik, 2013) Blood tributes or blood taxes (so called *Devşirme*) were used to not only to exercise power over non-muslim subjects, but also to have a large reserve of military force in the form of Janissaries. Separated from their families between the age of 8 and 10, christian boys were converted to islam and raised to serve the Ottoman Empire. (Dyer, 1861)



TIMELINE

1451: MEHMED II ASSUMES POWER OVER THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE AFTER THE CONQUEST OF CONSTANTINOPLE

Mehmed II previously ruled the Ottoman Empire from 1444 to 1446.

1454-1459: CONQUEST OF SERBIA

1454: Campaign against Serbia because Đurađ Branković refuses to send tribute and has allied with the Kingdom of Hungary

1456: Unsuccessful Siege of Belgrade made the Ottoman army retreat

1458: Death of Đurađ Branković destabilised Serbia

1460: Capture of Smedervo, last free city of Serbia

1456-1475: INVASION OF WALLACHIA

1461: Vlad III Dracul impales Turkish Ambassador

1462: Night Attack at Târgoviște after refusal of payment of taxes

1476: Wallachia becomes a Vassal of the Ottoman Empire

1475-1476: WAR AGAINST MOLDAVIA

1475: Mehmed II orders the invasion of Moldavia

1476: The Ottomans, supported by Wallachia, Crimea and the Tartars retreat after the Hungarians helped Stephan III of Moldavia

1386-1463: CONQUEST OF BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

1388: Battle of Biléca

1389: Battle of Kosovo

1392: Establishment of Skopsko Krajište after the capture of Skopje, governed by Ottoman Administration.

1451: Capture of Sarajevo

1463: Death of Stephan II, last sovereign King of Bosnia.

1481: Fall of the last Herzegovinan fortress

1482: Conquest of the Duchy of Saint Sava

1464-1479: CONQUEST OF ALBANIA

1385: Ottomans march into Albania, Battle of Savra

1420: Some Albanian principalities become vassals of the Ottoman Empire

1468: Death of Skanderberg, national hero of Albania. Declared a holy war against the Turks in 1443 after converting from Islam to Roman Catholicism

1478: Fall of Krujë after three sieges

1479: Fall of Shkodër after two sieges

1481: BAYEZID II ASSUMES POWER OVER THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

Standstill and internal conflict between Sultan Cem and Bayezid II

1484: Bayezid II signs a peace treaty with Hungary

1498: Zeta (Macédonia) was conquered

1512: Selim I assumes power over the Ottoman Empire

1520: Suleiman I assumes power over the Ottoman Empire

1521: Conquest of Belgrade (Suleiman I) from the Hungarian Kingdom

1526: Battle of Mohács, death of Hungarian King Louis II



Figure 1: the expansion of the Ottoman Empire between 1481 and 1683. Source: The Historical Atlas by William R. Shepherd, 1923 - Courtesy of The General Libraries, The University of Texas at Austin

CENTRAL EUROPEAN ROYALTIES

HOUSE OF HABSBURG

The ambitions of the Habsburg truly began in the 11th and 12th centuries. At that point, the Habsburg had been a minor but influential house in the region of Swabia in south-western Germany. What the Habsburg did possess, however, were key positions at the entrances of the Alps where the profitable toll posts allowed the House to amass considerable wealth.

In 1273, the Prince-Electors of the Holy Roman Empire elected the Count to the rank of King in hopes that he would use his wealth to bring order to an Empire that had been without a ruler for over two decades (Rady 2017, 19). As King of the Germans, Rudolf could have been crowned as Emperor had he travelled to Rome, yet the Habsburg ruler was more interested in containing his primary rival to the east, King Ottokar of Bohemia. The latter had been opposed to Rudolf’s election and, despite his best attempts, had been unable to rouse up opposition against the Habsburg (Wheatcroft 1995, 23).

Their rivalry would escalate when the King of Bohemia would refuse to back down from his claim to the Duchies of Austria and Styria, which had been seized by Bohemia when the line of the previous rulers had gone extinct (Wheatcroft 1995, 24). In August 1278, the two Kings would meet in battle on the shores of the Danube and the confrontation would end with the



defeat of the Bohemian forces and the death of Ottokar (Rady 2017, 19). Popular for the remainder of his reign, Rudolf of Habsburg would die in 1291 at the age of seventy-three. Despite having been functionally illiterate and starting as a count, in twenty years the Habsburg ruler had been able to make his dynasty into one of the most influential families in Germany and consolidate a rich and powerful holding in Austria (Wilson 2016, 427).

The success of the dynasty after Rudolf's death would cause many former supporters to back down out of fear of another powerful and influential family ruling over the Empire. Rudolf's son, Albert had not been elected as King of the Germans before or directly after his father's death. Adolf of Nassau was instead chosen but would later prove to be a terrible option, causing the electors to depose him. Albert would go on to be elected in 1298. The Habsburg ruler was even more ambitious and ruthless than his father – with dreams to gain the thrones of Hungary, Bohemia and even France. Such ambitions would fall through in 1308, with Albert's assassination at the hands of his nephew (Wheatcroft 1995, 35). The subsequent elected candidate was not Frederick, Albert's eldest son, but Henry, Count of Luxemburg (Wheatcroft 1995, 35). It would be 130 years before another Habsburg would be elected to the throne.

Despite losing their position at the head of the Holy Roman Empire, the Habsburgs did not stay idle. In 1358 Duke Rudolf IV of Austria forged a document that claimed that the Habsburg gained their legitimacy and authority from Julius Caesar and Emperor Nero (Wheatcroft 1995, 45). The Privilegium maius elevated the Duchy of Austria to an Archduchy with semi-regal authority, superior to other Imperial Princes, and just underneath to the Emperor alone (Wilson 2016, 429). For the better part of the 14th century, the Archdukes of Austria would remain close to the ruling Emperors, securing alliances through marriages.

A century's worth of planning and repressed ambitions bore their fruits during the reign of Emperor Sigismund of Hungary, elected in 1411. Sigismund was from the House of Luxemburg, which had been closely intertwined with the Habsburgs through marriages. The Emperor, however, did not particularly trust the Austrian House (Wheatcroft 1995, 63). His disdain was not for all Habsburgs, as his son-in-law Albert V of Austria was held in high esteem and was treated like a son by Sigismund. This trust would lead Sigismund to choose the young Habsburg as his successor right before his death in December 1437. In 1438, Albert would be elected as King of the Romans, crowned as King of Hungary and elected as King of Bohemia. Accomplishing a feat that Habsburgs had dreamed of for the past one and a half centuries. This would not last long, as Albert would die of illness on his way back from campaigning against the Ottomans in Hungary but a year after his coronation.

Despite losing Hungary and Bohemia, the Habsburgs managed to retain the title of King of the Romans and have Frederick III be the first Habsburg to be crowned Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire. Frederick's reign was long and filled with both great successes and terrible failures (Wheatcroft 1995, 70). He was able to get his son, Maximilian, to be elected as King of the Romans and then as Emperor following Frederick's death in 1493. Maximilian's reign started an exponential rise for the Habsburgs. His rule saw the Habsburgs dominions spread to



Burgundy, with marriages in Spain that would set the Habsburg to inherit the Kingdoms of Castile and Aragon.

When Maximilian died in 1519, the Habsburg Empire encompassed Spain, the Dutch and Belgian Lowlands and Austria. Charles V, Maximilian's grandson, inherited all these titles and the position of Emperor. He would give the title of Archduke of Austria to his younger brother, Ferdinand I, who would focus most of his efforts in keeping the cohesion between the German princes as well as fighting off the Ottoman advance in Hungary (Wheatcroft 1995, 71). Ferdinand was the brother in law of Louis II, King of Hungary and Bohemia. When the latter died at the Battle of Mohacs with no successor in 1526, Ferdinand was elected King of Bohemia and Hungary, once again bringing the two Kingdoms under the control of the Habsburgs, but not without opposition in both Hungary and abroad.

HOUSE OF JAGIELLONIA

The Jagiellonian dynasty began with the union between the Grand Duke of Lithuania, Władysław II Jagiełło, and the 'King' of Poland, Jadwiga of Anjou in 1386. Jadwiga was the eldest daughter of Louis the Great, King of Hungary and Poland, and had been elected as 'King' by the powerful Polish nobility. The Polish court opened negotiations with Lithuania and offered to make him King upon marrying Jadwiga and converting to Catholicism. The union between the two realms would put the Jagiellonian dynasty in an advantageous position militarily and diplomatically that would enable the house to influence neighbouring countries to a much larger extent than before. Most importantly the Kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia.

Jagiellonian expansion reached a peak with the rise of young Vladislaus III of Poland. With the death of Albert von Habsburg, Imperial hold over Hungary and Bohemia had faltered. Additionally, the mounting threat of the Ottomans convinced nobles from the two Kingdoms to overrule the will of Albert and instead elect Vladislaus of Poland as King in 1440 (Molnár and Magyar, 2001, 61). Vladislaus promised to lead a crusade against the Ottomans in exchange for noble and Papal support. The Battle of Varna in 1444 however, was a disastrous defeat with Vladislaus dying and leaving both Bohemia and Hungary without Kings, with the Jagiellonian dynasty keeping Poland-Lithuania under Casimir IV.

By the 1460s, the Jagiellonians gained the allegiance of George of Poděbrady, King of Bohemia. George of Poděbrady had been elected for his tolerance and pro-nobility tendencies during the Hussite religious crisis at the time. Poland-Lithuania had supported the Bohemian King in his attempts to fight their main rival in Hungary, the competent and belligerent Matthias Hunyadi, and the Catholic nobles in Moravia. In exchange for this support, George of Poděbrady offered to make Vladislaus Jagiellon – the son of King Casimir IV of Poland-Lithuania – his successor to the throne of Bohemia. With George of Poděbrady's death in 1471, Vladislaus was elected by the Bohemian nobles after swearing that he would honour the freedoms of the realm's estates. Matthias Hunyadi however, also proclaimed himself King of Bohemia with Papal support since Vladislaus had been predominantly elected by heretical Hussites. Frederick III Habsburg as Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire contested Matthias



and gave his approval for Vladislaus' coronation and made him a prince-elector. What followed for the next twenty years was a confusing and drawn-out conflict between Vladislaus of Bohemia, Matthias Hunyadi of Hungary and Frederick von Habsburg of Austria, in which all three parties constantly shifted alliances and broke multiple treaties and truces.

This would all end with the death of Matthias Hunyadi in 1491 and would open the floodgates for claimants to the throne of Hungary. There were four individuals that claimed the throne. John Hunyadi, the illegitimate son of Matthias, supported by the southern barons and counts of Hungary; Maximilian von Habsburg – citing a previous treaty from 1463 in which the Habsburg were intended to inherit the Kingdom of Hungary following Matthias' death; Vladislaus Jagiellonia claimed it through his mother, who was the sister of Matthias' predecessor, however his father Casimir supported Vladislaus' brother John Albert – as he wished the two brothers to have separate realms.

Vladislaus was ultimately elected by the majority of the Hungarian nobles, due to his reputation as a King that honoured the liberties of the nobility and the power of the Bohemian Diet (Sugar, Sugar, Hanák & Frank 1990, 76). What followed was a set of campaigns in which Vladislaus would consolidate his rule by defeating his rivals in battle. His rule would be littered with successful attempts by the nobility of both Hungary and Bohemia to curb the powers of the royalty, something which would haunt Vladislaus' son and successor, Louis II (Sugar, Sugar, Hanák & Frank 1990, 77). The latter inherited the thrones in 1516 with his father's death. Regional diets in Hungary had effectively cut the power of the monarch and would play a large role in creating an obvious enough weakness for the Ottomans to invade Hungary in 1521 and 1526 (Sugar, Sugar, Hanák & Frank 1990, 77). During the second invasion, Louis II would attempt and fail to defeat the Ottomans on the field at Mohacs, culminating with his death and the election of Ferdinand von Habsburg as King of Hungary as his successor.

LOCAL NOBILITIES

Local nobilities in the lands where the house of Habsburg ruled were privileged groups of people, members of aristocracy, who were mostly land owners, military commanders or other notable members of their communities. Since there were numerous noble families throughout the Middle Ages and also later in the 16th century we will mention only some of the most famous houses for each of these lands.

Bohemia

Jeszensky family: In 1274 this family gained nobility by serving king Ladislaus IV of Hungary bravely, and got the village of Jeszent in Túróc county. The representative of this house, Ladislaus Jesenský, died in 1526 during the Battle of Mohács. After that, all Jesenský property was confiscated by the advancing Ottomans, so brothers Melchior, Lorenz and Balthasar Jesenský moved to Silesia.



Kolowrat family: this noble family had a prominent role in the history and administration of their native Kingdom of Bohemia as well as the Holy Roman Empire and later the Habsburg Monarchy as high-ranking officials and supporters of the Czech National Revival.

Rosenberg family: this house was a very important and influential noble family in Bohemia, playing an important part in Bohemian medieval history all around from the 13th century until 1611. Family members of Rosenberg's held positions at the Imperial Royal Court and were important members of the society in Bohemia.

Hungary

Báthory family: one of the most famous Hungarian noble families. The family rose to quite significant influence in Central Europe during the late Middle Ages, holding powerful military, ecclesiastical and administrative positions in the Kingdom of Hungary. In the early modern period, the family brought forth several Princes of Transylvania and one King of Poland and Grand Duke of Lithuania.

Hunyadi family: one of the most important and the most powerful families in Hungary during the 15th century. John Hunyadi, who has been a talented military commander, became the first member of the family to acquire the status of "true baron of the realm". He was appointed for Ban of Severin in 1439, and Voivode of Transylvani in 1441. Besides that, he was also granted the title Perpetual Count of Beszterce in 1452, thus receiving the first hereditary title created in the Kingdom of Hungary. His son, Matthias Corvinus, was King of Hungary from 1458 until 1490, King of Bohemia from 1469 until 1490, and Duke of Austria from 1487 until 1490.

Rákóczi family: this noble house was a Hungarian family in the Kingdom of Hungary between the 13th century and 18th century. The family originated from the Bogátradvány clan which had Bohemian roots. The foundations for the family's wealth and power were laid down by Sigismund Rakoczi. A few decades later, during the 17th century they became the wealthiest noble house of Hungary.

Croatia

Frankopan family: the Frankopan family was a Croatian noble family, whose members were among the great landowners and high officers of the Croatia during the personal union with Hungary. The Frankopan family was one of the leading Croatian noble family from 12th to 17th century. Since the 15th century they were trying to link themselves to the Roman patrician Frangipani family in order to prove their ancient Roman nobility status.

Pejačević family: the Pejačević is an old Croatian noble family, known during the period in history marked by the Ottoman war in the Kingdom of Croatia and Austro-Hungarian Empire. Notable members of the family were politicians, clerics, artists, senior military officers, Bans of Croatia and other high officials of the state. They were very influential in the political, social, economic and cultural life of the country, especially in the Slavonia region.



Zápolya family: a noble family in the Kingdom of Hungary in the second half of the 15th century and in the early 16th century. A member of the family, John Szapolyai, was King of Hungary between 1526 and 1540, but he only ruled the central and eastern parts of the kingdom, because many Hungarian lords and prelates supported his opponent, Ferdinand of Habsburg. The first known member of the family was one Ladislaus Vajdafi Szapolyai, who was a Slavonian nobleman. His eldest son, Emeric, was the first member of the family to achieve the status of "true baron of the realm" when Matthias Corvinus, King of Hungary, appointed him high treasurer in 1459 or 1460.

Romania, Wallachia, Moldova

Drăculești: one of two major rival lines of Wallachian voivodes of the House of Basarab, the other being the Dănești. These lines were fighting for the throne from the late 14th to the early 16th century. Descendants of the line of Drăculești would eventually come to dominate this principality until its unification with Transylvania and Moldavia by Mihai Viteazul in 1600. The line of the Drăculești began with Vlad II Dracul. He was the son of one of the most important rulers of the Basarab dynasty, Mircea cel Bătrân. The name Drăculești is derived from the membership of Vlad II Dracul, "the Drago in the Order of the Dragon which was founded in 1408.

Racoviță: a family of Moldavian and Wallachian boyars which gave the Danubian Principalities several hospodars, becoming influential within the Ottoman Empire. Their ancestors became boyars under Alexandru Lăpușneanu. The family was partially Hellenized. One of its branches remained present inside Romania. By the 17th century, the family was one of the leading families in the region.

Old/ Extinct Christian Serbian and Bosnian Nobility

Nemanjići: the most important noble house and later dynasty of Serbia in the Middle Ages. The royal and imperial house produced eleven Serbian monarchs between 1166 and 1371. Its progenitor was Stefan Nemanja, who descended from a cadet line of the Vukanović dynasty (1101–1166). After Nemanja, all monarchs used Stefan as a personal name, a tradition adopted for the royal pretensions. The monarchs began as Grand Princes, and with the crowning of Stefan Nemanjić in 1217, the realm was promoted to a Kingdom, and also the Serbian Orthodox Church was established. In 1346, Stefan Dušan was crowned for the Emperor of the Serbs and Greeks. With the death of Uroš the Weak in 1371, the fall of the Serbian Empire was ensured since he didn't have any children.

Kosača family: a Bosnian medieval noble family which ruled over parts of modern Bosnia, Dalmatia (Croatia), Old Herzegovina (western Montenegro) and Raška (southwestern Serbia), between the 14th century and the 15th century. The land they controlled was known as Hum, roughly corresponding to today's region of Herzegovina, which Stjepan Vukčić Kosača adopted in 1448. The family ruled as vassals to several states, including the Kingdom of Bosnia and Ottoman Empire. Kosača family members belonged to the Bosnian Church, Catholic Church and Serbian Orthodox Church.



Lazarević family: a Serbian medieval royal family, which ruled Moravian Serbia and the Serbian Despotovina. The dynasty began with Lazar Hrebeljanović, son of Pribac Hrebeljanović-a noble at the court of Dušan the Mighty, emperor of Serbia. Lazar married Milica, who was a member of the reigning Nemanjić dynasty, and was later given the title of the Duke by Serbian Emperor Uroš the Weak. He gained lands in Central Serbia and through his ties with the Nemanjić family he became the regent of Moravian Serbia. In the Battle of Kosovo against the Ottoman Empire, Lazar was killed and Serbia became a vassal state, which marked the end of Serbia independence.

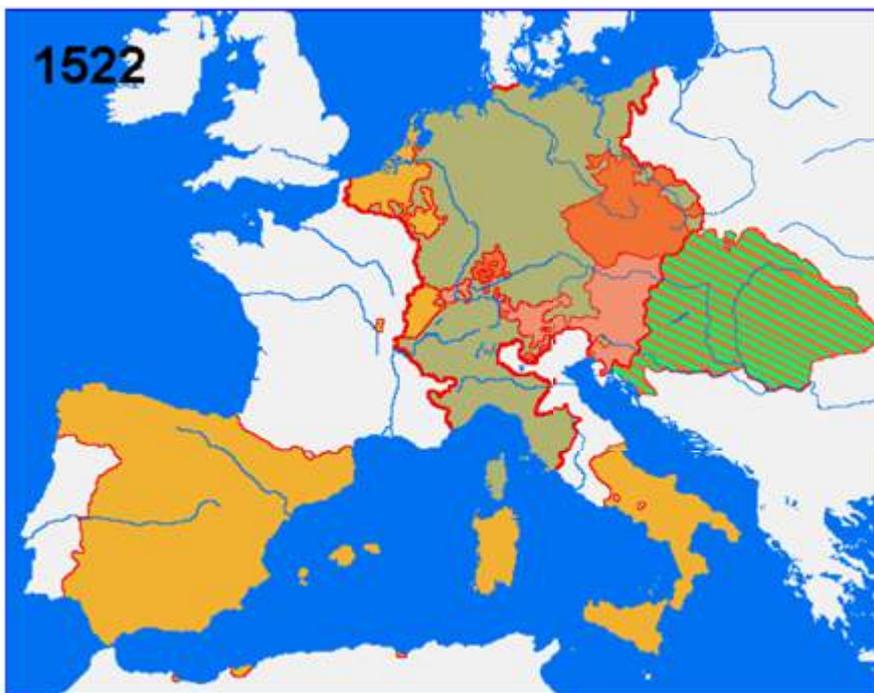
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CRISIS SITUATION

STARTING INCIDENT: BATTLE OF MOHACS & ITS AFTERMATH (1526)

The battle of Mohacs and the beginning of Suleiman's march on Europe was marked by the history of the monarchs and alliances in central Europe in the decades before. The reign of Vladislaus II had been marked by nobility interference in national politics, immensely lowering their taxes and weakening the defences. As such Hungary found itself with the power divided among regional governors, all members of the high nobility, each with his own army. However, the most immediate cause for the invasion was the marriage of King Louis II of Hungary with Mary of Austria, daughter of Philip of Castile and sister of Charles V (elected emperor of the Holy Roman Empire) both part of the Habsburg dynasty in 1522. This united the Habsburg with the Hungarian Crown challenging the Ottoman rule over the Balkans. 4 years after the marriage, in the aftermath of the 4 years war and a refusal by Louis



II of peace treaty after a small ottoman force took Belgrade uncontested, in 1521, the Ottomans invade.

Suleiman's army marched through the Balkans without much opposition. The Hungarian novelty had ignored the call for troops by Louis and took them long to gather up an army.

The two armies met in Mohacs; the Ottoman army (35.000-50.000 men) [DlcMM1] defeated the Hungarians (25.000-30.000 men), suffering minimal casualties while more than 14.000 Hungarian troops died, including about 1.000 nobles and the King Louis II. The Ottomans then pillaged the undefended Buda and "withdrew" from Hungary.

The battle of Mohacs meant a profound change in Hungary. The remaining nobles and princes find themselves open to the Ottoman invasion, with no central army to protect them. There is



an urgent need for a king, someone that can protect them, that may mean choosing Ferdinand the I, Louis brother in law and brother of the aforementioned Charles V; or maybe allying with the Ottomans as they pursue control over central Europe.

POLITICAL SYSTEMS AND TENSIONS

OTTOMAN MERITOCRACY AND REGIONAL GOVERNORS

The Ottoman Empire underwent a great expansion during the late middle ages. This expansion was, in part thanks to the principles that the society was based on, which also came to be the biggest obstacles they had to overcome.

The society is better understood through the figure of the sultan, the head of the state and always a member of the Othman/Osmanoglu family. He was seen, as an agent of god and the purpose of the empire was to increase his possessions, which also satisfied the need to expand the Islamic faith as his interest were the same as the one of god. On exchange the state would dispense justice and safety to the “rayah”. The rayah were the small ruling class that were under the protection of the sultan; it was formed by both Muslims and non-Muslims although the latter could not join the sultan’s immediate circle (unless they converted). The sultan was chosen from the sons of the sultan based on their merits and all brothers were killed to prevent a civil war. The Othman family was the only exception in a non-inheritance- based society.

Under the ottomans, ownership of the land was only meant to be temporary, the sultan granted usufruct over the land that could not be inherited, although usually the children were granted the same usufruct rights. The non-inheritance, combined with the ottomans being tolerant with other religions, such as orthodox and Jewish populations meant that everyone could climb the ladder based on their merits.

Ottomans used the “devshirme”, a system that used slavery to seek out talent. When men for the military were needed, kids from non-Muslim families were taken as slaves for the sultan and converted to Islam. It granted them the opportunities to climb the ranks; the most capable of them were educated in law, sciences, foreign languages etc. and came to reach positions as local governors and the sultans immediate ruling circle. It was so contested that some families (even non-Muslim) bribed the officials to take their kids with the hopes that they would land in a high position. As a solemn duty to the Sultan and the Islam they were to take part in the expansion of the empire, which consequently lead to the recruitment of more kids, thus restarting the cycle.

Military practices became essential for the ottoman State, especially during the time of Suleiman. As the empire rapidly expanded, it was easy to recruit new members for the devshirme; combined with military pilgrims (“ghazi”) to come from Asia minor to participate in wars with the hope of being granted usufruct over land, satisfied the growing need for an army. The growing land satisfied their ideological need of expanding islam and help the ottomans, as they incorporated some of the institutions from their acquired territories, like the byzantine tax system. However, the ever-growing territory posed new challenges for the administration of the land.

In the ottoman empire everything had to be centralised under the figure of the Sultan; this meant that all the regions were under his rule; it was then for the grand Vizier to nominate all high officers of state including the regional governors. The main subdivision of the territory was the eyalet or province, it later divided into sanjak and then kaza; the borders were imprecise as they continuously changed (especially during this period). At the beginning of the 16th century there were 8 eyalet, Egypt, Damascus, Diyabekir, Kurdistan, Karaman, Rûm, Anatolia and Rumelia, the latter of them holding a special prestige. Each eyalet was under the rule of a beylerbey. A beylerbey had total control over matters of war, justice and administration, if they did not overlap with any position of the central government. The beylerbey was the most valuable position one could obtain in the ottoman state, only after the grand Vizier; it was usually among them, that the sultan chose his next Vizier.

By the beginning of the 16th century the rapid expansion of the empire is starting to become a problem. The 4 central eyalets (Rumelia, Anatolia, Rum and Karaman) were under direct control of the empire, while the other 4 were granted more independence. The empire is a golden age, rich, big, just, tolerant, organised, stable; however, coordination is not as effective as the empire needs, it is becoming harder to gather a central army and expansion might be a need to maintain the ottoman Society and its values. Luckily the risk of revolts is almost nonexistent, as the ottomans have been exceptional at integrating the conquered population, and the beylerbey are all loyal to the sultan, unlike the nobles of central europe. However, all ottomans know that reaching the top of the administration is possible and the will often persist until they get there.

CENTRAL EUROPEAN MONARCH ELECTIONS

One of the key aspects of certain monarchies in Central Europe were the fact that succession was not hereditary but elective. In most cases this meant regional nobles had to choose a family member of the previous monarch, however in the instances where the dynasty ended upon the death of the monarch – the nobility would elect a King from a foreign dynasty outside the borders of the Kingdom. Between the 14th and 16th centuries, there were only a handful of dynasties that had an important pull on these elections. The two dynasties in central Europe that would regularly compete in this time period were the Jagiellonia of Poland-Lithuania and the Habsburgs of Austria. In some instances, however, there were moments where minor but influential nobles within the Kingdom would be elected. In Hungary, this tradition of electing Kings appeared with the rise in power of the nobility which itself started in the late 14th century. With the end of the Anjou line in Hungary, a faction of the nobility had used the civil war to create a ‘league’ that would represent the realm and act in its name in a time of anarchy (Engel 2001, 199).

In 1387, Emperor Sigismund of Luxemburg was been married to Mary of Hungary, daughter to King Louis I of Hungary, and claimed the throne through her. However, Sigismund had been unable to defeat the rebels and seize the throne, he had been instead chosen by the League and forced to accept certain conditions. Sigismund was expected to share royal authority with the league, to respect the nobles’ rights, customs and inheritance (Engel 2001, 199). Sigismund was even warned that if the promises were not kept, the nobles would use

any means necessary to make the King respect the conditions (Engel 2001, 199). Following the rule of Sigismund, the powers of the nobility would remain strong in Hungary for over 150 years (Sugar, Sugar, Hanák & Frank 1990, 63). This was aided by the fact that the successive Kings rarely stayed on the throne for long and therefore could not properly reform the system to curb the nobles. Indeed, for the nobility, it was their right to elect a ‘competent’ and ‘aimable’ King. The doctrine of the Holy Crown “posited the country as belonging to the nation, embodied by the nobility and represented by the Crown as a symbol rather than an object” (Molnár & Magyar 2001, 61).

There were four requirements for Kings had to achieve in order to be considered legitimate. Firstly, the election of the monarch by the nobles (a requirement which appeared post-1387). Second, the coronation had to be done by the Archbishop of Esztergom with the Holy Crown of Hungary. Finally, a coronation had to happen in the city of Székesfehérvár. There were instances where there were up to two to three coronations for one monarch before they could be considered the legitimate King of Hungary, such as King Charles I of Hungary with nine years between his first and third coronations.

OTTOMAN MILITARY CAPABILITIES

The prospering of the Ottoman Empire grew out of its conquests, with its military capability as its essence and pride. Osman I and his early followers of tribesmen and Byzantine renegades first conquered Byzantine towns in Bithynia near the Black Sea. His first real campaign was marked after the successful collapse of Seljuk authority, when he claimed key forts from the Seljuks that controlled territory from Anatoia to the plains of Bithynia. Osman laid the city of Bursa under siege in 1317, and it fell in 1326. The Byzantines launched a major expedition against Osman in 1328 with Emperor Andronicus III in command. The Ottomans defeated the Byzantines at the Battle of Pelekanon and forced the Byzantines back to Constantinople, enabling the Ottomans to eventually isolate Constantinople and attack into Europe.

The Ottoman principality was particularly well-placed to mount attacks on the declining Byzantine Empire, which Osman’s dynasty went on to conquer. While the landscape changed with certain losses and gains, the Empire in broad terms greatly expanded. In the centuries after Osman’s death, Ottoman rule expanded throughout the rest of Anatolia and the Balkans.

The Ottoman victory at Kosovo in June 1389 under Sultan Murad I effectively marked the end of Serbian power in the region, making way for Ottoman expansion into Europe. He is also credited with the creation of the Janissaries. The Ottomans continued to grow, acquiring vast amounts of land and consolidating power, especially under the reigns of Murad II the Great, Mehmed II the Conqueror, (who captured Constantinople on May 29, 1453 and replacing Edirne as the new capital of the Empire, as well as fundamentally reorganized the state and the military to its current composition), and Selim I the Grim, Suleiman’s father.



CLASSICAL OTTOMAN MILITARY ORGANIZATION

The structure established by Mehmed II replaced one of irregular armies paid in plunder and fiefs, and consisted of the Standing Army, divided between the Infantry, Cavalry, the Artillery Corps and other Technical Branches, and the Provincial Army, broken into Cavalry, Frontier Units, and the Auxiliary Corps. The linear promotion system within the Ottoman military in a way provided job security by protecting individual rights. It eliminated such corrupt practices as favoritism, birth rights, or selling and purchasing commissions, whereas European armies continued to suffer these problems. Another unique aspect of the military was its use of uniforms. The Ottomans standardized uniforms for their troops at least 200 years before any European state.

THE STANDING ARMY

The Infantry was made up of Janissaries and Yayas. Janissaries were originally created as an organization called the “Slaves of the Porte” (kapiskullari) in order to consolidate hold over the mercenary army of the Empire, consisting of young boys who came into the empire’s service as slaves. They were taught the Turkish language and Ottoman culture, as well as made to convert to Islam, and loyalty to the Sultan was the key theme of their learning. Many became clerks in the imperial court, but the strongest and fiercest were recruited as Janissaries. Later on, every several years regiment commanders of the Janissary corps were ordered to collect/select youths, each one in a particular province. They usually preferred young boys from villages, but sometimes sons of local notables were also chosen. The Janissaries received military training for five-to-nine years at an elite military academy in addition to their enculturation, after which they were organized into infantry or cavalry known as spahis, and were paid by and under the direct control of the Sultan. They became the primary army for conquest. Because of their advanced skill and loyalty as a result of their early indoctrination, the Ottoman Empire had a highly professional standing army—the nucleus of the Ottoman military— and was therefore able to dominate most of Eastern Europe and the Middle East.

The Janissary corps was an innovation at least partially driven by the need of the dynasty to counter the strength of the provincial and semi-independent march lords. Thus, the Janissaries ensured the domestic authority of the sultan with respect to the military or paramilitary threats coming from within the empire. The Sultan would personally assign the commander in chief of the Janissaries from Ağas from his own household. Regiment members used any opportunity (especially battle) to outperform other regiments, in order to receive more financial rewards or gain notoriety. Nevertheless, the Janissaries always stood in solidarity against all other groups, and clearly this unity deterred them from any permanent allegiance to a specific military commander. The Janissaries’ numbers amounted to about 10 to 12,000 and growing, spread across approximately 200 regiments, some founded for specialized capabilities, such as musketeers or heavy steel crossbows, or for breeding animals.

Yayas were the other component of the infantry. They were Turkomen light foot soldiers of both Christian and Muslim origin. They numbered approximately 8000. The infantry were



initially all equipped with composite bows and swords. They also used a special short spear, battle axes, and other infantry weapons but only as secondary weapons. Over time the Janissaries acquired some of the weapons of their adversaries as preferred weapons: the Mamluk sword, Damascene knife, and European battleaxe for example. Firearms were introduced into the corps during the first half of fifteenth century, as well as a kind of primitive hand grenade (Elkumbarası) whose use grew rapidly.

The Cavalry (Kapıkulu Süvarileri) was made up of Silhadars and Sipahi, who were founded as royal guard units with merit, valor, and loyalty as the guiding criteria for enlistment. The Cavalry Sipahi and other Kapıkulu numbered around 12,000. The cavalrymen of the top four regiments brought armed servants along with them, and they always moved with the sultan or the commander in chief and positioned themselves around him in battle. The Silahdar regiment also had the task of monitoring the building of roads and maintenance activity of the engineers and other auxiliary units.

The Artillery Corps (Topçu Ocağı), likely founded by Sultan Bayezid I, was comprised of two main branches, cannon foundries and field artillery units. They numbered roughly 1000, excluding border forts and provincial artillery units. They were organized into regiments of around 100 men. They were largely made up of Southern Slavs, especially Bosnian recruits. The expeditionary artillery units were more or less self-sufficient, carrying all key materials in addition to cannons and an ammunition load of 100 balls and gunpowder for each cannon.

Other Technical Units included, most importantly, armorers (Cebecis) and engineering specialists (Lağımıcı) The armorers transported equipment back and forth and distributed weapons, armor, ammunition and other equipment, and numbered around 500 personnel. The engineers and miners main task was to dig mines under the walls of enemy fortresses, to place explosives there, and to ignite them at the proper moment. They also were responsible for field duties such as digging trenches, gunnery positions, and other earthen works for siege operations.

THE PROVINCIAL ARMY

The Provincial Cavalry (Eyalet Askerleri) was made up of timariot Sipahi—irregular or seasonal soldiers granted with Timars (areas of estates with local jurisdiction)— who were as individuals under the obligation to participate in military campaigns with all necessary weapons, equipment, and a horse. The Sipahi was a light cavalryman armed with composite bow, sword, mace, and flail (and occasionally with a spear). They were protected with a metal helmet, chainmail armor, padded garments, and a circular shield. Naturally, there were slight differences in weapons and armor depending on their wealth, province, and personal choices. They numbered approximately 35,000. Furthermore, for each several acres a timariot Sipahi owned, they were required to provide armed men along with them, and the wealthier ones still had to bring along a kitchen, saddler, and tents, which required various kinds of additional servants. These personnel numbered approximately an additional 40,000. The basic unit was a regiment of 100 under the command of one colonel and three or four captains, and their

trademark was wing attacks, but they also participated in siege operations as dismounted archers.

The Frontier Units (Serhat Kulu) were made up of mostly of Akıncı soldiers, which were irregular soldiers and profiteering raiders who were commissioned to conduct raids into enemy territory and collect taxes. They were useful in wearing down the enemy and accumulating profit, as well as providing a safety valve for unemployed youth. They were similar to the provincial Sipahi cavalry, and numbered about 12,000. They used local collaborators to gather intelligence about the enemy and terrain, and launched attacks under disguise and rapid movement to withdraw with booty and slaves. They served as valuable scouts and vanguard units, operating three to five days ahead of the main body. They secured critical points and captured prisoners for interrogation and intelligence, as well as raided enemy camps or units to spoil their formations and loot their equipment.

Other frontier soldiers included Delis (Daredevils) as well as mercenaries and volunteers. Delis were a different breed of Ottoman soldier—usually recent converts to Islam from Bosnian, Serb or Croat origins who were indoctrinated to fanatically wage war against infidel. They wore wild costumes with animal furs and feathers and weapons with exaggerated accessories to terrify the enemy.

The Auxillary Corps was made up of primarily of Azabs, who were the backbone of the military. They were cheap and expendable soldiers organized into loose units who supplied their own equipment (usually composite bows and swords) and were used to initially wear down the enemy, but often were decimated in the process—they were the first to attack and the first to be attacked. They numbered around 20,000.

HAJDUKS AND BALKAN RAIDERS

Hajduks was the general term for bandits, outlaws, and raiders who were native to the Balkan provinces of the Ottoman Empire. For the Ottomans, the term hajduk meant a brigand or an insurgent, but to Balkan Christians it meant a rebel who resisted against Ottoman rule.

They originated as peasant people, spanning what is today Albania, Serbia, Croatia, Greece, Hungary and beyond, who doubled as occasional soldiers and mercenaries. When Ottoman lands were divided up into pashaliks, or eyalets, which were further divided into sanjaks and often sub-divided into feudal chifliks (farms), any surviving Balkan troops, whether regular Byzantine forces, mercenaries, or local militia, had to either join the Ottoman army as janissaries, serve in the private military of a local Ottoman notable, or fend for themselves.





Those wanting to maintain their Byzantine identity, Orthodox Christian religion, and independence chose the hard but liberated life of a Hajduk.

Hadjuks consisted of bands of guerilla fighters, predominantly numbered one hundred men each, and adhered to a strict hierarchy headed by one leader—the harambaša. These raider groups attracted impoverished and/or adventurous peasants, societal outcasts, and fugitive criminals fleeing debts, vendettas, taxes or retaliation from Ottoman officials.

They lived in the rugged mountains and back country. They came down from the hills and attacked and robbed travelers and isolated settlements. They targeted Ottoman representatives and rich people, mainly rich Turks, for plunder or revenge for oppressive Ottoman policies and taxes, or a combination of both.

Most were simply motivated by profit. Even though the rewards were often minimal, they nonetheless offered an escape from the often-miserable poverty and living conditions found in the bandits' homelands. Most brigands showed a clear understanding that the real, immediate rewards were achieved through taking advantage of the state's weaknesses. Many were also mobilized by the cause of Christian revolt against the (mostly) Muslim Ottomans.

In times of war, they were often aided by foreign powers or regional rulers, and could be employed to fight against the Ottomans (or Habsburgs, depending on the location and circumstances). In a relatively short time, they realized the importance of gaining support from the local population and took advantage of not only the potential of the Muslim population, but also of the different Christian groups, using it to pit them against each other. For example, Greeks were valuable allies in predominantly Macedonian or Bulgarian regions, whereas Bulgarians were Ottoman allies in Greek-dominated areas.

HABSBURG MILITARY CAPABILITIES

Since the thirteenth century, the Habsburg military is considered among the strongest and largest European armies. In the 14th and the 15th centuries, the regional dynasties including the Jagellonians, Habsburgs and the Luxemburgs aspired to establish a dominant European power in the Middle Danube Basin (Pálffy, 2001). The advancing Ottoman power in European territory served a major threat to Christendom, and therefore the military forces were devoted to defending Europe from a possible Islamic overrun (Global Security, n.d ; Ágoston, 2014).

The Military Revolution is a significant process in the evolution of the European warfare, identified with the increase in military manpower and the rise of new monarchies and their bureaucracies (Parker, 1995). Among the major turning points, one can mention the development of the gunpowder after the 15th century and the creation of powerful artillery and reliable firearms. As a western Christian force, the Habsburg military was known for its mass adoption of firearms and artillery fortifications, providing a technological advantage in the battlefield. According to scholars, these developments required much larger artillery trains and armies, thus increasing the size of European armies of that period and the amount of centralized states (Ágoston, 2014 ; Fodor & Dávid, 2000).

Central European Armies established military superiority over the Ottomans' forces with an infantry based on pikemen and arquebusiers. The forces armed soldiers of lower social standing with gunpowder weapons, compared to the elite troops of the Ottomans. Moreover, they used the Hussite Wagenburg tactic in some of the battles, which is a defensive arrangement of war wagons chained together (Ágoston, 2014).

Among the military's capacities, one can mention the usage of the Landsknechts mercenaries as an important military force during the 15th and the 16th centuries. Considered the universal mercenaries of early modern Europe, the soldiers served as pikemen and supported foot soldiers. Their weapons usage is considered conservative, including long pikes, short sword called Katzbalger, two-handed swords called Zweihänder, long curved swords called Kriegsmesser, two-handed pole weapon called halberd and long guns called Arquebus. The type of weapons used depends on the role of Landsknecht in the battlefield and it experience (Richards, 2002).

In addition to the Landsknechts mercenaries, European armies used the river flotilla troops guarding the Danube and Sava, called Šajkaši. These troops fought against the Ottoman Empire from the 16th century. They included ethnic Serbs with special military status, and were armed with spears, ordinary and mechanical arrows. As the gunpowder was developed, they used sabres, long spears and muskets (Popović, 1990). The Šajkaši were put in the service of Ferdinand, the Archduke of Austria and King of Hungary and Croatia, and they participated in the Battle of Mohács in 1526 (Kolundžija, 2008).



CRISIS MECHANISM

DIRECTIVES AND SESSION

The main tool within a Crisis is a Directive. A directive, unlike resolutions or other legislative documents produced by usual MUN committees, is an individual tool which contains orders and actions that a delegate, which represents a historical character within the crisis timeline, wishes to execute. For example:

“I as Secretary of Finance would like an inquiry into the state of this year’s treasury of the Ottoman Empire, including our yearly income, total military costs and contribution from vassal states.”

This is a very basic example of a Directive. In SGMUN, we would work with a Crisis Website (which login details and how-to-use will be explained in the first day) where all delegates can work on their own directives and receive responses. In between directives there will be a wait-time of 10 minutes approximately where a delegate will not be able to send another directive. This is made in order to balance out the dynamics and experience levels of the delegates.

After sending in a directive, the said directive would go to be processed by the Backroom/Crisis Staffers which would then either grant the requests in the Directive, or fail it to a degree. For example:

Directive: *“I would like to assassinate the Commander of the Border Force, I would pay my spies 5000 extra Reichstalers/gold coins.”*

Backroom Response: *“Your spies have not even located where the Commander is nor how to kill him, thus they did not execute the orders. However, they have taken the payment and squandered away your gold coins in the brothels.”*

The Backroom response to execute or to fail directives depends on the level of your specificity and as well as previous directives which builds up to your current actions. Thus, we advise you to start planning big things early, finding out the steps necessary to build up to the final execution, but also make key plans as specific as possible! In some big plans such as battles or major covert operations, the backroom might also not just update the delegates who sent the respective directives, but also put up a press release or act out some theatrics in the cabinet rooms to emphasize the degree of importance and effects that the said directives had on changing the narrative direction of the crisis.



In its basic form, directive is an individual tool. However, it can also be used as a tool together with some other characters within the cabinet or even on the opposing side. To this end, Crisis is generally described as a “Perpetual Unmoderated Caucus”, where the discussion would flow more like a group work brainstorming/exercise, with the Chair, usually playing the figurehead leader of the Cabinet playing the role of moderator and guiding the Cabinets to aim for specific goals and/or divide tasks between characters who has different skill sets. Thus, this also gives the possibility of delegates requesting secret (or overt) meetings with characters from the other cabinets to secretly plan some intriguing or scandalous backstabbing scenarios!

In the end however, the Chair also reserves the right to call his/her respective Cabinets to Order and might use some General Assembly rules such as “Moderated Caucus” or “Round Robin”, especially when there are some big updates that has happened which require a focused strategizing of the whole Cabinet. This might also be exercised by the Chair in the opening minutes of the session to assess each delegate’s overt aims and assigned character’s expertise or prior to taking an important decision. In these cases, the Chair might also ask the Cabinet to write a “Cabinet Directive” as a whole, which in its nature be more detailed, specific, and encompass different facets of the issues at hand, and closer to a Resolution or other legislative documents you might produce in General Assembly/other MUN committees’ settings.

DELEGATE RESOURCES

Prior to the conference, each delegate will be assigned their respective historical characters and cabinets. With it, you will also receive a one-page brief character biography with information on your character’s initial resources and traits (e.g. Wealth of 1,000,000 Gold Coins, Governorship of Bosnia, quick infrastructure builder, and personal aims/secrets). With this biography and some research after delegates might get an idea or even start drafting their plans to further their character’s personal goals and the cabinet’s ambitions.

However, the resources given in the initial setting are not static. They are subject to change by your actions (or inaction!) as well as other character’s directives which may improve or worsen your conditions. And here is where Directive must be used to build up even more resources for your grand plans.

TIMELINE AND REGIONAL SCOPE



STARTING POSITION IN 1526

Yellow, Light Green, Purple : The vacant throne lands of Hungary and Croatia
 Dark Green : Habsburg & Allies
 Orange : Ottoman Empire & Vassals
 Grey : Holy Roman Empire

In SGMUN, we will start off right after the Battle of Mohacs in 1526, with the throne of Hungary, Bohemia and Croatia being vacant. We will progress approximately four years of Crisis time per session day. Time progression would be quite flexible, in the terms that when a major battle, assassinations or other grand plans will be carried out, the time progression will be slower. In times of relatively smaller-effect directives being carried out, the time will progress faster. This is also done in a way that the faster time progression will slow down once some directive that builds up resources for bigger plans (e.g. recruiting army, building defences) are carried out completely.

Regional scope wise, the Crisis Staff will restrict actions and directives in the Crisis to the borders of Ottoman Empire, the Holy Roman Empire, and the entirety of Balkan & Central Europe from North Italy (Venice) in the West to present day Moldova in the East, and from Southern Poland in the North to modern-day Greece in the South. Thus any actions involving Spanish Habsburg for example, will not be in line and by default failed. This measure is done to limit the Crisis scope, thus making delegates able to focus more on areas that matter the most.

To facilitate this framework, Google's MyMaps will be used by the Crisis Staff to denote cities, provinces, army movements and other relevant positions. This map can also be requested to be projected in the Cabinets, for use of strategizing next plans ahead.

NON-WAR / CIVIL CRISIS DYNAMICS

While in the context of this year's SGMUN Crisis War is inevitable, directives must also still consider the non-war dynamics of the era. For example, a directive ordering a Propaganda campaign calling for a Crusade against the Ottomans in a Muslim-majority province would directly backfire. In this regard, the Crisis Staff would control the properties of each province/region, complete with its manpower, religion, vital local economy activities and income, and check whether a directive would be in line with the civil/societal dynamics at play.

However, it must be noted that these societal aspects are not static! You can use your directives to slowly alter the societal dynamics of a province (e.g. converting people to Islam



or Christianity) - a word of advice in these kinds of directives, is that just like in real life, executing societal changes would take longer time than top-down military orders or bribing, thus requiring more patience. Yet if you succeed on doing them, you will gain an upper advantage on all next directives for that specific aspect you have changed.

MILITARY DYNAMICS AND WAR ECONOMY

To simplify finances, each Cabinet will be assigned a currency (Reichstaler for the Austrian Cabinet and Akce for the Ottomans) which are pegged at a 1:1 fixed rate to each other, considering that both currencies are basically pure silver coins. Manpower-wise, we will only count 3 types of manpower: Total Population, Economically Productive Population, and Service (Military-able) Population. Again, these measures are done to simplify the crisis and make delegates focus on what really matters. Income and manpower growth will be counted at an annual rate. Within the framework that each session day equates 4 years of Crisis time, there will be 4 instances in a day where each character receives an income boost, and each province receives a manpower bump.

Regarding military dynamics, we will restrict unit types to Infantry, Artillery and Cavalry. Where within each unit types will be distinguished between Elite, Normal, Forced Conscript, and Mercenary status with its own bonuses and disadvantage. Battles and sieges will be executed depending on the strength and specificity of each conflicting directive from each participating delegate. When there is a clear imbalance of situation (e.g. 1000 infantry with no defences vs 5000 mixed infantry-cavalry-and artillery) the battles would be automatically resolved with an update, be it in form of press release or theatrical acts, could be expected.

However, when the coming armies and infrastructures combined seems pretty equal, the Crisis Staff will come and ask the participating sides in the battle to play out the battle in some form of games. The forms of game will be decided on a case by case basis, considering the different circumstances of the battle.

CONCLUSIONS AND CRISIS FOCUS

As you might have read above, being a delegate in Crisis committee means you would not produce a single resolution as your final work product. But instead, to find out ways and actions, furthering your individual character as well as cabinet goals. However, to conclude and to give a sense of guidance, we would like for you to consider the following bullet points to consider throughout the crisis. Just like QARMA/ Questions a Resolution Must Answer, consider these bullet points of crisis focus a guiding hand for you when drafting out your bigger narrative plans, strategizing your interaction with other characters in the committee, as well as for each single directive you are going to write.

GENERAL FOCUS FOR BOTH CABINETS

How would each Cabinet try to win the loyalties of both the people and feudal regional lords throughout Central Europe and the Balkans to further their power ambitions?



In regards to loyalties, will promise of autonomy or power prevail? Or will religion and pre-nation-state cultural identity play a central role in gaining the upper hand?

Seeing that other parts of Europe in this timeline is engulfed in either regional religious struggle or trade/colonial competition, what would each Cabinet do to make sure this conflict does not spillover and upset other power in the regions (think Poland and Venice), or in the event that it does spillover, win over external powers' allegiance to help them further their own goals?

How would each Cabinet try to maintain internal unity while trying to advance all these goals?

What measures would each Cabinet adopt to optimize the recent military and scientific exploits of the Renaissance, and in the meantime adapt with the changing social structure/phenomenons around them for their armies and societies?

FOCUS FOR OTTOMAN CABINET

How will the Ottoman cabinet strike a balance and unity between the different social classes of its decision makers (Porte/Imperial court bureaucrats, Devshirme/Military Class, Imams/religious scholars, Harem, and others) ?

How will the Ottomans try to integrate its Balkans citizens and, potentially Central European conquest subjects as not to displease the ruling Turkish elite or the established Ottoman social conventions and practices in the process?

Which Central European and Balkan local lords will the Ottomans try to appease and/or collaborate with in order to divide and conquer or switch their view from seeing the Ottomans as a foreign burgeoning threat into a regional power that can be partnered up with for their own local politics interest?

FOCUS FOR AUSTRIAN CABINET

What methods would the Austrian Habsburgs use to win over the allegiance or take over the opportunity of the vacant Jagiellonian thrones of Hungary, Bohemia and Croatia? Would their usual strategic marriage method work?

What strategies in both warfare and war economy/logistics would the Cabinet come up with to stem the tide of the more disciplined, more structured and more numerous (in terms of manpower) Ottoman army and war machine?

To what extent would the Austrians give a compromise or compensations to its regional allies, in the context of defending against the Ottomans, but at the same time maintain their influence in Central Europe?



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