

YDMUN'25



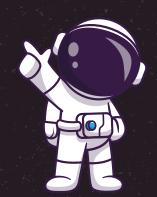


Study Guide

Quadruple Joint Crisis Committee (QJCC)

The Struggle For Power And Stability During The Ottoman Interregnum

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2. Letter from the Secretary General

Dear Esteemed Delegates, Chairs, and Attendees,

It is with great honor and immense excitement that I welcome you all to the second edition of YDMUN! After the success of our inaugural conference, my team and I have been working tirelessly to ensure that this year's edition surpasses expectations and delivers an unforgettable MUN experience.

At YDMUN, our mission is not just to organize another Model United Nations conference, but to ignite a passion for diplomacy, debate, and leadership. We believe MUN should be more than just formal debates—it should be an inspiring journey that leaves every delegate with new perspectives, stronger confidence, and a deep appreciation for the art of negotiation. This is why my team and I are committed to crafting a conference that makes people "fall in love with MUN" whether it's your first time stepping into committee or you're a seasoned delegate.

This year, YDMUN is proud to present eight diverse and engaging committees: 1 General Assembly committees, 4 Special committees, and 3 crisis committees.

Each committee has been carefully designed to challenge, engage, and inspire. Whether you find yourself negotiating in the halls of the United Nations, making tough calls in a historical crisis, or shaping policies in a semi-crisis setting, every moment at YDMUN will be an opportunity to grow as a diplomat and leader.

But beyond the debates, YDMUN is about the people. It is about the connections you will make, the friendships you will build, and the lessons you will carry beyond the conference. My team and I are dedicated to ensuring that every participant walks away with an experience that is not only intellectually enriching but also deeply memorable.

As we embark on this exciting journey together, I encourage you all to speak up, stand out, and make it count. Push boundaries, challenge ideas, and above all, enjoy the process. This is your stage to showcase your diplomacy, strategy, and leadership—make the most of it!

On behalf of my entire YDMUN team, I cannot wait to welcome you all to what promises to be an inspiring and extraordinary edition of our conference.

Let's make YDMUN not just a conference, but an experience to remember!

Sincerely, Menna Eraslan Secretary General



3. Letter from the Co-Under Secretaries General

Valuable Participants and the distinguished delegates of YDMUN'25,

It is ly honour to serve you the perennial tradition of YDMUN as the Under Secretary General and the deviser of this committee. My team of diligent Crisis Team Members and Academic Assistants worked tirelessly under tile constraints and within the pages of innumerable academic resources to give you a guide that is both worthy of the most inquisitive delegates and equally worthy of the hectic settinng in which you will be released.

In this Committee, my colleagues and I will give each delegate the oppurtunity to create their own version of Ottoman Empire. We are beyond excited to see the perspectives, strategies, and creativity you will bring to this roll. You are not just historical figures, you are breathing life into their decisions, conflicts and legacy.

We cannot wait to see your enegery, passion, and dedication that each of you will bring. If you have any questions about the study guide or the topic do not hesitate to contact me. Welcome to the committee QJCC: The Ottoman Interregnum of YDMUN'25 once again.

Kerem Kılıç - Under Secretary General uyekggh@gmail.com +905375431202



4. Directive Format and Introduction to the Committee

4.1 Directive Format

The procedure of the crisis committees are much different than the GA committees. Firstly, you are not representing a country but representing a character from the date that we will simulate. That means you don't have to use "we" language in these kinds of committees. Crises are the events and updates that the crisis team will give you according to your actions throughout the committee. You will receive lots of them since you will take your next movements according to these crises and updates. One of your aims in the committee will be to solve these crises by taking proper action.

You will take these actions by using your personal or the cabinet's power and write directives instead of the resolution papers, like in the GA committees. Directives are the documents you write to take immediate actions and create short-term solutions and that is the difference between directives and resolution papers. Another aspect of directives differing from resolution papers is that you write multiple directives and write them on your papers via handwriting. Now let's learn what exactly directives are and how to write them.

Directive Types

-Personal Directives: In personal directives, you take actions as yourself by using your own personal powers. Since you will be using your own powers, you should consider what powers does your character have. For example, a character who is a commander can take some military actions, etc.

-Joint Directives: Joint Directives are directives that are written by more than one person. You can separate and write the directive part by part. While writing these directives, it is crucial that you work together in coordination and reach a middle

ground about your ideas.

-Information Directives: In information directives, you ask for some data that is not written in the study guide. These types of directives should be short and clear. The Crisis Team will tell you the info you need in the next update if what you ask is necessary and clear. An information directive example:

From: (your allocation name)

Cabinet Name

To: Minister of Military

Timestamp

I would like to be informed about our troop counts, military bases and the distribution of soldiers to military bases.

-Press Releases: In press releases, you are addressing the people in the country by using media organs. They are crucial for controlling public opinion so you should use them wisely. Language skills are crucial in order to write a well-structured and effective press release.

-Top Secret Directives: In top secret directives, you also take actions by using your

powers but the difference is that the directive will not be known by anyone in your cabinet. These types of directives are mostly used for assassinating someone in your cabinet or even your chair. You have to give these directives secretly to admins for them to bring your directives to the crisis team members. Since your chair shouldn't see top secret directives find a way to give it to the admins. You can give it via hiding it inside your empty water cup, secretly putting it in their pockets, etc.

How to Write a Proper Directive:

- -> Always write your character's name and the committee on the directive.
- -> You need to write the timestamp on top of your directive that you are sending. The crisis team will evaluate your directives according to timestamps.
- -> It is highly suggested to give enough details in your directives for them to be accepted and evaluated. Your directive must answer the "Five Ws and one H" questions (Who, What, Why, Where, When, and How)
- ->Your directive's purpose and aim should be clear.
- ->You should use accurate information. If you cannot find the information you want on the internet, you can send an info directive about it.
- -> While you are writing your directives do not forget to stay on topic, even if you write a perfectly detailed directive if it's not related to the topic or is unnecessary, the crisis team could reject your directive.
- -> Your directives should be realistic. Depending on your committee's topic, the realism of your directives can change.
- -> You should not write your directives like writing a story. Using "If, Else Clauses" in your directives will improve the quality of your directives.
- ->You should write your directives in readable handwriting for the crisis team members to give your directives fair updates.

WRONG WRITTEN DIRECTIVE EXAMPLE:

FROM: Elaine Kamarck

TO: Related Departments

We are establishing a Video Editing Agency (VEA) under the Internet Agency of the

USA, as soon as possible. The center place of the Video Editing Agency will be held in

Tennessee.

Mistake 1: You cannot write "Related Departments" to "TO:" part. You must

specify which department you are writing this directive to.

Mistake 2: There is neither a timestamp nor the name of the cabinet.

Mistake 3: This directive is not detailed enough and does not answer the "Five Ws

and One H" questions (Who, What, Why, Where, When, and How). You can see the

detailed version of this directive below.

PROPERLY WRITTEN DIRECTIVE EXAMPLE:

FROM: Elaine Kamarck

TO: Internet Agency of USA

JCC Democratic Party

16.21

We are establishing a Video Editing Agency (VEA) under the Internet Agency of the

USA, as soon as possible. We will pick 100 professional video editors and pay them

monthly 20.000 USD for educating partisans of the Democratic Party who want to

learn how to montage a video. If they do not accept the offer we will increase the offer

to 35.000 USD, if they do not accept it again those who reject our offer will not work

with us. The education will be given saturdays and sundays every week. We will rent 5

schools and use 20 classes for each school. We will pay monthly 10.000 usd for each

class we rented. If they do not accept our offer we will offer 15.000 us for each class. If they do not accept our offer we will not work with those schools. In every class, there will be 1 professional video editor and 6 partisans of the democratic party who want to learn how to montage a video. The education will be free for partisans of the democratic party. All of the costs will be paid by the democratic party. The education will be produced until partisans of the democratic party learn how to montage a video.

5 high schools which we will rent if we can agree with the schools:

- 1. Staten Island Technical High School
- 2. Bronx High School of Science
- 3. Townsend Harris High School
- 4. Stuyvesant High School
- 5. High School of American Studies at Lehman College

We will try to rent another American school if we cannot agree with the 5 schools written above.

4.2 Introduction to the Committee

The Ottoman Interregnum was a period of civil strife and internal disintegration in the Ottoman Empire that lasted from 1402-1413. The Central Asian conqueror Timur (Tamerlane) defeated and captured Sultan Bayezid I at the Battle of Ankara in 1402, resulting in a power vacuum. With Bayezid's abrupt incapacitation and no apparent successor identified, his four surviving sons—Süleyman, İsa, Musa, and Mehmed—fought for control of the fragmented empire.

This era was more than simply a family feud; it attracted local warlords, governors, tribal leaders, and foreign powers that allied with various claims in the goal of gaining political or territorial control. The upheaval caused shifting boundaries, treachery, and regional instability throughout Anatolia and the Balkans.

Each prince asserted dominion over distinct parts of the empire. In 1413, Mehmed Çelebi overcame his opponent, Musa Çelebi, and became Sultan Mehmed I, reuniting

the realm and restoring centralisation. The Interregnum provides an ideal environment for sophisticated diplomatic, military, and strategic decision-making. It is an excellent example of a multi-faction crisis, complete with historical reality, shifting alliances, and severe political calculation.

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5. Military System of the Ottoman State

5.1 Introduction to the Ottoman Military Being one of the most advanced and successful military systems in history, the Ottoman Empire was able to grow from a small Anatolian principality to a huge, multi-continental empire. The military was an essential institution that upheld internal order and protected the empire from outside dangers, in addition to being an instrument of conquest. The military system changed over centuries, including different ethnic groups and adjusting to new strategies and technologies to maintain the empire's durability.

5.2 The Early Ottoman Military: Origins and Development

5.2.1 Ghazis and the Warrior Tradition

The early Ottoman military was rooted in the Ghazi tradition, where warriors fought in the name of Islam against non-Muslim states. These Ghazis, or holy warriors, were essential in the initial expansion of the Ottoman state, particularly in the Balkans and Anatolia. The early Ottoman sultans, including Osman I and Orhan I, led these warriors, establishing the military ethos that would define the empire.

5.2.2 Formation of a Standing Army

As the Ottomans expanded, they recognized the need for a more permanent and organized military structure. Orhan I (r. 1326–1362) is credited with forming the first standing army in the Ottoman Empire, consisting of paid soldiers rather than relying solely on tribal levies or Ghazi volunteers. This marked the beginning of a more professional military force that could be deployed year-round.

5.3 The Army Corps

5.3.1 The Janissary Corps

a. Origins and Recruitment

The Janissary Corps was the elite infantry unit of the Ottoman army, established by Sultan Murad I in the late 14th century. The Janissaries were originally formed through the Devshirme system, which involved the periodic collection of Christian boys from the empire's Balkan provinces. These boys were converted to Islam, trained rigorously, and served the Sultan for life. The 21 Janissaries became the backbone of the Ottoman military and were known for their discipline, loyalty, and formidable battlefield presence.

b. Organization and Training

Janissaries were organized into units known as "ortas," each consisting of approximately 100 men. The entire corps was divided into three main divisions: the Cemaat, the Bölük, and the Sekban, each with specific roles and responsibilities. Training was intense and included not only military tactics but also education in languages, mathematics, and religion, ensuring that Janissaries were well-rounded soldiers and administrators.

c. Role in the Empire

The Janissaries played a dual role as both military and political actors. They were instrumental in the empire's territorial expansion, participating in key battles such as the conquest of Constantinople in 1453. Politically, the Janissaries held significant power within the empire, often influencing the succession of sultans and the governance of the state. However, their power and autonomy eventually led to corruption and resistance to reform, culminating in their dissolution during the Auspicious Incident of 1826.

5.3.2 The Sipahi Cavalry

a. Timar System and Feudal Cavalry

The Sipahi cavalry formed the backbone of the Ottoman military's land-based power. They were the equivalent of feudal knights in Europe, and their service was tied to the Timar system. Under this system, Sipahis were granted land (timar) in return for military service. The income from these lands provided them with the resources to maintain their equipment and horses, and in times of war, they were required to raise a certain number of troops from their estates.

b. Organization and Deployment

Sipahis were divided into two main categories: the Kapıkulu Sipahi, who were part of the standing army and served directly under the Sultan, and the Provincial Sipahi, who were landholders across the empire. The Sipahi cavalry was known for its mobility, speed, and effectiveness in battlefield engagements, particularly in the vast plains of Anatolia and the Balkans. Their role was crucial in the early Ottoman conquests, including the battles of Kosovo (1389) and Nicopolis (1396).

5.3.3 Auxiliary Forces and Irregular Troops

a. Akinjis

Akinjis were irregular cavalry units that served as the vanguard of the Ottoman army. They were known for their speed and mobility, often carrying out raids deep into enemy territory to disrupt supply lines, gather intelligence, and create chaos. The Akinjis operated with a high degree of autonomy and were instrumental in the initial phases of Ottoman expansion into Europe, where they terrorized local populations and weakened resistance before the arrival of the main army.

b. Azaps

Azaps were light infantry troops who served as auxiliary forces in the Ottoman military. They were typically drawn from the lower classes and were not as heavily armed or armored as the regular soldiers. Azaps played a crucial role in the early stages of battles, often being used to harass the enemy and weaken their defenses before the main Ottoman forces engaged. They were also used for various support roles, such as manning fortifications and conducting raids.

c. Bashi-Bazouks

Bashi-Bazouks were irregular soldiers often recruited from non-Turkish ethnic groups within the empire, such as Albanians, Circassians, and Kurds. They were notorious for their lack of discipline and brutality, often used in roles where conventional troops were not suitable, such as in skirmishes or as shock troops. While effective in certain situations, their unpredictability and tendency towards looting made them a double-edged sword for the Ottoman commanders.

6. Historical Background

To fully grasp the Ottoman Interregnum, one must understand the underlying processes and events that laid the groundwork for it. Said events take place during Sultan Yıldırım Bayezid's reign between 1389-1402

6.1 Bayezid Taking the Throne

Ever since his birth, Bayezid I was intended by his father to be the crown prince and take up his throne. Thus, from an early age, he was educated in matters of fighting, military tactics, politics, art, and leadership by the best scholars in the country. As soon as he reached the ripe age of 21, he was appointed by his father to be the Bannerlord of Kütahya and began taking part in battles alongside him, leading thousands of men into battle. He truly showed his military prowess in the critical First Battle of Kosovo, during which his acts of heroism while leading the right wing armies won the Ottomans the battle. His sheer speed and versatility with armies during the battle earned him the nickname Yıldırım, forever engraving him as a legend in Ottoman history. On top of his military success, he was a fair and intelligent ruler of his banner. The people of Kütahya prospered under the young Şehzade's rule, proving him both as a ruthless commander on the battlefield and a glorious ruler on the throne. This earned him the favor of the people and officials in the Divan-I Hümayun, solidifying his claim to the throne. After his father was assassinated while traversing the battlefield after the First Battle of Kosovo, Yıldırım Bayezid immediately stepped up as his successor and took swift action to legitimize his rule. As the first order of business, he summoned the Prince of Serbia to have him pledge allegiance to himself, then had his brother Yakub executed in his throne room in front of all his officials. While this act upset the army, who beloved Sehzade Yakub, it also cast fear in their hearts and strengthened their loyalty to the new Sultan Yıldırım Bayezid. These actions set a great example of the personality and ruling style of Sultan Yıldırım Bayezid, as a smart and brave Sultan beloved by his people, but ruling over his court and army with an iron fist and commanding loyalty by fear. This would keep being the case for most of his time on the throne.

6.2 Reign of Sultan Yıldırım Bayezid

6.2.1 Anatolian and Balkan Affairs

After completely solidifying his place on the throne, Sultan Bayezid had a very busy and fast reign, running from battle to battle and subduing every one of his enemies one by one. He first began by eliminating threats on the western border, as they held much bigger military and political power than the Anatolian Beyliks he would later need to deal with. Then, between 1389 and 1396, the Sultan went ahead to;

- 1389: Marry the sister of the Serbian King and impose annual taxes on the Kingdom of Serbia
- 1390: Send akıncı forces led by Hoca Firuz Bey and Paşa Yiğit to subdue Wallachia and Moldavia, preventing any potential uprisings
 - 1391: Defeat the Wallachian armies marching on his lands in Karinabad, vassalizing the country and taking their Vojvodina as prisoners during the process
- 1393: Defeat the Hungarian and Bulgarian armies at the same time, conquering the capital of Bulgaria, Tirnova, and imprisoning the Bulgarian king and prince after the battle
 - 1394: Conquer Thessalonica, Morea, Thessaly, and Albania
 - 1395: Conquer the rest of the Greek Peninsula down to the Attican Peninsula
- 1396: Defeat the Crusader Armies in the legendary Battle of Niğbolu, dismantling them completely

Doing all of these in just the span of seven years was unheard of in Ottoman history up until that point, and it is theorized that Sultan Bayezid might have gotten his nickname thanks to his speed in doing all these deeds in such a short time period.

Unrest wasn't limited to the Balkans, however, since Şehzade Yakub was beloved by many of the Anatolian Beyliks, they were enraged at Sultan Bayezid's killing of his brother and usurping the throne. Thus, with the political excuse of avenging Yakub's death, the Beyliks of Germiyanlı, Aydınlı, Saruhanlı, Menteşeli, Hamidli, and the ruler of Siva,s Kadı Burhaneddi, joined forces to rise up against Bayezid.

Seeing all of these, Bayezid orchestrated many military campaigns to launch a grand offensive and unite the Anatolian Turkish nations once and for all. Thus, between the years 1390 and 1398, he went on to:

1390: Completely erase the Aydınoğulları, Germiyanoğulları, Menteşeoğulları, and Hamitoğulları Beyliks from the map, sending their rulers to exile in various parts of the world

- 1390: Conquer the Byzantine Castle of Philadelphia
- 1390: Besiege the city of Konya in order to break the alliance between the Karamanoğulları, Candaroğulları, and Kadı Burhaneddin, then annex the city in the following peace treaty.
- 1392: Launch an attack on the Candaroğulları Beylik that saw the conquests of Kastamonu and the subsequent dissolution of the beylik.
- 1392: Send his oldest son, Şehzade Ertuğrul Çelebi, to conquer and subdue the lands of Kadı Burhaneddin, who would go on to conquer the Fortress of Osmancık but fall in the following Battle of Kırkdilim.

- 1393: Conquer the regions of Amasya, Merzifon, Turhal, and Tokat and organize these regions into a new sanjak to put his son, Mehmet Çelebi, in charge of.
- 1394: Start friendly diplomatic relations with the Mamluke Sultanate
- 1395: Besiege the city of Sinope, which led to the capitulation and vassalization of the Candaroğulları Beylik, who were centered there.
- 1396: Defeat the Crusader Armies marching towards his land in the critical Battle of Niğbolu, and spend the war treasures towards the development of Bursa, ordering the construction of many important buildings which contain the Bursa Ulu Camii, which still stands to this day.
- 1397: Defeat the armies of Karamanoğulları Beylik, who had launched an attack towards the Ottomans, which saw the execution of their ruler and complete annexation of their lands after Bayezid's clear victory.
- 1398: Conquer the lands of Kadı Burhaneddin after his defeat against the Akkoyunlu State.
- 1399: Launch an invasion of the Anatolian lands owned by the Mamlukes, conquering the regions of Malatya, Darende, and Divriği in complete violation of their previous treaties and good relations.

6.2.2 Byzantine Conflicts

Sultan Yıldırım Bayezid paid great attention to the conflicts regarding the Byzantine throne, as he saw dictating their game of thrones as a stepping stone towards conquering Constantinople. Thus, he often got involved in the internal affairs of the struggling Byzantine Empire.

a. First Conflict: Attempted Coup

In the year 1389, Sultan Bayezid supported a coup by Ioannis VII to overthrow the current emperor Ioannis V. However, even though

Ioannis VII to overthrow the current emperor Ioannis V. However, even though Ioannis VII managed to subdue the City of Constantinople with the help from Sultan Bayezid, the coup was unsuccessful in the end after Ioannis V's son, Manuil, launched a counterattack from Morea with a bigger army and naval fleet. Ioannis V was returned to the Byzantine throne after a civil war that only lasted three weeks. This turn of events angered Sultan Bayezid, as his supported candidate had lost the throne and his plans of growing influence over the Byzantines had failed. As an act of vengeance, he forced Manuil to aid him in his Anatolian Offensive in 1390, humiliating the young prince.

b. Second Conflict: The Walls Dispute
The next conflict arose the very next year in 1390, when
the Byzantine Emperor Ioannis V took advantage of Sultan
Yıldırım Bayezid being at war in Anatolia and had the
Theodosian Walls strengthened using materials from broken
down rubbles of buildings. Bayezid took this as an act of

treachery and sent an ultimatum to Ioannis V, threatening that if the reinforcements on the walls weren't broken down immediately, it would mean war between the two states. Ioannis, not being able to risk war with the Ottomans, begrudgingly ordered the reinforcements to be taken down. This was a great humiliation in his eyes, one which sent him into a spiral of panic attacks due to excessive rage and ended up killing him.

c. Third Conflict: The Cultural Dispute

The year after that incident, in 1391, Bayezid demanded from the new Emperor Manuil that the taxes they pay be increased, a Muslim district in Constantinople be constructed, and at least one mosque be built in the city. After Manuil refused these demands, Sultan Bayezid launched an all-out invasion and besieged Constantinople from both land and sea, however, this was only designed to intimidate the Byzantine administration.

d. Bayezid's Attempted Conquests

Bayezid went ahead to besiege Constantinople three more times, yet all were unsuccessful attempts. The second one in 1395 was cut short due to the coming of winter, the third one was in 1396, which saw the Ottoman armies flat out get defeated, and the final one in 1400 was cut short after news arrived that Emir Timur had marched into Anatolia.

6.3 Battle of Ancyra

The Battle of Ancyra was an infamous and critical battle between the two strongest rulers of Eurasia at the time. Ottoman Sultan Bayezid and the Timurid Emir Timur.

6.3.1 Ottoman-Timurid Relations

Before the Battle of Ancyra, Ottoman-Timurid relations relied on a silent agreement of keeping minimal contact, as rulers of both states had a deep sense of admiration and respect for the other one. It was also known that they were aware of their shared Turk-Muslim origins; thus, while not considering each other allies, they weren't exactly enemies either.

a. First Threat: Ottoman Isolation

That isn't to say it was all peaceful coexistence either, as Timur made constant political maneuvers to gain power over the Ottoman State. The most obvious of which came when Timur embarked on his Seven Year War, or his Third Western Offense, defeating and neutralizing both the Golden Horde to the north and the Mamlukes to the south, effectively isolating the Ottomans by leaving no nearby state for them to cooperate with

b. Second Threat: Diplomatic Maneuvers

The former rulers of Anatolian Beyliks who had been defeated by Sultan Yıldırım Bayezid, (Germiyanoğlu Yakub Bey, Menteşeoğlu İlyas Bey, Aydınoğlu İsa Bey, Saruhanoğlu Hızır Şah) seeked refuge in Timur's court and pledged allegiance to him. Timur promised their lands back in exchange for their help in defeating Bayezid, which they happily obliged. Timur also convinced the Akkoyunlu Ruler Kara Yülük Osman Bey and Emir Mutahharten of Erzincan, vassals of the Ottomans, to change sides and help him in his rivalry against the Ottomans.

c.Third Threat: Letters of War

After Emir Mutahharten announced his shift of allegiance in favor of Timur, Sultan Bayezid still sent him a letter demanding the delivery of his owed 11 yearly taxes and his return to Ottoman ranks at once. Emir Mutahharten did not respond to this letter, showing it to Timur instead, making him furious. In response, Timur wrote a condescending letter to Sultan Yıldırım Bayezid, vaguely applauding his victories against the Christians of Europe, yet advising him to know his place as a war like this would be one that damaged the political standing of the Islamic faith and certainly one that he would lose. In response to this insulting letter by Timur, Bayezid sent one final letter declaring war on the Timurid Empire, stating, "I have long wished to face you in the battlefield, and now am determined to make that wish a reality. If you refuse to come to me, I will come to you at Süleymaniye and Tebriz to face you." After this response, Emir Timur immediately mobilized his armies and prepared for war against Sultan Yıldırım Bayezid.

6.3.2 Lead-Up to the Battle

a. First Conflicts

After Sultan Bayezid's response to his letter, Timur quickly moved into Ottoman lands and seized control of many

places in his first advance in the year 1400. In his offense, Timur went on to:

- 1. Take control of Sivas, executing four thousand Ottoman prisoners of war on the grounds of disobedience,
- 2. Seize quick control of the Dulkadir lands, Malatya, and Kahta
- 3. Invade Northern Syria, namely Antep, Aleppo, and Damascus.
- 4. Finish his advance by seizing Mardin and Baghdad, then return to Karabagh to camp for the winter.

Bayezid, however, thought Timur would advance onto Western Anatolia after capturing Sinope, and thus decided to wait at Kütahya to ambush him. Soon after, though, he heard news of Timur entering Syria, thus decided to change his plans. He executed the following steps:

- 1. Retake Erzincan and Kemah from Emir Murahharten, whom he blamed for this entire war.
- 2. Promise Mutahharten his lands back in exchange for his allegiance.
- 3. Break his promise to Mutahharten, not giving his lands back, and instead imprisoning his family in Bursa as an act of vengeance

b. Last Diplomatic Talks

Bayezid's treatment of Mutahharten, who was a valued ally of Timur, enraged him, thus causing Ottoman-Timurid relations to break down completely beyond repair. Thus, Timur sent a last letter to Bayezid, boasting about his victories in his invasion of Syria, and demanding that he become a vassal to him. Bayezid responded by telling Timur in his letter that his Kayı Boyu heritage and his bloodline were holy and superior, and that he was ready to face his foe. In his response, Timur stated that they were both Turks of the Islamic faith and were both carrying on Gaza against Christians who defied Islam. He also stated that an alliance between them would wipe out Christianity from the world, and in exchange of Kara Yusuf and Kemah, be returned to him, a father-son relationship would start between them, and that he would help Bayezid against Christian forces. The two exchanged many letters, and many couriers came and went between them, but the attitude was always the same. Timur demanded that Bayezid bow down and accept his superiority,

while Bayezid refused and kept stating how ready he was for a battle.

c. Start of the Battle

Even though all of his advisors and court officials urged him against it, Timur went ahead and captured Kemah, which Bayezid had refused to give to him, and gifted it to Emir Mutahharten. After this, while Timur still expressed that he would still be willing to make peace if Bayezid sent Kara Yusuf and one of his Sehzades to him, as proof of his allegiance, Bayezid refused this and instead sent an insulting, mocking letter which called him a "Kelb-i Akur" or a "Rabid Dog", and stated, "If you do not come face me after this, may all your wives divorce you with three tevak. If I do not come face you after this, may all my wives divorce me with three tevak." After he received this letter, Timur lost all hope of a peaceful solution to this debacle, preparing himself for all-out war with Sultan Yıldırım Bayezid. Before sending the courier back, Timur said the following words for him to take back to Sultan Bayezid: "Osmanoğlu is a mad idiot. The advice I gave to him fell on deaf ears, so I captured Kemah without needing his approval. Now, because of his refusal to bow and deliver to me Kara Yusuf, whom I have the right to prosecute, he shall from now on wait bravely and ready himself for my vengeance." 13 Right after he sent this message to Bayezid, Timur called for reinforcement troops from his lands in Asia Minor, as his current army wouldn't be able to withstand Bayezid's forces. Timur mobilized 160,000 soldiers in a matter of weeks and marched them around the Castle of Sivas to show his strength. Bayezid quickly mobilized his own army as well, collecting a military force of roughly 70,000 strong. With both armies mobilized and ready for battle, the sides began marching on each other and met in Ancyra, where the superior one would be decided once and for all.

6.3.3 The Battlefield

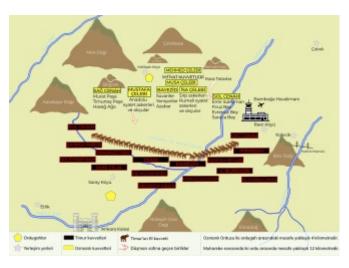
a. Army Numbers

Though there are many different estimates by different historians, it is most widely accepted that Timur's army consisted of around 160,000 soldiers, while Bayezid's numbered at roughly 70,000. The Timurid army was strong and well-trained,

consisting mostly of cavalry. There was a wide array of different kinds of troops, including infantry, archers, spearmen, cavalry, cavalry archers, and 32 elephants. These elephants, while they wouldn't be the deciding factor of the war, would be what engraved Timur's victory into legend. Sultan Bayezid's army consisted of many subdivisions commanded by his sons, and many troop kinds unique to the Ottomans. These troop types included Ghazis (Raiders), Janissaries, Sipahi (cavalries), etc.

b. The Battle Positioning

Bayezid reluctantly withdrew his forces from the blockade of Constantinople and marched them through the midsummer heat. When they arrived, they were tired and thirsty, but were allowed no time to rest or recuperate. Bayezid was advised by his generals to take up defensive positions and, when Timur's forces pushed back the Ottomans, to withdraw into the mountains and force Timur to break ranks and attempt to hunt the Ottomans in



their own terrain during the midsummer heat. Bayezid instead chose to take an offensive stance and marched eastward. Advancing Ottoman scouts found no traces of the Timurids, who secretly marched southwest, rested, and were situated to the rear of the Ottomans. The Timurids encamped in the same locations that the Ottomans had previously occupied, making use of abandoned tents and water sources.

Sultan Bayezid's battle plan and army positions for the beginning of the battle, which were highly criticized by his advisors for its dangerous

aggression in the Timurid army, Timur commanded the centre, his sons Miran and Rukh the right and left, respectively, and his grandsons the vanguard. In the Ottoman army, Bayezid commanded the center with Janissaries, his son Suleyman the left flank with the best troops, Stefan Lazarević the right with the Balkan troops, and his son Mehmed the rear guard.

c. Meeting of the Armies

The battle began with a large-scale attack from the Ottomans, countered by swarms of arrows from the Timurid horse archers. Several thousand were killed, and many

surrendered to Timur. Stefan Lazarević and his knights successfully fought off the Timurid assaults and cut through the Mongol ranks three times. Each time Stefan advised Bayezid to break out with him, Bayezid declined to do so. But the Serbians managed to save one of Bayezid's sons and the treasury from the Mongols and made their way to Constantinople. The Serbian troops wore heavy black plate armor, which was very effective against the Timurid arrows. Timur admired the Serbian troops who, according to him, "fight like lions". During the battle, the main water supply of both armies, Cubuk Creek, was diverted to an off-stream reservoir near the town of Cubuk by Timur, which left the Ottoman army with no water. The final battle took place at Catal Hill, dominating the Cubuk valley. The Ottoman army, both thirsty and tired, was defeated, though Bayezid managed to escape to the nearby mountains with a few hundred horsemen. However, Timur had the mountains surrounded and, heavily outnumbering Bayezid, soon captured him. After capturing him, Timur took Bayezid with him wherever he went, even taking him to his palace after his return. It is rumored that he treated Bayezid extremely well as a prisoner, with many luxuries no other prisoner had access to, but would constantly belittle and mock him for his defeat. It is also rumored that Bayezid committed suicide in captivity by drinking a deadly poison that he had been storing inside his ring, because of his humiliation.

7. Political Situation of 1402

For this committee, it is crucial to understand the political landscape and machinations at the start of the interregnum, as it was a rather unique and peculiar state of things during that time.

7.1 Internal Challenges of the Ottoman State

7.1.1 Fragmentation of State

a. Division of Territory

The empire was effectively divided among the sons of Bayezid I, each ruling over different territories. Suleyman Çelebi controlled the European provinces (Rumelia), Musa Çelebi governed parts of Anatolia, and Ahmed Çelebi and Mehmed Çelebi held other regions. This fragmentation weakened centralized authority and created multiple power centers within the empire.

b. Palace Intrigues

The imperial court experienced significant fragmentation, with rival factions aligning themselves with different claimants. Palace officials, including high-ranking bureaucrats and military leaders, were often involved in shifting allegiances, contributing to further instability.

7.1.2 Military and Administrative Disarray

a. Shifts in Military Loyalties

The lack of a single, strong sultan led to shifting loyalties among the military elite. Commanders and soldiers who had previously been loyal to Bayezid I were now divided among the competing claimants. This weakened the Ottoman military's effectiveness and hindered its ability to respond to external threats and internal unrest.

b. Administrative Breakdown

The fragmented control over the empire led to administrative disarray. The provincial governors (beys) and other officials were often more focused on supporting their preferred claimant than on maintaining effective governance. This lack of cohesive administration contributed to economic difficulties and lawlessness in various regions.

7.1.3 Economic and Social Impacts

a. Economic Disruption

The internal strife and lack of centralized control led to economic disruptions. Trade routes were often unsafe, and economic activities in some regions were severely impacted. The instability also affected agricultural production and revenue collection.

b. Social Unrest

The power struggle created social unrest and insecurity among the populace. The constant conflicts and changes in administration led to local instability, affecting both urban and rural communities.

7.2 Outer Relations of the Ottoman State

7.2.1 Balkan Relations

Though the civil war left the Ottoman State in a power vacuum that was very easy to take advantage of, the Balkans were where the state suffered the least amount of land loss during the Fetret Devri. This was thanks to the strong assimilation policy of the state, which saw many Turkmens and other Muslim peoples placed into newly conquered territories, and also the great tolerance and understanding shown to the inhabitants of the conquered provinces. Even

though many European states tried desperately to manipulate local governors and people in the Balkans to rebel against Ottoman rule, these attempts yielded no success. And as the Europeans were spending all their resources on the currently ongoing Hundred Years War, the Ottoman State faced no trouble in the Balkans.

7.2.2 Anatolian Relations

After the death of Sultan Bayezid and the start of the Ottoman Interregnum, the former Anatolian Beyliks didn't hesitate to take advantage of the subsequent power gap, quickly trying to rebuild their states.

a. Anatolian Beyliks

After the Battle of Ankara, many of the beyliks that Bayezid I had previously subdued regained their independence. Most of them managed this by pledging their allegiance to the Timurid Empire and becoming vassals. These beyliks were:

- Saruhanoğulları
- Menteşeoğulları
- Etna
- Karamanoğulları
- Germiyanoğulları
- Aydınoğulları
- Hamitoğulları

b. Timurid Influence

The power gap that was created in the Anatolian Region was naturally filled by the Timurid Empire. Emir Timur gathered all the former beys of Anatolian Beyliks and reinstated them as vassal states. He also took every one of Bayezid's sons under his command, making them Emirs of various provinces, thus solidifying his clear control over the region.

7.2.3 Middle Eastern Relations

In the year 1402, there was only one big nation in the Middle East that ruled over most of the region, the Mamluke Sultanate. While the Ottoman State formed friendly relations with the Mamlukes during Sultan Bayezid's reign, they were broken in an instant when Bayezid I entered and sacked Mamluke lands in Anatolia unannounced. Moreover, the Mamluke Sultanate was previously devastated by a severe defeat they suffered against the armies of Emir Timur, thus, they opted to steer clear of Middle Eastern politics and instead focused on their footholds in Africa.

8. Summarized Timeline of Events

The Ottoman Interregnum, also known as the "Fetret Devri," was a pivotal and turbulent period in Ottoman history, marked by civil war, political fragmentation, and the struggle for the survival of the Ottoman state. This period followed the catastrophic defeat of Sultan Bayezid I at the hands of Timur (Tamerlane) in the Battle of Ankara in 1402, a battle that nearly brought the fledgling Ottoman Empire to its knees. Sultan Bayezid I, known as "Yıldırım" (the Thunderbolt) for his swift military campaigns, ascended to the Ottoman throne in 1389 after the death of his father, Murad I, at the Battle of Kosovo. Bayezid was an ambitious ruler who rapidly expanded the Ottoman Empire's territories in the Balkans and Anatolia. He successfully consolidated Ottoman control over key regions, including the incorporation of the Serbian Despotate as a vassal state and the annexation of Bulgarian territories. Bayezid's military successes earned him a formidable reputation, but they also set the stage for his eventual downfall. Bayezid's expansionist policies inevitably led to conflict with Timur, the powerful Central Asian conqueror who sought to assert his dominance over the Middle East and Anatolia. Timur's empire stretched from the Caucasus to India, and his ambition clashed with Bayezid's desire to control the same territories. The two rulers, both seeing themselves as heirs to the legacy of the Mongol conquests, were destined for a confrontation. The Battle of Ankara in 1402 was one of the most significant military engagements of the era. Bayezid's forces, though numerous and experienced, were no match for Timur's well-organized and tactically superior army. The battle ended in a decisive defeat for the Ottomans, with Bayezid himself captured and taken prisoner by Timur. Bayezid's capture and subsequent death in captivity a year later plunged the Ottoman Empire into chaos, as the sultan left no clear successor to the throne. Fragmentation and the Rise of Bayezid's Sons. With Bayezid's defeat and capture, the central authority of the Ottoman Empire disintegrated. The empire, which had been held together by the military prowess and political acumen of its sultans, now faced an existential crisis. Bayezid's sons—Süleyman, İsa, Musa, and Mehmed—each claimed the right to succeed their father, leading to a decade-long civil war known as the Ottoman Interregnum.

9. Competitors for the Ottoman Throne

9.1 Çelebi Mehmet

Çelebi Mehmet was the son of Sultan Bayezid from his second marriage to Devlet Hatun, who was a direct descendant of the well-respected Islamic scholar Mevlana, thus earning Mehmet and his brother the prefix Çelebi. Beginning at the age of twelve, Mehmet constantly took part in battles alongside his father, Sultan Bayezid. During his very first battle in 1391, as a part of the Canik Campaign, he was sent to take control of the city of Amasya with an army under his command, which he completed with astonishing success. As a reward, he was appointed the Bannerlord of

Amasya by his father and continued this duty until the Battle of Ankara in 1402. In the year 1403, one year after the beginning of the Fetret Devri, Mehmet pledged his allegiance to Emir Timur as a way of securing his way to the throne. Even though he hated bowing to the man who humiliated his father, Mehmet fought the civil war as a vassal of the Timurid Empire, for the sake of the Devlet-i Aliyye. He was appointed the Emir of Amasya, his former sanjak, the same year.

9.1.1 Mehmet Çelebi During the Ottoman Interregnum KEY EVENTS AND ACTIONS (1402–1413):

1. Return to Amasya and Power Base in Eastern Anatolia (1402–1403):

After Timur's release of Bayezid's sons, Mehmed returned to his governorship in Amasya.

He began to build support among local Turkish beyliks and ghazi warriors. Established a stable and well-administered base, gaining popularity through just governance.

2. Conflict with İsa Çelebi (1403-1406):

İsa Çelebi controlled Bursa, a major rival to Mehmed's Anatolian ambitions.

Open warfare broke out between them.

Mehmed defeated İsa at the Battle of Ulubad, causing İsa's downfall and eventual execution.

3. Conflict with Süleyman Çelebi (1406–1410):

Süleyman, based in Edirne (Rumelia), launched several campaigns into Anatolia. Mehmed lost territory but held firm in eastern Anatolia.

Used guerrilla tactics and local alliances to resist Süleyman's advances.

4. Alliance with Musa Çelebi (1411):

Sent his brother Musa to Rumelia to challenge Süleyman.

Musa succeeded in defeating and killing Süleyman in 1411.

5. Conflict with Musa Çelebi (1411–1413):

After taking control of Rumelia, Musa turned against Mehmed and declared himself sultan.

Musa ruled from Edirne, but his harsh policies alienated allies.

6. Battle of Çamurlu (1413):

Mehmed crossed the Bosphorus, united with former opponents (including the Byzantines), and defeated Musa near Samokov in modern-day Bulgaria. Musa fled but was captured and killed.

STRATEGIES AND TACTICS:

- Strategic Patience and Timing: Mehmed avoided early overextension. He consolidated power region by region.
- Forming and Breaking Alliances: Used alliances with beyliks, Byzantines, and even family members (like Musa) to eliminate rivals.
- Balanced Governance: Unlike other brothers, Mehmed ruled with a reputation for justice, diplomacy, and stability.
- Military Adaptability: Skilled in both defensive resistance and offensive campaigns.

Used the terrain of Anatolia effectively to counter larger armies.

ADVANTAGES:

- Solid power base in Amasya.
- Popular with the people and Islamic scholars.
- Strategic and thoughtful leadership.
- Built strong alliances over time.

DISADVANTAGES:

- Isolated in the early years, far from Rumelia's resources.
- Faced pressure from multiple fronts (İsa, Süleyman, then Musa).
- Depended on foreign alliances, including Byzantines, which some criticized.

LEGACY:

- In 1413, after defeating all his brothers, Mehmed was crowned Sultan Mehmed I, the 5th Ottoman sultan.
- He reunified the Ottoman Empire, ending over a decade of fragmentation.
- His reign is seen as a restoration of Ottoman order and power after near collapse.

9.2 Musa Çelebi

Musa Çelebi was the direct brother of Mehmet, from the same mother, which is the reason he also has the name Çelebi. Musa Çelebi was an unlucky survivor of the Battle of Ankara, being captured by Timur alongside his father. However, after his father Bayezid's death in 1403, he was appointed as Emir of Bursa by Timur and sent back there along with his father's casket for a proper funeral. Upon arrival, he saw the

city taken over by his brother İsa Çelebi. Musa subsequently went on to besiege and capture the city of Bursa, establishing his control over the historic city. 16 However, the same year, his brother came back with a stronger army for a rematch, attacked and decimated Musa's forces, and took control of Bursa back. After his humiliating defeat, Musa Çelebi fled into hiding and was taken in by the ruler of the Karamanoğulları as a diplomatic guest.

9.2.1 Musa Çelebi and His Role During the Ottoman Interregnum

Key Events and Actions of Musa Çelebi:

1. Early Years and Capture at Ankara (1402):

Musa Çelebi was captured alongside his father, Bayezid I, by Timur after the Battle of Ankara.

He was later released by Timur and went to the Germiyanid court in western Anatolia.

2. Alliance with Mehmed Celebi (c. 1406-1411):

Initially, Musa formed an alliance with his brother Mehmed Çelebi (later Mehmed I), who controlled eastern Anatolia. Together, they opposed their brothers İsa and Süleyman. Musa helped Mehmed defeat İsa Çelebi, who was ruling in Bursa. İsa was killed around 1406.

3. Sent to Fight Süleyman Çelebi in Rumelia (1411):

After İsa's death, Süleyman Çelebi, based in Edirne (in Rumelia, the European part of the empire), remained a major rival. Mehmed sent Musa across the Bosphorus to Rumelia to fight Süleyman.

Musa raised an army with the help of local supporters and defeated Süleyman in 1411 near Edirne.

Süleyman was killed, and Musa took control of Rumelia, ruling as an independent sultan.

4. Rule in Rumelia and Tyranny (1411-1413):

Once in power in Edirne, Musa declared himself sultan and began ruling independently from Mehmed.

However, his rule became increasingly oppressive. He acted harshly against nobles who had supported Süleyman. He strained relations with the Byzantine Empire by attacking Constantinople, which caused diplomatic tensions. These actions alienated former allies and caused unrest among the population.

5. Conflict with Mehmed Celebi (1413):

Relations with Mehmed deteriorated, leading to civil war. In 1413, Mehmed Çelebi crossed into Rumelia with an army. The decisive battle took place near Çamurlu, close to present-day Samokov (in Bulgaria). Musa was defeated and killed in battle.

Legacy:

- Musa Çelebi ruled as an independent sultan in Rumelia but was never recognized as the sole ruler of the Ottoman Empire.
- His reign was marked by both military skill and political brutality.
- After his death in 1413, Mehmed Çelebi became Mehmed I, the undisputed sultan, and reunified the empire, officially ending the Interregnum.

9.2.2 Musa Çelebi: Advantages and Disadvantages Advantages:

- Support from Mehmed Çelebi (Initially): Early in the Interregnum, Musa had the strong backing of his brother Mehmed, who provided troops and legitimacy for his campaign in Rumelia.
- Military Experience: Musa was experienced in warfare, having fought in numerous battles. He was effective in organizing troops and launching offensives.
- Strategic Use of Surprise: He successfully used surprise attacks, especially when defeating Süleyman Çelebi in Rumelia.
- Control of Rumelia (After 1411):After Süleyman's death, Musa controlled the powerful and wealthy European side of the empire, giving him a strong base.
- Popular Among Anti-Byzantine Elements: His hostility toward the Byzantine Empire earned him the support of some factions who disliked Ottoman cooperation with Byzantium.

Disadvantages:

- Harsh and Tyrannical Rule: Musa's oppressive rule alienated nobles and former allies, leading to loss of internal support.
- Strained Diplomatic Relations: Attacking Constantinople and treating allies harshly weakened his diplomatic position and provoked wider opposition.

- Limited Naval Power: Unlike Mehmed and Süleyman, Musa lacked strong naval capabilities, making it harder to control the Bosphorus and engage in seabased strategy.
- Isolated After Losing Allies:Once his alliance with Mehmed collapsed, Musa became politically isolated.
- Failed to Build Long-Term Legitimacy: He never gained broad recognition as sultan across the whole empire, unlike Mehmed I, who ultimately unified the Ottoman territories.

TACTICS USED BY MUSA ÇELEBI:

- Guerrilla Warfare & Ambushes: Musa often relied on ambush tactics and rapid strikes, especially against larger forces like Süleyman's.
- Use of Surprise in Major Battles: His victory over Süleyman in 1411 was largely due to surprise maneuvers and exploiting Süleyman's overconfidence.
- Political Elimination of Rivals: He didn't hesitate to eliminate or punish former supporters of his rivals to consolidate power.
- Siege and Pressure on Constantinople: Musa attempted to besiege Constantinople to weaken Byzantine-Ottoman relations, pressuring Byzantium for support.
- Quick Mobilization and Adaptation: Though lacking full imperial resources,
 Musa quickly mobilized local forces and adapted to battlefield conditions well.

9.3 İsa Çelebi

İsa Çelebi was a direct brother of Mehmet, from the same mother, which is why he has the name Çelebi. At the ripe age of ten, İsa was appointed as a Bannerlord to Teke/Antalya and continued that duty until 1402. He fought in the center forces during the Battle of Ankara, being directly inside of the battle. After Timur's left-wing armies surrounded the center forces of Bayezid's army, he was almost captured but was rescued by the sudden offense of Ottoman viziers. After his defeat and flight in the Battle of Ankara, İsa Çelebi made his way to Bursa and started ruling as the Emir of the city. However, in a matter of weeks, Timur's armies reached Bursa and sacked it, deposing İsa and instating his brother Musa as Emir in the process. After his

banishment from Bursa, İsa gathered up a stronger force to challenge his brother. He besieged and entered the city of Bursa, and forcefully took it back from his brother, forcing him into hiding. This show of courage and strength impressed Timur, who afterwards named İsa Çelebi Emir of Bursa.

9.3.1 İsa Çelebi During the Ottoman Interregnum

KEY EVENTS AND ACTIONS OF ISA ÇELEBI (1402–1406):

- 1. Claiming Power in Anatolia (1402–1403): After Bayezid's capture, İsa returned from Timur's camp and quickly took control of Bursa. Declared himself ruler of western Anatolia, setting up a base of operations. Bursa had symbolic importance as a former Ottoman capital.
- 2. Conflict with Mehmed Çelebi (1403–1405): His younger brother Mehmed Çelebi, based in Amasya, became his main rival in Anatolia. The brothers initially attempted peace but quickly broke into open conflict.
- 3. Battle of Ulubad (c. 1405–1406): İsa and Mehmed clashed near Ulubad, close to Bursa.

Mehmed Çelebi decisively defeated İsa in battle. İsa's army collapsed, and he fled the battlefield.

4. Attempted Recovery and Death (1406): After his defeat, İsa tried to regroup and regain power by appealing to local beyliks and lords. However, his support eroded rapidly due to his previous arrogance and harsh treatment of allies. He was eventually captured and killed by Mehmed's forces (likely strangled on Mehmed's orders) around 1406.

STRATEGIES AND POLICIES:

Strengths:

- Controlled a wealthy and strategic region early in the Interregnum.
- Had administrative legitimacy due to his rule over Bursa.

Weaknesses:

- Lacked broad alliances, especially with neighboring powers or other brothers.
- Underestimated Mehmed, both militarily and politically.
- Known to be cruel and autocratic, which led to the loss of trust among allies and local leaders.

TACTICS USED BY İSA ÇELEBI:

- Conventional Warfare: Relied on traditional Ottoman military methods; lacked creativity in battlefield tactics.
- Direct Confrontation: Rather than negotiating or stalling, he sought open battle with Mehmed, which backfired.
- Authoritarian Rule: Tried to rule with firm control in Bursa but alienated key supporters through strict and arrogant behavior.
- No Significant Diplomacy: Unlike Süleyman or Musa, İsa did not engage in foreign diplomacy or build outside alliances.

LEGACY:

- İsa Çelebi was one of the first brothers to be eliminated during the Interregnum.
- His downfall allowed Mehmed Çelebi to consolidate power in Anatolia.
- His rule is often viewed as a short-lived and poorly managed bid for power during a period of intense internal rivalry.

9.4 Süleyman Çelebi

Born in 1377 as the oldest son of Sultan Yıldırım Bayezid, he wasn't a full brother to the other competitors. Süleyman was born out of Bayezid's first marriage, thus, he didn't use the Çelebi name. Süleyman fought alongside his father in many battles, most notable of which was the critical Battle of Niğbolu, where he commanded the right wing cavalry together with Çandarlı Ali Paşa. He showed great versatility and military brilliance in this battle, earning his father's good graces. Şehzade Süleyman was also a key commander in the Battle of Ankara, where he commanded the left wing armies against Timur. However, he was forced to retreat when the enemy proved stronger, leading to his father, Sultan Bayezid, and his half-brother, Musa Çelebi, being captured. After the Battle of Ankara, Süleyman took off along with Çandarlı Ali Paşa to the Balkans, where he would establish himself as the Sultan-ı Rumeli, or the Sultan of the Balkans, by 1403.

9.4.1 Süleyman Çelebi During the Ottoman Interregnum Key Events and Actions of Süleyman Çelebi(1402–1411):

1. Establishing Control in Rumelia (1402–1403):

After Bayezid's capture, Süleyman escaped from the battlefield and fled to Gallipoli, then crossed to Edirne, where he took control of Rumelia (Ottoman European territories). He declared himself sultan in Edirne, acting independently from his

brothers in Anatolia. He signed treaties with the Byzantines and other Balkan powers to secure his western front: He returned lands to the Byzantine Empire, including Thessaloniki. He made deals with Serbian and Bulgarian rulers to avoid conflict.

2. Diplomatic Strategy and Legitimacy:

Süleyman used diplomacy to gain recognition as the legitimate sultan, especially from Christian powers. His treaty with the Byzantines helped ensure safe passage between Europe and Anatolia through the Dardanelles.

3. Campaigns in Anatolia (1404–1406):

He launched military expeditions into Anatolia to reclaim lands from his brothers. Defeated his brother İsa Çelebi, who briefly ruled in Bursa. Took control of Western Anatolia, including Bursa and Ankara.

4. Conflict with Mehmed Çelebi (1406–1410): Mehmed Çelebi, based in Amasya, resisted Süleyman's advance into Central Anatolia. Süleyman failed to defeat Mehmed, despite launching multiple campaigns. Eventually, he withdrew back to Rumelia around 1410, frustrated by Mehmed's resistance and support from local beyliks.

5. Decline and Fall (1411):

While Süleyman was focused on Anatolia, Musa Çelebi, sent by Mehmed, crossed into Rumelia and began gaining support. Süleyman underestimated Musa and lost key allies in Europe due to his autocratic style and favoritism toward Christian lords. In 1411, Musa's forces defeated Süleyman near Edirne. Süleyman tried to flee but was captured and executed by Musa's men.

SUMMARY OF STRATEGIES AND POLICIES:

Advantages/Strengths:

- Controlled Rumelia, the most stable and economically powerful part of the empire after Ankara.
- Skilled in diplomacy, especially with European powers.
- Used treaties to ensure temporary peace and strengthen his legitimacy.

Weaknesses:

- Too reliant on Christian allies, which created resentment among Muslim subjects.
- Could not secure lasting victories in Anatolia.
- Failed to assess Musa's threat seriously.
- Lost support due to arrogance and favoritism.

LEGACY:

- Süleyman Çelebi ruled Edirne and Rumelia as a powerful prince but was never able to unify the empire.
- His fall marked a turning point, as the power shifted back to Mehmed Çelebi, who later became Mehmed I, the reunifier of the Ottoman state.

9.5 Mustafa Çelebi

Advantages:

- Presence with Timur after Ankara (1402): Following the Battle of Ankara, Mustafa Çelebi was taken by Timur to Samarkand along with his father Bayezid I. This move likely preserved his life and allowed him to avoid the initial chaos of the Interregnum. His survival meant that he remained a potential claimant to the throne when other brothers were engaged in fratricidal warfare.
- Perceived Legitimacy through Bayezid Lineage: Being the son of Bayezid I, Mustafa retained dynastic legitimacy. Upon his reappearance in the 1410s, he was able to rally some support in Rumelia and Anatolia by emphasizing his direct descent and his status as a prince spared by Timur.
- Backing from External Powers (Later Period): Though not immediately active during the Interregnum, in his later campaigns (particularly after 1415), he received significant support from the Byzantine Empire and certain Balkan lords, who saw him as a useful tool against Mehmed I and later Murad II.
- Political Symbol for Anti-Mehmed Factions:
 For factions dissatisfied with Mehmed's rule—especially in
 Rumelia—Mustafa served as a rallying figure. His return from exile was framed as a restoration of a legitimate heir, which allowed him to gain temporary momentum.

Disadvantages:

- Absence from the Early Struggles:

 By being taken to Samarkand, Mustafa missed the crucial years of civil war (1402–1413), during which his brothers built military networks, alliances, and legitimacy. This absence left him politically and militarily inexperienced.
- Limited Military Experience:
 Unlike Mehmed, Musa, or Süleyman, Mustafa had no significant battlefield

experience during the Interregnum. This lack of proven leadership undermined confidence among potential allies and soldiers.

- Dependent on Foreign Support:
 His campaigns often relied on Byzantine and external backing, which cast doubts on his loyalty to the Ottoman cause. This foreign dependency reduced
- Failure to Secure Widespread Support:

 Though he gained some ground during his later uprisings, Mustafa failed to establish broad or lasting support in either Anatolia or Rumelia. His rule, where briefly established, lacked administrative depth and cohesion. Lack of Clear
- Strategy or Vision: Compared to Mehmed's calculated diplomacy and Musa's aggressive tactics, Mustafa's movements appeared reactive rather than strategic. His inability to maintain momentum or implement lasting policies led to rapid declines in influence.

TACTICS USED BY MUSTAFA ÇELEBİ

his appeal among Turkish and Muslim elites.

- Political Messaging Through Dynastic Claims: Mustafa attempted to present himself as the rightful heir by invoking his lineage and survival from Timur's court. He emphasized being a son of Bayezid who had been spared, casting himself as divinely protected.
- Use of Foreign Alliances (Especially Byzantium): He cooperated closely with the Byzantine Empire, particularly during his return to Rumelia. The Byzantines facilitated his transport across the Bosphorus and provided strategic aid, hoping to destabilize Mehmed's authority.
- Attempted Coup in Rumelia: In 1415 and again in 1421 (after Mehmed I's death), Mustafa tried to incite rebellion in the Balkans and seize Edirne. His tactics included mobilizing local discontent and exploiting political vacuums, but these efforts were short-lived.

Inability to Mobilize Loyalist Forces Effectively:
 Despite his royal lineage, Mustafa failed to form a strong, disciplined military core. His campaigns collapsed quickly under pressure from loyalist forces led by Mehmed I and later Murad II.

Lack of Tactical Adaptability:

Unlike Musa Çelebi, who often employed ambushes and rapid strikes, Mustafa displayed little tactical innovation. His battlefield defeats, such as at the Siege of Gallipoli and later at Edirne, were due in part to poor coordination and planning.

Significance of Being Taken by Timur

The fact that Mustafa Çelebi was taken to Samarkand by Timur following the Ottoman defeat at the Battle of Ankara in 1402 is a historically significant episode that profoundly shaped both his personal trajectory and his limited political role during the Ottoman Interregnum. Unlike his brothers—Mehmed, Musa, İsa, and Süleyman—who immediately entered into conflict for territorial control and dynastic supremacy, Mustafa was physically removed from the empire's power centers and isolated from both Anatolian and Balkan politics for more than a decade.

This displacement had several critical consequences:

Protection from Immediate Elimination:

By being taken to Central Asia, Mustafa was effectively removed from the brutal struggle that erupted among his brothers. During the Interregnum, it was common for rivals to be imprisoned, blinded, or executed to eliminate threats to the throne. Mustafa's physical absence spared him from this immediate fate. In that sense, Timur's decision can be seen as inadvertently preserving an "emergency claimant" to the throne.

Loss of Political Capital and Experience:

However, this survival came at a significant cost. During the Interregnum, political legitimacy was not inherited—it was actively constructed through alliances, military victories, and administrative competence. While his brothers built their networks, negotiated with foreign powers, and gained the loyalty of local elites, Mustafa remained a passive figure far removed from these dynamics. As a result, he returned to Ottoman lands as a stranger to both the court and the army.

Lack of Loyal Military and Bureaucratic Support:

Because he was absent during the years when positions of power were being redefined, Mustafa did not possess a strong following among Ottoman soldiers, governors, or scholars. His later attempts to claim the throne were therefore dependent on external actors—such as the Byzantine Empire—who supported him for their own strategic interests. This lack of an independent power base made his campaigns appear externally manufactured rather than organically driven.

Delayed Claim to the Throne and Identity Crisis:

Mustafa's return to the political stage occurred only after Mehmed I had already reunited the empire and reestablished central authority. Thus, Mustafa's bid for the throne seemed not only belated but also destabilizing. Many contemporaries viewed him not as a legitimate unifier, but as a tool of foreign powers or a usurper threatening newly restored order.

Timur's Motive and Long-Term Impact:

Timur's decision to take Mustafa may have been strategic. By keeping a member of the Ottoman dynasty as a kind of "hostage prince," Timur preserved leverage over the fractured empire. Although Timur died in 1405, and Mustafa was eventually released or escaped, the long-term impact of this maneuver was that it contributed to the fragmentation of the Ottoman dynasty and introduced a future pretender who would later challenge both Mehmed I and Murad II.

In conclusion, Mustafa's removal to Samarkand placed him outside the foundational struggles of the early 15th century Ottoman realm. While it initially safeguarded his life, it also stripped him of the experience, relationships, and credibility needed to establish a durable claim to power. His historical legacy, therefore, is not of a central figure in the Interregnum, but of a late-arriving prince whose presence symbolized both the unresolved tensions of the era and the vulnerability of dynastic legitimacy in times of civil war.

9.6 Major Battles and Key Diplomatic Developments During the Ottoman Interregnum

1. Battle of Ulubat (1403)

Following the Battle of Ankara, Mehmed Çelebi—based in Amasya with Timur's

sanction—confronted his first significant rival, İsa Çelebi, who had established authority in Bursa and its surroundings. The two brothers clashed near Ulubat, where Mehmed decisively defeated İsa. The latter fled but was later captured and executed. This battle marked Mehmed's first major victory and allowed him to seize Bursa, significantly strengthening his claim to the Ottoman throne.

2. Conflicts in Karahisar and Western Anatolia (1403–1405)

After eliminating İsa, Mehmed turned his attention to consolidating his control over Western Anatolia. He engaged in multiple skirmishes with local forces loyal to rival factions, particularly the supporters of Musa Çelebi and regional beyliks like the Germiyanoğulları. These campaigns allowed Mehmed to solidify his dominance over Anatolia and expand his territorial base.

3. Battle of Kosovo (circa 1409)

While Süleyman Çelebi retained power in Rumelia, Musa Çelebi crossed into the region, likely with covert support from Mehmed. Musa confronted the Serbian Despot Stefan Lazarević near Kosovo and emerged victorious, enhancing his influence in the Balkans. This success helped Musa challenge Süleyman's authority in the European provinces of the empire.

4. Siege and Battle of Edirne (1411)

Musa Çelebi eventually launched a direct offensive against Süleyman. In the ensuing battle near Edirne, Musa defeated and killed him, subsequently taking control of Edirne. Though this consolidated Musa's power in Rumelia, his harsh and centralizing policies soon alienated many of the Balkan principalities.

5. Battle of Camurlu (July 5, 1413)

Due to Musa's increasingly authoritarian rule, several Balkan rulers—including Despot Stefan Lazarević—shifted their allegiance to Mehmed Çelebi. With the support of Balkan allies and the Byzantine Empire, Mehmed crossed into Rumelia and engaged Musa in battle near Samokov. Musa was defeated and killed in this decisive confrontation. The victory allowed Mehmed to reunify the Ottoman Empire and

marked the end of the Interregnum.

1. Timur's Partition of Anatolia (Post-1402)

After the Battle of Ankara, Timur divided the Ottoman territories among Bayezid's sons. Mehmed was given Amasya, İsa took control of Bursa, Süleyman governed from Edirne, and Musa gained prominence later with support from regional factions. This partition was the immediate cause of the civil war and legitimized each prince's claim to sovereignty.

2. Relations with the Byzantine Empire

Süleyman Çelebi sought diplomatic support from Emperor Manuel II Palaiologos in exchange for significant concessions, such as the lifting of the siege of Constantinople and commercial privileges in Galata. These arrangements ensured Byzantine backing for Süleyman's claim and signaled a rare moment of deep Byzantine involvement in Ottoman internal affairs.

3. Serbian Alliances

Despot Stefan Lazarević initially supported Süleyman Çelebi but later turned against Musa Çelebi due to the latter's increasingly autocratic policies. Stefan then allied with Mehmed, providing crucial military assistance during the final phase of the Interregnum. This alliance was instrumental in Mehmed's ultimate victory at Çamurlu.

4. Relations with Anatolian Beyliks

Mehmed Çelebi carefully managed his relations with neighboring Anatolian beyliks. He secured the support of the Germiyanoğulları through diplomacy, while the Karamanids remained mostly hostile. Nevertheless, Mehmed avoided full-scale confrontation and instead maintained a balance through strategic negotiations and limited engagements.

These military and diplomatic developments illustrate that the Interregnum was not merely a dynastic civil war, but a complex period involving strategic alliances, regional rivalries, and efforts to reconstitute central authority over a fragmented polity.

9.6.1 Key Geopolitical Zones During the Ottoman Interregnum

Anatolia

The Anatolian Peninsula was formerly completely under Ottoman control, but following Bayezid I's defeat, the region saw a rise of autonomy among Turkish beyliks (principalities). Many beyliks, including Karaman, Germiyan, and Aydın, aspired to regain lands taken by Bayezid. Anatolia's political disintegration led to an unstable climate with shifting allegiances and opportunistic rulers balancing support between the Çelebi brothers.

The Balkans

This region was a mosaic of Christian vassal states, Ottoman-controlled territories, and autonomous principalities. Many Balkan countries were brought under Ottoman administration during Bayezid's reign, but after his death, many local rulers attempted to renegotiate their positions. The area played an important role in the Interregnum, with Balkan leaders backing various claims based on promises of autonomy, security, or territory gain.

Rumelia

Often known as the Ottoman territories in Europe, was a thriving economic zone with major cities such as Edirne and Thessaloniki. Süleyman Çelebi used it as his administrative and military base. Rumelia's commercial connections and tax income made it an attractive prize in the contest for power. Furthermore, the region's closeness to European powers made it a diplomatic hotspot, attracting attention from both the Byzantines and Western Christendom.

10. Characters

Mehmed Çelebi: Following the disintegration of the Ottoman throne after Timur's victory at the Battle of Ankara, Mehmed Çelebi became the sultan who ended the Interregnum period. He emerged victorious from a long series of civil wars with his brothers and re-centralized the state. He is considered the second founder of the Ottoman Empire.

Bayezid Paşa: One of Mehmed Çelebi's most loyal and competent statesmen. His skill and strategic intelligence in battles earned him the position of vizier. He played crucial roles in both internal security and the reconstruction of the state.

Beyazıtoğlu Yakup Bey: A son of Yıldırım Bayezid and brother of Mehmed Çelebi. His loyalty and influence around Amasya strengthened Mehmed's military and political power. He played a vital role in securing regional support and worked in harmony with his brother.

İshak Paşa: Known for his knowledge in legal and administrative reforms, İshak Pasha was influential in governance. He later served as grand vizier under Murad II as well. His experience and composed demeanor made him one of the cabinet's senior figures.

Sadeddin Efendi: A prominent religious scholar of the time. As one of the leading members of the ulema around Mehmed Çelebi, he was instrumental in ensuring

religious legitimacy. His strong ties to the madrasa circles gave him both scholarly and political influence.

Kara Timurtaş Bey: The son of Timurtaş Pasha, he supported Mehmed Çelebi in military campaigns and conquests, taking on commanding roles. A strong warrior and loyal statesman.

Taceddinoğlu Mehmed Bey: An influential lord in the Black Sea region. His alliance with Mehmed Çelebi brought stability to the region and secured the support of northern Anatolian Turkmen lords.

Çandarlı İbrahim Paşa: A powerful member of the long-serving Çandarlı family. İbrahim Pasha contributed to Mehmed's central authority through his bureaucratic expertise.

Ahmed Bey: A castle commander near the Karaman border. He lost his family during Timur's invasion and vowed to fight for Ottoman unity. His unwavering loyalty made him a reliable field commander who avoids political intrigue and acts within a strict chain of command.

Hasan Fakih bin Yakub: A scholar educated in a madrasa in Saruhan, specializing in religious and legal sciences. He works to boost Mehmed's religious legitimacy among the people and travels Anatolia to promote peace and unity. His mystical views earn him respect, particularly among the Ahi circles.

Bahaeddin Bey el-Rûmî: A high-ranking officer from the Rûm province. He previously served under Bayezid I and drew Mehmed Çelebi's attention with his military achievements. Now serves as a military advisor and strategist, particularly known for his expertise in sieges and defensive warfare. His strict discipline and honesty earn him respect within the army.

Süleyman Çelebi:

He is the eldest son of Yıldırım Bayezid and maintained Ottoman authority in Rumelia after the Battle of Ankara. He established a government centered in Edirne and built strong relations with Christian lords in the Balkans. He is known for his political acumen, diplomatic skill, and quick decisiveness.

Çandarlı Ali Paşa:

A vizier from the famous Çandarlı family, he served not only Süleyman but also previous Ottoman sultans. With his experience in state affairs and knowledge in law and administration, he helped establish Süleyman's political stability.

Evrenosoğlu Mehmed Bey: The son of Evrenos Bey, he is an important raider (akinci

bey) in Rumelia. He

contributed significantly to Süleyman Çelebi's military dominance in the Balkans and was known for leading swift cavalry units.

Mihaloğlu Mehmed Bey:

A member of the Mihaloğlu family, like Evrenosoğlu, he is a famed commander and raider in Rumelia. He played a leading role in military operations and was instrumental in defending and expanding Süleyman's territories.

Yahşi Bey:

A local Ottoman administrator in Rumelia, he took on both military and administrative duties. He cooperated with local beys to strengthen Süleyman's political power.

Şeyh Hüsrev al-Rumi:

One of the renowned Sufi scholars of the time. He provided spiritual support to Süleyman Çelebi, strengthening his legitimacy among the people. He was an influential figure in religious circles.

Ali Fakih bin Sinan:

One of the leading Islamic jurists (faqih) of the era, respected to the degree of being a potential candidate for the position of Sheikh al-Islam. He helped reinforce Süleyman Çelebi's decisions with religious rulings and fatwas. Nikolaos of Skopje: A Christian

leader in the Balkans, Nikolaos was one of the regional rulers who allied with Süleyman. He joined the cabinet to promote diplomacy and preserve regional peace.

Osman Bey:

Osman Bey is a brave and passionate warrior descended from a former frontier beylik in Western Anatolia. Following in his father's footsteps, he maintained justice and order in his region and was trained in military discipline from a young age. Although part of Süleyman's cabinet here, his original loyalty was to Musa Çelebi, whose authority he supported in Anatolia by persuading surrounding Turkmen tribes to join Musa's cause. He is widely respected for his honesty and bravery.

Selim Fakih bin Musa:

Educated at the Iznik Madrasa, Selim Fakih turned toward Sufism at a young age. He gained respect through his scholarship and spiritual connection with the people. Though originally aligned with İsa Çelebi, here he supports Süleyman, aiming to enhance his legitimacy in the eyes of the public. Known for his efforts to bring Islamic ethics into politics, he also had close ties to the Ahi brotherhood.

Yakub Bey al-Arnavuti:

Yakub Bey is a raider from the lands of Albania. He joined Ottoman service at a young age and took part in Süleyman Çelebi's campaigns in Rumelia. He became known for his disciplined and ruthless war tactics, while also forming diplomatic ties with local Balkan elements to strengthen Süleyman's influence. His title "al-Arnavuti" reflects both his loyalty and pride in his origins.

İsa Çelebi:

One of the sons of Yıldırım Bayezid, İsa established his authority in and around Bursa. He is a fast-acting and ambitious leader, but his political experience is limited. He failed to hold his ground in struggles against his brothers Mehmet and Musa.

Taceddinoğlu Mahmud Bey:

The leader of the Taceddinoğulları, a beylik on the Black Sea coast. He became an ally of İsa Çelebi and provided regional support. He commands strong tribal backing. Candaroğlu İsfendiyar Bey:

A powerful bey ruling over Kastamonu and surrounding areas, İsfendiyar Bey was one of İsa Çelebi's most important supporters along the Black Sea line. He was a critical ally in both political and military matters.

Celaleddin Efendi:

A renowned scholar of the era, Celaleddin was influential in madrasas and religious circles. He worked to provide İsa Çelebi with religious legitimacy, especially through legal rulings (fatwas).

Ahi Yusuf bin Abdullah:

A prominent figure of the Ahi Brotherhood, he directed the support of craftsmen and artisans toward İsa Çelebi. He contributed to maintaining social order and establishing economic structures.

Menteşeoğlu İlyas Bey:

A powerful bey in Western Anatolia who provided military support to İsa Çelebi, enhancing his influence in the Aegean region. As a figure involved in overseas trade, he also offered commercial assistance.

Emir Rüstem Bey:

A military leader from central Anatolia, he supported İsa Çelebi with troops and equipment. Known for his cavalry (sipahi) forces, he was a formidable military commander.

Emir Bekir bin Mahmud:

A Turkmen tribal chief from the Amasya region, he played an active role in İsa's regional rule with his loyalty and combat skills. He worked to bring peace and stability to his people.

Ömer Bey:

A prominent local leader from Western Anatolia with roots in an old frontier beylik. He proved himself on the battlefield from a young age and is known for his strategic thinking and discipline. Loyal to İsa Çelebi, he helped sway the Turkmen beys around Aydın and Saruhan to İsa's side and specialized in securing trade routes.

Bedreddin Fakih bin Ali:

A religious leader of Khorasani origin who grew up in Anatolia. Although originally aligned with Musa Çelebi, in this context he appears within İsa's cabinet. He served as both an ideological and spiritual guide, promoting justice, equality, and social solidarity. His ability to organize the masses offered strong legitimacy to the cause he supported.

Kara Davud Bey:

Born in Rumelia, Kara Davud proved himself in the Balkan wars as a commander and raider leader. Known for his harsh temperament, authority, and ruthlessness on the battlefield, he served on the front lines in Süleyman Çelebi's army. His name became known especially for his raids along the Serbian frontier. The epithet "Kara" ("black") symbolizes his ferocity and relentless nature. He was also skilled in reorganizing undisciplined troops in the Balkans.

Musa Çelebi: He is the son of Yıldırım Bayezid. After crossing into Rumeli, he fought against his brother Süleyman and captured Edirne. He was a strong military leader but struggled with establishing political balance. He ruled Edirne for a short period.

Şeyh Bedreddin: Sheikh Bedreddin was an important religious and political figure who emerged during the Fetret Period. He served as the qadiaskar of Musa Çelebi during the power struggle that began after Yıldırım Bayezid's defeat at the Battle of Ankara against Timur. His ideas of equality and populism gained attention during this chaotic period. He argued that people of different religions and ethnic backgrounds could live together based on common ownership, a view he spread widely during the authority vacuum in the Fetret Period. After Musa Çelebi's death, Bedreddin fell out of favor and in 1416 led a failed peasant rebellion, which resulted in his execution. Sheikh Bedreddin is a symbolic figure who proposed an alternative societal order in the midst of political turmoil.

Mihaloğlu Yahşi Bey: Yahşi Bey is one of Musa's strongest commanders in Rumeli. He is known for being a tough and decisive leader in battle. He was the most experienced figure in directing Musa's armies.

Balaban Bey: Balaban Bey is a Turkoman chieftain loyal to Musa. He played a crucial role in suppressing uprisings in the Balkans, ensuring Musa's influence in the region. Emir Süleyman bin Derviş: Emir Süleyman is a bey from the Saruhan region. He stands out due to his military experience and helped increase Musa's influence in Western Anatolia.

Molla Zekeriya el-Konevî: Molla Zekeriya is a religious figure from Konya. He was responsible for legitimizing Musa's religious foundations and had a significant influence on the people.

Despot Andronikos Dragas: Despot Andronikos Dragas is a feudal lord of Byzantine origin. He formed an alliance with Musa and helped maintain peace in the border regions.

Derviş Ali bin Hızır el-Balkānî: Derviş Ali is a leader of the Muslim groups in the Balkans. He pledged his loyalty to Musa and provided both military and religious support.

Hamza Bey el-Balkânî: Hamza Bey is a local leader of a small but strategic district in the Balkans. His family, who joined the Ottoman administration at an early age, is known for their loyalty. Hamza Bey supported Musa Çelebi against the resistance groups in Rumeli, and his strong ties with the local population helped establish

stability in the region. His political and military experience made him an indispensable member of the cabinet.

İlyas Fakih of Filibe: İlyas Fakih is an influential religious figure and jurist from Filibe. He received his education in madrasas in his youth and later became a religious leader in Rumeli. He contributed significantly to Süleyman Çelebi's legitimacy and public support through his sermons. He is respected for his sense of justice and belief in Ottoman unity, and he also contributed ideologically by educating students in madrasas.

Şahin Bey bin Mahmud: Şahin Bey is a leader of the nomadic Türkmen tribes in central Anatolia. Known for his strong physique and charismatic personality, Şahin played a critical role in consolidating Mehmet Çelebi's influence in Anatolia. As a warrior who led cavalry units, he expanded Mehmet's support base through good relations with the local tribes. Among the tribes, he is known as the "Sword Bey."

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