

A historical painting depicting the Crusade of Varna. In the center, a large white outline of the letters 'JCC' is superimposed over the scene. The painting shows a group of men in medieval attire on a rocky shore. On the right, a man with a long white beard, wearing a red robe and a turban, sits on a brown horse, pointing towards the sea. To his left, a man in a red and gold robe stands with a sword. In the foreground, a white horse lies dead on the ground, and a man in green armor is lying face down. The background shows a blue sea with ships under a cloudy sky.

JCC

Crusade of Varna





Dear Delegates,

It is with great excitement that we welcome you to Yeni Yol Model United Nations 2023! Our names are Rana Beril Gülcü and Yağmur Onarlı, and we are humbled by the opportunity to serve as your Secretaries-General for the 2nd Session of YYMUN.

The Secretariat team has been working diligently to ensure that all delegates will be given the opportunity to develop broader perspectives, voice their opinions on current global issues, and cooperate with others to produce effective resolutions. We expect that the topics covered in the committees will appeal to all the delegates' levels or more challenging in Intermediate and Advanced committees so that they may provide challenge, helpful guidance to your needs and assistance to improve your visions. After an eventful weekend full of diplomacy, debate, and delight, we wish you to leave our conference with the potential to become future leaders of our society.

This document will provide you with the Study Guide for your committee, which will enable you to comprehend the issue to be debated more easily. The entire Secretariat and Staff have committed countless hours to ensure that the substance and presentation of this document are of the highest quality, and that you are supported with the most useful tools to succeed at the conference. Each Chair has worked over the past few months to provide you with the foundation necessary to continue your own exploration of the topic areas. We look forward to working with you to continue YYMUN's substantive excellence.

Apart from this document, you will also be able to access a number of additional documents that will aid in your preparations for the conference. We will provide you with the **Code of Conduct** that reviews some rules, principles and expectations, as well as our updated **Rules of Procedure**, which you can find on our website.

If you have any questions about this document, the other Guides, or your committee in general, please do not hesitate to contact us or your Under-Secretaries-General. We are truly excited to meet you all and are eager to address any concerns you may have before, during, or after the conference. I hope you enjoy reading the following Study Guide, and I cannot wait to see your solutions in YYMUN'23!

Yours in diplomacy,

Secretaries of General

Rana Beril Gülcü | Yağmur Onarlı

Security Guide for JCC: The Crusade Of Varna.

Introduction to the Committee

a. Definition

A Joint Crisis Committee is an interactive committee that consists of two cabinets or sides, each representing different sides of the same conflict. Each committee is made up of representatives of that side of the conflict, whose goal is to emerge 'victorious'. The actions of each committee will directly impact the development and decisions of the other committee.

b. In-room activity

Debate within the committee is focused on working with other delegates to solve crises, through the passing of directives. The ultimate goal of the in-room is to work together to defeat the other committee, thus accomplishing the joint goal of the committee.

c. Out-of-room activity

The out-of-room portion of the committee is the aspect that separates crisis from normal GA committees. It is focused on delegates achieving their personal goals through the establishment of a crisis arc. Delegates set up a crisis arc by sending directives and crisis notes to the Crisis Room, which responds to these notes and helps delegates establish a personal storyline. The goal of each delegate's crisis arc should be to build an arc that is so important that it impacts the flow of the committee and impacts crisis updates.

d. Structure

A directive, or a crisis note is a note sent to the Crisis Room that seeks to build the influence, strength, and power of the delegate, by reaching out to their contacts in the "outside world". These contacts can include family, coworkers, friends, and anyone else that the delegate's assigned character would realistically contact.

The document should take the form of a letter and include any of the necessary components of a letter (failure to do this may result in rejection of the note from the Crisis Room). The note should be written in a way that is capable of answering the questions of who, what, where, when, and how. Delegates cannot call on powers and/or resources that they are not in possession of or that are outside of their character's capabilities.

e. Crisis Arc

A crisis arc is a series of directives and crisis notes that attempt to help the delegate's character reach their ultimate personal goal and/or increase their influence in the committee. It is important to note that a delegate is not restricted to just one crisis arc. It generally consists of three stages, which can be called the acquisition, allocation, and execution stages.

The acquisition stage is where the delegate gets the necessary contacts and resources needed for their plan. The allocation stage is where the delegate moves the resources necessary for their plan to their needed location. The execution stage is where the delegate carries out the action of their plan. It is recommended for delegates to have a pre-planned crisis arc at the start of the committee that has been approved by their head delegate/advisor.

f. Motions

f1. Motion to Introduce Directives

This motion is specific to Crisis Committees, as they are the only committee that uses directives. Directives are similar to the resolutions passed in General Session Committees, except they are action-oriented rather than advisory. It is the way in which the entire committee is able to make decisions and take action. This motion is used to introduce all the directives that are currently on the floor, under the condition that they have the necessary number of signatories. The directive must have been approved by the chair before being introduced to the committee.

f2. Motion to Censor

It is possible to vote to censor another delegate if it is determined that they have committed a serious crime. Depending on the severity of the delegate's crime, their voting rights and/or submission rights can be revoked for a specified amount of time. This is a very serious action and should not be taken lightly by the committee, as it is at the discretion of the Chair to determine whether it is appropriate. It is not considered appropriate to attempt to censor a delegate simply for having a different opinion and will be viewed as such by the Chair.

g. Crisis Powers

Crisis Powers are another aspect that makes Crisis Committees unique. These are the powers that each character has as a result of their position on the committee. Delegates can draw on these powers during in-room debates and out-of-room actions. These crisis powers can help to direct the allocation of committee responsibilities and power dynamics.

The Political Position of the Ottoman Empire in the 15th Century

The son of Murad II, Mehmed the Conqueror, reorganized both state and military and on 29 May 1453 conquered Constantinople, ending the Byzantine Empire. Mehmed allowed the Eastern Orthodox Church to maintain its autonomy and land in exchange for accepting Ottoman authority. Due to tension between the states of Western Europe and the later Byzantine Empire, the majority of the Orthodox population accepted Ottoman rule as preferable to Venetian rule. Albanian resistance was a major obstacle to Ottoman expansion on the Italian peninsula. According to modern historiography, there is a direct connection between the fast Ottoman military advance and the consequences of the Black Death from the

mid-fourteenth century onwards. Byzantine territories, where the initial Ottoman conquests were carried out, were exhausted demographically and militarily due to the plague outbreaks, which facilitated Ottoman expansion.

The Political Affairs in Europe in the 15th Century

In the 15th century, changes in the structure of European polity, accompanied by a new intellectual temper, suggested to such observers as the philosopher and clerical statesman Nicholas of Cusa that the “Middle Age” had attained its conclusion and a new era had begun. The Papacy, the symbol of the spiritual unity of Christendom, lost much of its prestige in the Great Western Schism and the conciliar movement and became infected with the lay ideals prevailing in the Italian peninsula. In the 16th century, the Protestant Reformation reacted against the worldliness and corruption of the Holy See, and the Roman Catholic church responded in its turn with a revival of piety known as the Counter-Reformation. While the forces that were to erupt in the Protestant movement were gathering strength, the narrow horizons of the Old World were widened by the expansion of Europe to America and the East.

In Western Europe, nation-states emerged under the aegis of strong monarchical governments, breaking down local immunities and destroying the unity of the European *respublica Christiana*. Centralized bureaucracy came to replace medieval government. Underlying economic changes affected social stability. Secular values prevailed in politics, and the concept of a balance of power came to dominate international relations. Diplomacy and warfare were conducted by new methods. Permanent embassies were accredited between sovereigns, and on the battlefield standing armies of professional and mercenary soldiers took the place of the feudal array that had reflected the social structure of the past. At the same time, scientific discoveries cast doubt on traditional cosmology. The systems of Aristotle and Ptolemy, which had long been sanctified by clerical approval, were undermined by Copernicus, Mercator, Galileo, and Kepler.

Crusading and Crusades

To understand the circumstances that gave rise to the Crusade of Varna it is useful to make a distinction between crusading as an ideology and crusades as discrete events. The idea of crusading as a continuing military struggle against the enemies of Christendom had formed in Western Europe in the centuries following the First Crusade and the capture of Jerusalem in 1099. A crusade, within the framework of this ideal, came to be defined as a military campaign waged against the enemies of the Western Church, and conducted – nominally at least – under the auspices of the Pope. The enemies in question might be Muslims, heretics, schismatics, or pagans, but Islam was the archetypal enemy and the one that played the central role in the formation and sustenance of the crusading ideal. Furthermore, the notion of ‘liberating’ Jerusalem after the Muslim reconquest of the city in 1244 remained an inspirational chimera throughout the Western Christian world. Nonetheless, however firmly established the idea of crusading may have become in the mindset of Western Christendom

after the First Crusade, it still required a particular set of circumstances to translate it from an ideology into an active undertaking.

What was the Crusade of Varna?

Battle of Varna, (November 10, 1444), Turkish victory over a Hungarian force, ending the European powers' efforts to save Constantinople (now Istanbul) from Turkish conquest and enabling the Ottoman Empire to confirm and expand its control over the Balkans. The Christian retaliation against the advance of the Muslim Ottoman Turks had come to a disastrous end, opening the way to the Ottoman conquest of Constantinople.

Murad II had resumed Ottoman expansion in Europe, interrupted for a period after the disastrous defeat at Ankara in 1402. Fearing that the Ottomans would advance farther into central and Western Europe, Pope Eugene IV called for a crusade. János Hunyadi, serving Wladyslaw III, king of Poland and Hungary, at first inflicted some sharp setbacks on the Ottomans before a truce was agreed. The Christians made an elaborate plan for a campaign in 1444, in breach of the truce, considered non-binding by the Christians since it was agreed with an infidel.

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Chronology of Significant Events

a. Background

In 1428, while the Ottoman Empire was fighting a war with the Republic of Venice and the Kingdom of Hungary they achieved a temporary peace by establishing the Serbian Despotate as a buffer state. After the war ended in 1430, the Ottomans returned to their earlier objective of controlling all lands south of the Danube. In 1432, Sultan Murad II began raiding into Transylvania. After King Sigismund died in 1437, the attacks intensified, with the Ottomans occupying Borač in 1438 and Zvornik and Srebrenica in 1439. At the end of 1439, Smederevo capitulated and Murad succeeded in making Serbia an Ottoman province. Đurađ Branković, Despot of Serbia, fled to his estates in Hungary. In 1440, Murad besieged Hungary's main border fortress, Belgrade. After failing to take the fortress, he was forced to return to Anatolia to stop attacks by the Karamanids. Meanwhile, Sigismund's successor Albert died in October 1439, shortly after signing a law to "restore the ancient laws and customs of the realm". The law restricted the royal authority by requiring the participation of landed nobility in political decisions. Four months after Albert's death, his only son Ladislaus the Posthumous was born while Hungary was in the midst of a civil war over the next monarch. On 17 July 1440, Władysław, king of Poland, was crowned despite continuing disputes. John Hunyadi aided Władysław's cause by pacifying the eastern counties, gaining

him the position of Nádor of Transylvania and the corresponding responsibility of protecting Hungary's southern border. By the end of 1442, Władysław had secured his status in Hungary, and rejected an Ottoman proposal of peace in exchange for Belgrade. In 1443, Ottoman Sultan Murad II launched a campaign to conquer the Kingdom of Hungary and Transylvania. On 1 January 1443, Pope Eugene IV published a crusading bull. In early May, it was reported: "that the Turks were in a bad state and that it would be easy to expel them from Europe".

War was proclaimed against Sultan Murad II at the Diet of Buda on Palm Sunday 1443, and with an army of 40,000 men, mostly Magyars, the young monarch, with Hunyadi commanding under him, crossed the Danube and took Nish and Sofia. The Crusaders, led by Władysław, Hunyadi, and Branković, attacked in mid-October. They correctly expected that Murad would not be able to quickly mobilize his army, which consisted mainly of fief-holding cavalymen (timariots) who needed to collect the harvest to pay taxes. Hunyadi's experience of winter campaigns from 1441–1442 added to the Hungarians' advantage. They also had better armor, often rendering the Ottoman weapons useless. Murad could not rely on the loyalty of his troops from Rumelia and had difficulties countering Hungarian tactics.

Battle of Nish (1443)

In the Battle of Nish, the Crusaders were victorious. They forced Kasim Pasha of Rumelia and his co-commander Turahan Bey to flee to Sofia, Bulgaria to warn Murad of the invasion. However, the two burned all the villages in their path in an attempt to wear down the Crusaders with a scorched earth tactic. When they arrived in Sofia, they advised the Sultan to burn the city and retreat to the mountain passes beyond, where the Ottomans' smaller army would not be such a disadvantage.

Battle of Zlatitsa

Shortly after, the bitter cold set in, and the next encounter, fought at Zlatitsa Pass on 12 December 1443, was fought in the snow. Until the Battle of Zlatitsa, the Crusaders did not meet a major Ottoman army, but only town garrisons along their route toward Adrianople. Finally, at Zlatitsa they met strong and well-positioned defense forces of the Ottoman army. The Crusaders were defeated.

As they marched home, however, they ambushed and defeated a pursuing force in the Battle of Kunovica, where Mahmud Bey, son-in-law of the Sultan and brother of the Grand Vizier Çandarlı Halil Pasha, was taken, prisoner.

Four days after this battle the Christian coalition reached Prokuplje. Branković proposed to Władysław and Hunyadi that they stay in Serbian fortified towns during the winter and continue their campaign against the Ottomans in the Spring of 1444. They rejected his proposal and retreated. By the end of January 1444 forces of Władysław and Hunyadi reached Belgrade, and in February they arrived at Buda where they were greeted as heroes.

While the battle at Zlatitsa Pass had been a defeat, the ambush returned to the Crusaders the impression of an overall Christian victory, and they returned triumphantly. The King and Church were both anxious to maintain this impression and gave instructions to spread the word of the victories, but contradicted anyone who mentioned the loss.

Murad, meanwhile, returned angry and dejected by the unreliability of his forces, and imprisoned Turahan after blaming him for the army's setbacks and Mahmud Bey's capture.

In July 1444, a Crusade was organized by King Ladislaus III Jagiellon of Poland and Hungary, Pope Eugene IV, and the leaders of the Knights Hospitaller and the Venetian Republic. The Crusade aimed to defend Europe against the Ottomans and liberate the Balkans from their rule.

Final stage

Shortly after all the short-term requirements of the treaty were fulfilled, the Hungarians and their allies resumed the crusade. King Władysław gathered an army composed mostly of Hungarian regular troops, and forces from Poland, Transylvania, Croatia, Bosnia, and heavy cavalry units from western Europe. and mercenaries from Eastern Europe. The combined armies numbered 16,000 and were joined by 4,000 Wallachians in the area of Nicopolis. Murad, who had retired shortly after the treaty was completed, was called back to lead the Ottoman army. On 10 November 1444, the two armies clashed at the Battle of Varna (near the Black Sea fortress of Varna, Bulgaria). The Ottomans won a decisive victory despite heavy losses, while the Crusaders lost King Władysław and over 15,000 men.

Wladislaw III (Ulâszio): Władysław III (31 October 1424 – 10 November 1444), also known as Ladislaus of Varna, was King of Poland and the Supreme Duke (*Supremus Dux*) of Grand Duchy of Lithuania from 1434 as well as King of Hungary and Croatia from 1440 until his death at the Battle of Varna. He was the eldest son of Władysław II Jagiełło, King of Poland and Grand Duke of Lithuania, and the Lithuanian noblewoman Sophia of Halshany. Władysław III of Varna is known in Hungarian as *I. Ulászló*;

Eugine IV: Pope Eugene IV (Latin: *Eugenius IV*; Italian: *Eugenio IV*; 1383 – 23 February 1447), born Gabriele Condulmer, was head of the Catholic Church and ruler of the Papal States from 11 March 1431 to his death in February 1447. Condulmer was a Venetian and a nephew of Pope Gregory XII. In 1431, he was elected pope. His tenure was marked by conflict first with the Colonna, relatives of his predecessor Martin V, and later with the Conciliar movement. In 1434, due to a complaint by Fernando Calvetos, bishop of the Canary Islands, Eugene IV issued the bull "Creator Omnium", rescinding any recognition of Portugal's right to conquer those islands, still pagan. He excommunicated anyone who enslaved newly converted Christians, with the penalty to stand until the captives were restored to their liberty and possessions.

Significant characters from the conflict

Janos Hunyadi: János Hunyadi, English John Hunyadi or John Huniades, (born 1407 Hunyad, Transylvania—died August 11, 1456, Belgrade), Hungarian general and governor of the kingdom of Hungary from 1446 to 1452, who was a leading commander against the Turks in the 15th century.

Mircea II: Mircea II (1428–1447) was the Voivode, or prince, of Wallachia in 1442. He was the oldest son of Vlad II Dracul and brother of Vlad Țepeș and Radu the Handsome. He was the grandson of his namesake Mircea cel Bătrân.

Vlad II Dracul: Vlad the Impaler, in fully Vlad III Dracula or Romanian Vlad III Dracula, also called Vlad III or Romanian Vlad Țepeș, (born 1431, Sighișoara, Transylvania died 1476, north of present-day Bucharest, Romania), *voivode* (military governor, or prince) of Wallachia (1448; 1456–1462; 1476) whose cruel methods of punishing his enemies gained notoriety in 15th-century Europe. Some in the scholarly community have suggested that Bram Stoker's Dracula character was based on Vlad.

Fruzhin: Fruzhin was a 15th-century Bulgarian noble who fought actively against the Ottoman conquest of the Second Bulgarian Empire. A son of one of the last Bulgarian tsars, Ivan Shishman of the Tarnovo Tsardom, Fruzhin co-organized the so-called Uprising of Konstantin and Fruzhin along with Constantine II of Vidin, the last Bulgarian monarchs. Fruzhin was mainly based in the Kingdom of Hungary, where he was the ruler of Temes County.

Julian Cesarini: Julian Cesarini the Elder (1398 in Rome – 10 November 1444 in Varna, Ottoman Empire) was one of the group of brilliant cardinals created by Pope Martin V at the conclusion of the Western Schism. His intellect and diplomacy made him a powerful agent first of the Council of Basel and then after he broke with the Conciliar movement at Basel, of papal superiority against the Conciliar movement. The French bishop Bossuet described Cesarini as the strongest bulwark that the Catholics could oppose the Greeks in the Council of Florence

Durad Brakovic: He was a participant in the battle of Ankara (1402) and the Ottoman Interregnum (1403-1413). During his reign, the despotate was a vassal of both Ottoman sultans as well as Hungarian kings. Despot George was neutral during the Polish-Lithuanian (1444) and Hungarian-Wallachian (1448) crusades. In 1455, he was wounded and imprisoned during clashes with the Hungarians, after which the young Sultan Mehmed II launched the siege of Belgrade and its large Hungarian garrison. Despot Đurađ died at the end of 1456, due to complications stemming from the wound. After his death, Serbia, Bosnia, and Albania became practically annexed by Sultan Mehmed II, which only ended after centuries of additional conquests of Byzantine lands. Đurađ attained a large library of Serbian, Slavonic,

Latin, and Greek manuscripts. He made his capital Smederevo a center of Serbian culture. He was the first of the Branković dynasty to hold the Serbian monarchy.

Alvice Loredan: Alvise Loredan (1393 – 6 March 1466) was a Venetian nobleman of the Loredan family. At a young age, he became a galley captain, and served with distinction as a military commander, with a long record of battles against the Ottomans, from the naval expeditions to aid Thessalonica to the Crusade of Varna, and the opening stages of the Ottoman–Venetian War of 1463–1479, as well as the Wars in Lombardy against the Duchy of Milan. He also served in a number of high government positions, as provincial governor, and Franco Talovac of Croatia: Franko Talovac or Franjo Talovac was a Croatian nobleman, a member of the Talovac noble family. He held the dignity of Ban of Severin (1436–1439), Diocesan administrator (Steward) of the Diocese of Zagreb and Archdiocese of Kalocsa (from 1433), Count of Temes (from 1437) and Castellan of Nándorfehérvár in the associated kingdoms Hungary and Croatia.

Murad II: Murad II was the sultan of the Ottoman Empire from 1421 to 1444 and again from 1446 to 1451. Murad II's reign was a period of important economic development. Trade increased and Ottoman cities expanded considerably. In 1432, the traveler Bertrandon de la Broquière noted that Ottoman annual revenue had risen to 2,500,000 ducats and that if Murad II had used all available resources he could easily have invaded Europe

Akshamseddin: Akshamsaddin (Muhammad Shams al-Din bin Hamzah, Turkish: *Akşemseddin*) (1389, Damascus – 16 February 1459, Göynük, Bolu), was an influential Ottoman Sunni Muslim scholar, poet, and mystic saint.

Mehmed II: Mehmed II commonly known as Mehmed the Conqueror (Ottoman Turkish: romanized: *Ebū'l-feth*, lit. 'the Father of Conquest'; Turkish: *Fâtiḥ Sultan Mehmed*), was an Ottoman sultan who ruled from August 1444 to September 1446, and then later from February 1451 to May 1481.

Turahan Bey: Turahan Bey or Turakhan Beg was a prominent Ottoman Military commander and governor of Thessaly from 1423 until his death in 1456. He participated in many Ottoman campaigns of the second quarter of the 15th century, fighting against the Byzantine As well as against the Crusade of Varna. His repeated raids into the Morea transformed the local Byzantine despotate of Morea into an Ottoman dependency and opened the way for its conquest. At the same time, his administration of Thessaly, where he settled new peoples, founded the town of Tyrnavos, and revitalized the economy, set the groundwork for Ottoman rule in the area for centuries to come.

Chandarli Halil Pasha: Çandarlı Halil Pasha (died 10 July 1453), known as the Younger, was a highly influential Ottoman grand vizier under the sultans Murad II and, for the first few years of his reign, Mehmed II (from 1439 to 1 June 1453 precisely). He was a member of the Çandarlı family, a highly influential political family in the Ottoman Empire. His grandfather

and namesake, Çandarlı Kara Halil Hayreddin Pasha (Çandarlı Halil Pasha the Elder), also earlier served as grand vizier, under Murad I.

Shehhabettin Pasha: Hadım Şehabeddin Paşa (Old Turkish: Şihābüddīn; fl. 1436–53), also called Kula Şahin Paşa, was an Ottoman general and governor that served Sultan Mehmed II (r. 1444–46; 1451–81). Brought to the Ottoman court at a young age, Şehabeddin started as a court eunuch (*hadım*), then advanced to become Kapi Agha, a close advisor to the Sultan, before being appointed governor in Albania, and then at the height of his career, provincial governor of Rumelia (1439–42). Şehabeddin was known as an ardent supporter of the expansionist policy of the Ottoman Empire. He commanded the Ottoman forces that captured Novo Brodo in 1441. After his forces were heavily defeated in a battle with the forces of Janos Hunyadi in September 1442, he was dismissed from the position of beylerbey. After 1444 he was again briefly appointed to the position of beylerbey of Rumelia. Şehabeddin died in 1453 in Bursa.

Karaca Pasha: Karaca Pasha was the *Beylerbeyi* of Rumelia during Mehmed the Conquerer's reign and played a role in the conquest of Constantinople. His nickname was *dayı*, meaning "uncle" in Turkish, as he was the brother of the mother of Aladdin, one of Mehmed's sons. He made a reputation for himself in the Battle of Varna during the reign of Murad II. He died during the siege of Belgrade in 1456. Karacabey District in Bursa is named after him.

Shayhlulislam Fahreddin-i Acemi: Was an Ottoman Islamic scholar and shayk al İslam. He grew up with Seyyid Şerîf el-Cürçânî and started his education in İnan, hence the last name "Ajami", meaning "from Persia". He is buried outside the Dârülhadîs Mosque.

Kasim Pasha: Kasım Pasha or Kasem Pasha (Turkish: *Kasım Paşa*; fl. 1442–43) was an Albanian Ottoman general and governor, the beylerbeyi of Rumelia and one of the commanders of the Ottoman forces during the Crusade of Varna (1443–44). When Rumelian beylerbeyi and Vizier Hadım Sheabeddin were defeated by John Hunyadi in 1442, he was replaced by Kasım Pasha in both positions.

The Aftermath of the Battles

The defeat at Varna ended all realistic prospects for continuing the crusade. The scheme was impossible without the participation of Hungary, and at the end of 1444, the Kingdom faced disintegration. Since King Vladislav's body had never recovered, his fate was unknown. The legitimately crowned King, Ladislaus, was an infant in the custody of Frederick III of Austria. The lack of a recognized king once again inflamed the animosities of the civil war of 1439–42, with Queen Elizabeth's kinsmen, the counts of Cilli, seizing castles in Croatia from the partisans of Vladislav, and Elizabeth's chief supporter Jan Jiškra extending his territory in the north. In the summer of 1445, Frederick III occupied the western borderlands of the Kingdom. The law courts had not functioned since 1439, and castles remained in the hands of

the barons who had seized them during the civil war. It was not until a Diet assembled in June 1446 to elect Hunyadi as regent on behalf of King Ladislaus that peace was restored,¹¹⁵ and by this time the hopes of the other crusading allies had evaporated.

The idea that the crusade might continue nonetheless lingered for a year after the battle. The immediate aftermath, however, saw recriminations and quarrels over money. At the end of January 1445, when the pontifical galleys were due to return to Venice, the senate instructed its envoy to Rome to demand money for the crews. When the envoy reported that the Pope was refusing to pay on the grounds that the fleet had achieved nothing noteworthy, and blaming Venice for its failure, the senate in reply taxed the Pope with ingratitude, reminding him of the almost intolerable hardship that the sailors had suffered, unable to acquire enough bread to eat or 'ever to provide themselves with fresh water without the spilling of blood and the deaths of many.' Furthermore, the cold in the straits had left many crippled with frostbite, and many more had died in daily battles with the Turks. To emphasize the point, the senators annexed Loredan's letter and also stressed that the Pope already knew this from the letters he had received from the Emperor. When the envoy reported that the Pope was to pay by letters of exchange in Pera, the senate objected, asking him to send the letters directly to Venice for forwarding to Negroponte of Constantinople

Treaties Signed on the War of Varna

By the end of August, therefore, the military and naval preparations for the crusade were complete. The allies had also begun negotiations over the spoils of victory, with discussions, it seems, centering on Buda. In April 1444, the Ragusans received requests to facilitate the passage of both Constantine Dragases and the ambassador of the Byzantine Emperor to Hungary. At the end of June, they despatched their own envoy.

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