



MONGOL KURULTAI



WCHSMUN2019
BACKGROUND GUIDE

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Letter from the Chair

Dear delegates,

Welcome to the Mongol Kurultai Committee, and thank you for joining us in this important meeting of these most revered individuals. We hope that you have a compelling and exciting time through this extensive journey of war, revolt and upheaval. As Mongols we maintain the right to take the land that is rightfully ours, at all and any costs. With this in mind it is hoped that we are able to reclaim what is all of ours birthright, defeat our enemies and most importantly create the largest empire of Mongols that the world has ever seen.

In this committee and throughout debate we expect that all delegates show respect to everyone and everything around them; whether it be the chairs, the crisis staff, the pages, your fellow delegates or anyone who you encounter. Us and your crisis staff have worked tirelessly to bring you a fantastic committee full of excitement, and this will only be possible if you the delegates behave with unwavering diplomacy through the entirety of the conference. We may be mongols but there is still a minimum of decency that should be expressed at least toward your fellow mongols and compatriots. This being said we will not tolerate vulgar or hateful language towards anyone in the committee or conference.

This committee will discuss not only the previous conquests of the mongols but also the intergovernmental procedure that surrounds one of our strategic attacks and how this strategy ultimately pays off. Planning an attack on a superpower will also be in all of your best interests as not doing so could result in a more vulnerable empire. In order to achieve this, you will be forced to work amongst yourselves as a way of expanding the empire to the best of your ability. You will have to play off each of your unique strengths and weaknesses and use them to not only benefit you as an individual but as a collective, in order to have the most influential impact on all those you come across, opponent or not. The wars fought will be brutal but in the end, worth it. How you plan battle and go into it is the prerogative of this committee and we have the utmost faith in all of you, that you will continue to aid in the rise of the Mongol Empire. We look forward to fervent debate and intricate battle tactics that will guarantee a secured and superior reign over all of the land which is owed to us.

Sincerely,
Sarah Jermyn
Head Chair

A Note on the Canon of this Committee

General Timeline:

For the purpose of creating dynamic debate and crisis, characters from different ages of the Mongol Empire have been gathered in this committee. It is assumed that all characters have the powers and connections described in their character description, yet exist in the year 1235. Furthermore, some character's fates beyond a certain point are only theorized due to conflicting historical information. For example, Iqbalmand's whereabouts and activities after escaping slavery is heavily disputed. We have chosen the possible series of events that best places character in positions to actively participate in crisis. Thus, we do not suggest further reading on characters beyond their descriptions in the background guide.

Time Shifts:

Looking at any of the character descriptions in the background guide, it becomes clear that the majority of mentioned events occur well after the start of committee. In response to the lack of documentation surrounding Mongolian personnel, we choose to include any possible information regarding a character's personality, accomplishments, goals, and preferred method of completing tasks. Therefore, character descriptions should be used solely for that reason. This means that events in character descriptions have not actually occurred, they simply exist to highlight how to portray a character. Furthermore, dates such as the creation of the Yuan Dynasty have been shifted to eliminate complications of ridiculous logistical proportions. These shifted dates - excluding character descriptions - will be used in committee.

Minor Conflicts:

As a note, there were a myriad of small-scale civil wars in a majority of the provinces dominated by the Mongols due to revolt or lack of tribute; however, trying to manage so many conflicts would be near impossible thanks to the number of delegates in comparison to the amount of ongoing conflicts. This is also the case for disregarded information such as the second Jin Dynasty revolt. So, any conflict or historical events not directly mentioned within the background guide or by the crisis team will not be relevant to the committee.

Committee Overview and Brief History

History of the Mongol Empire

After almost 20 years of internal warfare, societal upheaval, and clan aggression, Temujin of the Steppe was declared 'Universal Ruler', or Genghis Khan, by the representatives from every region of Mongolia in 1206. This was the first Kurultai. Not only did this event mark a dramatic shift in world history, it also radically changed Mongolian society. Before 1206 and the creation of the Mongol Empire, Mongolia was extremely tribalistic and divided; dozens of tribes were in constant warfare due to century long blood feuds, while work, success, and power was determined by birth. However, Genghis Khan was expressly against this societal system. Instead, he adopted a meritocracy which award competent and effective allies with key positions. In addition, a slew of new societal changes and reforms were instituted, including religious freedom, autonomous and local governments, banning female enslavement, a new writing system, abolishment of inherited titles, and protected trade routes, among many other important additions. Due to the quick introduction of a vast rule set, along with the promise of autonomy, local leaders, advisors, and khanates were required. Thus, Genghis Khan allowed for autonomous government throughout the Mongol Empire, with advisors and scientist provided to each region; however, all of these leaders and advisors could be called to aid the Khan through a Kurultai.

That being said, Genghis Khan did not to implement this inter-regional system, due to the immediacy required to support soley the Mongolian people. In response to changes in ecology, trade disruptions, and a newfound extensive standing army, he opted to invade his neighbors for their resources. From 1206 to 1214, the Mongols invaded the Xi Xia kingdom and the Jin Dynasty of China. While both these operations proved successful, they are not without fault. The Mongols quick advance and lack of supply trains allowed most of Xi Xia to be captured, but the capital never fell. This is because the Mongols were unaccustomed to siege warfare and, thus, relied heavily on European and Chinese tactitans in later campaigns. Furthermore, the conquests of the Xi Xia Kingdom and the Jin Dynasty provided the Mongols with an abundance of luxury goods, such as silk, silver, and gold. With limited interest in luxury items that could not be carried and utilized, the Mongols traded with western Asia and Europe. As the system grew and cemented the Silk Road, roads, paper money, postal-systems, and accounting was required. These tasks were mainly left to the remnants of Chinese high society, which had become a mongol vassal known as the Yuan Dynasty.

To facilitate this growing trade empire, Genghis Khan created a trade treaty with the Khwarezm Empire. (Present-day Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Afghanistan, and Iran) Unfortunately, the sultan murdered the caravans that arrived and stole the goods. This did not go over well. Subsequently, the years of 1219-1225 were spent ravaging the Khwarezm Empire. Unlike the original expeditions, the sacking of cities and general warfare went exceptionally well. This is in part due to the pardoning of those who capitulated, as well as the indoctrination of skilled carpenters, researchers, and generals. Additionally, the Mongols were benefited enormously by the intrinsic fragility of the Khwarezmian Empire. The Khwarazm rulers were untrustworthy in the eyes of most local governments, which led to the lack of a coordinated attack to grand strategy to repel the Mongols. With Khwarazm armies folding without combat and even whole provinces refusing to garrison defences, the common Mongol tactics of speed and elimination of supply lines proved extremely effective. However, the shift in Mongol tactics is also important. Along with the introduction of fast pace siege warfare and construction, Genghis Khan started to enslave the unskilled workers/soldiers of cities who refused to capitulate. These people were then used as human shields during the next assault. With this in mind, the Mongol armies suffered reduce casualties with little increase to required supply, all while the rate of conquest was increased. Following the defeat of the Khwarezm Empire, trade once again flourished. Word reached the European world which sparked major interest in the East. While many kingdoms blew off the Mongols as a mere myth, the Kievan Rus, Genoa, and the Vatican all sent advisors, religious or otherwise, as a form of recognition and acceptance.

Although this was enough to appease Genghis Khan, his son desired greater Mongolian conquest. After Genghis Khan's death in 1227, his son Ogedei was put on the throne. (though it was against Genghis' wishes) Unimpressed with the lack of tribute and interested in the fertile lands of the Volga, Ogedei Khan ordered Batu Khan to conquer the Kievan Rus. That was earlier this year. The majority of resources in terms of personnel, supplies, and attention has been diverted to the western front. However, the situation in the East is less than optimal. After 4 years of campaigning within Korea, Ogedei's personally led forces have been unable to successfully conquer the Kingdom of Goryeo. Furthermore, the vassal state of the Yuan Dynasty has been expressing concerns regarding the southern Song Dynasty, as they have been occasionally raiding and disrupting trade routes. Forced into a dire position, Ogedei Khan has recently relinquished total control over the campaigns in the east; instead, he is calling the first ever military-centric Kurultai from those not on the western front, to command the Korean and Chinese theatres.

The Situation in Korea

By 1235, two invasion campaigns had unsuccessfully attempted to eliminate the Kingdom of Goryeo from the Korean Peninsula. The first campaign, under the command of General Saritai, was a miserable failure; unlike previous campaigns, the Korean peoples were able to unite under one figurehead: Choe Woo. Through an express order from Gojong of Goryeo, Woo was able to rally peasants and mobilize all Korean soldiers to move to the northern front. Normally, this would be a non-issue due to the Mongol army's ability to quickly travel, thereby denying enemies the time required to conscript and field large armies. However, the crossing of the Yalu river, which separates Goryeo from the Yuan Dynasty, and the capture of the border town of Uiju took multiple weeks. In result, Woo was able to properly garrison defenses at both Anju and Kuju, where preparations for siege warfare were complete. The resulting sieges strained Saritai's food supply thanks to a lack of siege equipment to hasten capitulation. Though Anju fell, very little of the Korean army was actually defeated. Frustrated by logistical losses, Saritai moved to bypass the armies of Goryeo and take the capital of Gaesong by force. Thanks to lowlands on the western side of the Korean peninsula, the Mongol army was able to divide and wreak havoc through the central Korean peninsula, resulting in Gojong suing for peace. The resulting demand left 72 Mongol administrative officials in various positions, while goods for over one million troops were provided to the Mongols. However, strong civilian resistance ousted Mongolian officials within a year and emergency powers were given to Woo. Fearing a secondary invasion, Woo moved the capital to Ganghwa Island to take advantage of the Mongol's inferior navy. Additionally, farmers and civilians were ordered to flee into major cities or offshore islands. Sensing their grip of the Korean Peninsula waning, the Mongols attacked once again in 1232. After a gruesome 3 year war and the death of General Saritai, the Mongols retreated as little to no progress was being made to combat the multiple Korean fortress cities.

Future endeavours on the Korean Peninsula should be very aware of the geography and topography of the region. The southern and western parts of the peninsula are composed of plains and fertile land, while the north and east are mountainous. Within the mountain range of the north, called Baekdudaegan, a highland called Gaema Heights exists. This highland is especially difficult to traverse due to strong winds, lack of supplies, and few roads, but the region lack any real capacity for defense. In contrast, the plains of Korea are highly developed and house the majority of the Korean defenses and population. This is due to most main rivers flowing westwards to create diver deltas and floodplains along the west coast; subsequently, the majority of rice production stems from the west coast. Some major rivers include the Nakdong, the Seomjin, the Chongchon, the Han, and the Taedong. Both the Nakdong and the Seomjin flow eastward and are mainly used for civilian transportation. Additionally, the west flowing rivers hit the coastline at inconsistent angles, resulting in calm and shallow seas which are optimal for safe navigation, fishing, and transportation. High tidal amplitude also ensures that seasonal agriculture and transportation can reach further into the Korean peninsula during monsoons.

Furthermore, new attempts to subjugate the Korean Peninsula can be assisted through comprehension of Korean forces sizes and locations. Thanks to years of combat, it has been determined that the cities of Seogyung, Gaegyung, Hanyang, Jeonju, and select few surrounding towns house the majority of Korean military. Unfortunately, these cities are highly defended. However, it has been noted by Saritai that these locations are not totally enclosed. Thanks to dependence on surrounding agriculture, Korean armies must be somewhat separated to defend farming lowlands and plains. Thus, only as many 30, 000 troops occupy any one city, even in the capital. The remaining military assets of the Koreans are dispersed throughout the often hilly terrain supporting the rivers of the West Coast, though exact positions are currently unknown. Endeavours, to scout and collect information have had varied successes in the past. On the one hand, the majority of Korean troops are foot soldiers who depend on close quarters combat; in response, aggressive scouting has worked previously. In contrast, the terrain of floodplains has often left Mongolian scouts unable to determine exact numbers from safe distances, making common transportation routes the only truly reliable location to assess Korean troop movement outside of cities.

Despite an understanding of the history, topography, and troop density of the Korean enemy, one major issue remains. The Mongolians have yet to adequately map the Korean peninsula, meaning that current operations are extremely difficult to coordinate before and during combat. Developing methods, Mongolian or otherwise, to alleviate the problem could be a major step to breaking the Kingdom of Goryeo.

The Situation in China

After the defeat of the Jin dynasty, its territory was placed under the jurisdiction of Kublai Khan, the son of Ogedei, and the remaining Chinese nobles. Along with the normal changes to conquered societies to create Mongol influence, Kublai also reinforced the amenities of society critical to the Chinese identity. Confucian schools, Chinese rituals, and traditional policies of agriculture and commercial economy were all reinstated by 1235. This achieved two major effects. Firstly, the ethnic Chinese Han saw massive bolstering of their cultural identity, and thus used changes to attempt to lobby for even better conditions. Secondly, re-focus on farming and trans continental trade required a massive amount of both freshwater and sea access. Cumulatively, these two effects led to the dramatic incentive to commence war with the neighbouring Song Dynasty. The whole of China has not been united for nearly 300 years, and a plethora of political and military Han voices advocated for the unification. These demands are especially prevalent among the Han Army, an entire military force technically under the jurisdiction of Kublai Khan despite being essentially independent. Furthermore, Chinese officials have repeatedly called for the procurement of Song coastlines along with the Yangtze and Yellow rivers. Collectively, the rivers would provide extremely reliable renewal of farming territory, while deepwater ports could allow for constant exportation of goods. While these demands have yet to be met, the matter is extremely urging as demands from all levels of society can easily boil over into civil strife and discontent.

However, combating the Song Dynasty is no easy task. Since the capitulation of the Jin Dynasty, the Songs effectively eliminated all contact with the Mongols. Thus, even basic information surrounding the exact locations of towns, number of troops, and socio-political climate of the Dynasty is unknown. In addition, the little information known is not optimistic. The majority of the terrain is both forested and mountainous, making traditional Mongol tactics extremely difficult to apply effectively. This could be avoided through an amphibious assault, but the Song Dynasty has unquestionably maintained a standing navy. Even then, many Song cities such as Xiangyang effectively use mountains to reduce the number of passes into cities and surrounding regions, which increases the Song Dynasty's ability to maintain choke points.

Additionally, the Song Dynasty may strike first. Villages along the Yuan Dynasty's southern border have routinely been set aflame; it seems to be that the villages targeted are dependent on their merchant reliance. Investigating this irregularity may be the first step to solving the issue of the Song Dynasty.

Characters

Subutai

Subutai, one of the most successful generals in history, was the primary Mongolian military strategist and origin of traditional Mongolian battle tactics. His successful legacy is mostly due to his ability to strategize and coordinate fast pace efforts of massive armies, albeit from far behind the front lines. At his peak, Subutai commanded five army groups from a distance of over 1,000 km during the Russian campaigns. To facilitate this strategy, Subutai depending heavily on messengers and quick paced warfare, which allowed his often times weaker forces to gain advantage through speed and surprise. Additionally, Subutai relied heavily on two major tactics: feinting and pillaging. In the original capitulation of the Jin Dynasty, tens of battles were won when one Mongol army would retreat while chased by Chinese soldiers abandoning ranks, only to be flanked by another Mongolian army appearing seemingly out a thin air. Furthermore, Subutai avidly disliked siege warfare and attempted to find alternatives at all costs. So, when Subutai's forces faced an entrenched enemy they would raze nearby villages, farms, and strategic locations, to starve his enemies and force capitulation. Cumulatively, these strategies led to the wild success of Subutai, which served to drastically increase his ego; his condescending and self-aggrandizing nature left him at odds with most others in power, only furthering his dislike of others.

Baidar

The second son of Chagatai Khan, Baidar commanded 30 000 men throughout the European campaign alongside Orda Khan. Between 1235 and 1247 Baidar was a strong commander, forcing the Duke Miec Islaw's army to retreat and taking control of many Hungarian army's. However alongside his ruthlessness, Baidar was a ambitious military strategist, choosing many unexpected yet insightful aims for his soldiers. A prominent example of this is heading south toward the Liegnitz Batu army, rather than claiming the open land they had already captured. They joined the Batu army to create a combined force of 65 000 men to defeat the main Hungarian army of over 80 000. Baidar was a ruthless general, plundering the lands of captured towns and burning important cultural artifacts in their entirety before moving forward within a campaign. Baidar directly participated in the defeat of the Poles, the Moravians, the Russians, and the Germans, and used his success to participate in the election of Guyuk Khan.

Talabuga

Great grandson of Batu Khan, Talabuga was Khan of the Golden Horde, founded by Batu himself. Talabuga was the Khan of the Golden Horde until his execution from 1287-1291. An ambitious general, Talabuga took part in the European Campaign, leading the second Mongol invasion of Hungary and the third Mongol raid against Poland. In a final attempted raid against Poland, Talabuga attempted to work with Nogai, however disagreements caused him to act alone; many of Talabuga's conquests were carried out in a similar manner due to his rough behaviour and inability to cooperate. His solo work in the Polish area aided in the capture of 20 000 Polish captives. Although initially successful, a series of unsuccessful attempts to invade the Ilkhanate, his standing among other nobles fell, and his reputation became somewhat shameful. These attacks were carried out in similar manner each time, allowing enemy forces to account for expected attacking patterns. A final blow to his reputation was due to his betrayal by Nogai in 1290, where Nogai abandoned their joint attack, and Talabuga suspected he was responsible for the loss of all his troops.

Negudar

Unlike the majority of Mongol generals, Negudar actively attempted to make peace and simply force concessions rather than participating in direct combat. In line with his adoption of the Islamic faith, Negudar acted as a middle man for non-violent confrontations for portions of the Khwarezm Empire that surrendered without entering combat. Within these talks, Negudar lobbied for trade concessions, new infrastructure, and societal change to bring newfound peoples into a more traditionally mongolian lifestyle; this was done out of genuine compassion and belief in the system of the Mongol Empire, and it was rare for Negudar to show malice. However, Negudar was also one of the leading generals in Central Asia and his position required the active use of force. Rather than participating on the front lines, Negudar's small troop force was dedicated to support and defensive maneuvers. Thus, Negudar almost exclusively worked in conjunction with other generals to shore up lines of defensive and supply the troops necessary to complete common Mongolian feinting strategies. When lacking another general to cooperate with, Negudar often resorted to fronting and fear tactics. By placing a display of power, especially towards civilian mobs, Negudar could achieve capitulation with minimal violence, which allowed him to exercise his dominant diplomacy skills.

Burundai (aka Boroldai)

Boroldai served under the great Batu Khan and was a key general and player in the Mongol invasion of Russia and Europe in 1236-1242. His battle tactics helped crush the armies of Yuri II and Grand Prince of Vladimir at the 1238 battle of the Sit River. He also helped defeat the Hungarians, their allies, the Croats and Templar Knights in 1241 which was pivotal for the mongols and happened because of his brilliant battle and attack strategies. Unlike the majority of mongolian generals, Boroldai was keen to rely on European strategy while in Europe. Adding enforced supply lines, consistent siege weaponry, and heavier arrows all allowed for significant victories during his conquests. Though his iron grip on decision making was effective in combat, the lack of administrative freedom Boroldai exercised in conquered lands varied greatly from most Mongolian conquests. This led to multiple revolts in Russia and the Eastern European area; while they were easily put down, the region remained unstable. During the 1251 power struggle, he stayed loyal to Batu yet sent around 100,000 troops to watch over Ogedei, Batu's cousin and rival, to reduce the likelihood of a civil war.

Sali Noyan

Sali Noyan was instrumental in the 13th century control of most of Afghanistan. There a permanent station of Mongol troops was quartered in the Kunduz-Baghlan area, which came under Noyan's control in 1253. In 1252-3 Noyan was sent to the Indian borderlands and given authority over the Mongols later known as Qara'unas. During the Kashmir revolt against the mongol empire, Noyan was directly involved in restoring control in his invasion of the Kashmir, killing the king, and was able to put down the rebellion, restoring the mongol empire's power in the region. This was partly due to Noyan's ability to garner local support through benevolence and halting Mongol sackings. Additionally, Noyan did not impose trade routes or regulations in Afghanistan's extremely mountainous environment, which drew support and allowed him to reallocate resources to funding military equipment reserves. During internal conflict in the Delhi Sultanate, Noyan was ordered by Mongke to recover the ancestral realm of Multan and Lahore, both of which he successfully recaptured. However, many of Noyan's conquests were extremely costly to maintain, due to his insistence on prolonged military presence in all regions.

Jebe

Perhaps one of the oddest Mongolian generals, Jebe of the Steppe proved to be the first exemplar of Genghis Khan's meritocracy. In his campaign to unite the Mongolian Steppe, Genghis was shot in neck while on horseback during a fight with the Taichud clan. After the battle, Genghis awarded the man who shot him with the title of general and the name Jebe, literally meaning "arrow weapon." Despite his name, Jebe focused almost entirely on calvary to complete military tasks, thanks to his background as a servant who attended horses. This involved training horses and riders to endure forced riding for over 24 hours. Subsequently, in battle, Jebe would ride several hundred miles away from the main front while enemy troops attempted to abuse the breach. However, once enemy troops settled, Jebe would return and wreak havoc through unprepared soldiers. Jebe also utilized less dramatic strategies, all centered around effectively using open terrain and plains to catch opposing armies unprepared. This resulted in many impressive victories against the Jin Dynasty and Khwarezm Empire. Along with his reputation as a common civilian and eccentric personality, Jebe's victories made him very popular among civilians and other generals.

Mongke

Under Mongke's administration, the mongols captured Iraq, Syria and the kingdom of Dali. Surprisingly, Mongke was extremely religiously active, in contrast to most mongolians. As one of the most prominent officials in India, Tibet, and the Middle East, Mongke ensured that all newly appointed administrators specifically forwarded the Buddhist cause. This included elimination of 'fraudulent texts', military action to end clerical strife between religious groups, and tax exemption for Buddhist Temples. Despite these reforms being made in multi-religious regions, Mongke found consistent support from local administrators and populations due to his elimination of corruption. As the administrator directly handling gifts, taxes, and salaries for nobles, Mongke was able to systematically reduce the influence of those abusing power. This was also partially achieved through imperial investigators who supervised local business and enforced imperial law. Despite Mongke's good nature, he would often turn down opportunities including financial obligation. This was especially prevalent in Iran, where he effectively returned control to non-mongolians by re-appointing the previous king's administrators rather than financing new mongolian administrators.

Orda Ichen

The first grandson of Genghis Khan, Orda is credited with having created the White Horde. During the invasion of Russia and Europe, Orda Ichen also helped Batu take over the Hungarians and their allies, by distracting the Poles and Czechs in Eastern Europe and therefore prevented them from helping the Hungarians in battle. He attacked the southwestern border of Lithuania and set up 20,000 archers which seriously weakened the heavily armored, but slow Europeans. Orda opted to focus entirely on mounted archers, which allowed for extremely fast moving and surprising attacks. This made Orda effective in lowlands, hilly terrains, and lightly forested areas, but created a severe disadvantage when attempting to conquer fortresses or positions that could actively prepare for an expected Mongol assault. Furthermore, by utilizing grazing tactics rather than dedicated supply chains, Orda kept his armies mobile and tactically irregular locations. While these operational decisions could technically make Orda's troops effective messengers, he refused to lose troops during strenuous campaigns or serious battles. Subsequently, Orda often fought without communication between other commanders and relied on total assaults to deter enemies, rather than chasing down and eliminating all opponents.

Samagar (aka Cemakar)

Samagar was known throughout the Mongol Empire as a strong orator and a general of the people, despite the majority of his operations occurring in the Levant. In contrast to the often quick paced tactics of the Mongol military, Samagar stopped at every town and village during campaigns. There, he would give rousing speeches to attempt to call local populations to arms against the political and societal oppression represented by opposing forces. Surprisingly, this strategy of recruitment proved to be very effective for creating militia forces and garner additional resources; this occurred due to Samagar's personal standing with local leaders, created by establishing embassies when possible. Subsequently, a large portion of Samagar's troops comprised of non-Mongolian men such as Seljukid personnel. Samagar's ease regarding possible ethnic tensions, easy going nature, and seemingly good intentions led to additional support from peasants and thus faster conquest. Samagar's successful operations in the Levant allowed for him to adopt the role of middlemen to foreign military advisors. However, many non-Mongolian generals and advisors were cautious around Samagar, due to his tendency to eradicate non-compliant towns.

Henrik Harpestraeng

Born in 1164, Henrik Harpestræng was a Danish botanical and medical author who wrote several books about herbs and uses of plants and plant parts. Having such extensive knowledge on medieval botany and medicine, Henrik was often involved in the advising of medical techniques and use of medicine. His most notable work was an urtebog, written in Danish consisting of years of personal research in over 150 chapters of plants and medicinal uses. He has worked with leaders in other militaries in the past and is often sought out for his extensive knowledge and experience. His previous works in deciphering environmental dangers, improving military supplies, and providing information essential to keeping dominated peoples subservient cannot be understated. However, Henrik's thirst for knowledge often was predominate to his work as an advisor. Oftentimes he would launch experiments into local fauna or possible new remedies based on his personal curiosity rather than instructions from superiors. In fact, in conjunction with the Holy Roman Catholic Church, Henrik would conduct research in person. He would be accompanied by a squad of knights, who would operate independently from other command structures to assist in Henrik's research.

Petrus Peregrinus

Peter Peregrinus was a 13th-century French scholar who conducted experiments on magnetism and the properties of magnets. His most popular research culminated in the creation of the world's first extremely accurate compass, which revolutionized navigation. With Petrus' instruments, army groups and merchants were able to drastically reduce travel time and effectively coordinate meeting points and joint movement. However, the materials, expertise, and time required to create compasses limited their creation to solely his laboratory until approximately a century after his death. In addition, Petrus was instrumental in the development of the first navigational materials utilized for navy purposes. Petrus' manuscripts were used as the basis for the creation of ships in France, Italy, Spain, and the Netherlands. That being said, Petrus' was extremely secretive of his work, even hiding the inner workings of his findings for the Catholic Church. In fact, most of Petrus' creations were wielded by himself personally, with the exception of compasses.

Mieszko II the Fat

Mieszko was the Polish Duke of Opole-Racibórz and Duke of Kalisz-Wieluń. During his reign, the Mongols invaded Poland in 1241. Unlike other Eastern European nobles, Mieszko fought against the Mongols at the Battle of Raciborz and won thanks to his ability to route the enemy and apply force to mongolian cavalry. However, during the Battle of Legnica, he was tricked into a retreating maneuver which allowed the mongolians to attack his defended flank. After being captured by the Mongols, he served as a chief advisor in the methods of European combat. Siege weaponry, how to effectively field slow armies, and maintaining supply chains are all areas of expertise for Mieszko. In fact, Mieszko oftentimes commands the troops who capitulated in the regions of southern Russia, numbering approximately 7, 000. However, Mieszko is not totally compliant with the wishes of the Mongols. While unlikely to directly oppose the Mongols, Mieszko has routinely ignored common Mongol group strategy and routing, instead choosing to use his troops in European-esque combat. This has placed him at odds with both the administrators and generals of the Mongol Empire. However, Mieszko's charm and stalwart nature has allowed him to create close ties with foreign advisors, especially his European counterparts. Through this connections he regularly modifies and adapts his tactics.

Zafar Khan

Hizabr al-Din Yusuf, on request from the Alauddin Khaliji, took the name Zafar Khan and eventually pushed his way to becoming one of Khaliji's top generals. In the late 1200s, Zafar served as the head general in India's attempts to defeat the Mongol Empire. He was known, at times, to disobey the orders of his superiors which often led him to victory, given his immense strategic knowledge. This allowed for numerous Indian victories against the Mongols, often when Zafar deliberately stopped supporting other generals to move to terrain better suited to flank the Mongols and utilize short swords. However, this disobedience also led to Zafar's capture during the Battle of Kili, when Zafar attempted to use a Mongol retreat to gain ground, only leading to his unit's separation. Holistically, Zafar is unquestionably one of the best generals under Mongol jurisdiction in terms of defensive capabilities. However, his tendency to act recklessly has diminished his standing significantly with other commanders.

Ala ud din Masud

Ala ud din Masud, the seventh Sultan of the Mamluk Dynasty, was considered a puppet of the Mamluk chiefs when he was elected in 1242. However, Ala's control over coinage in Mamluk and India slowly allowed him to gain power and independence. Through increasing mining and minting projects, Ala was able to amass more wealth than any one individual on the Indian subcontinent, which gave him massive political power. Extravagant shows of entertainment and drinking became the norm for Ala, with increasingly respected and powerful guests attending his parties. Through these connections, Ala gained further control over merchants and the flow of building and speciality goods. By 1246 this control threatened the Mongols, resulting in a call for Mamluk subservience. Ala complied with Mongol demands, which angered the Mamluk chiefs. Subsequently, Ala had to balance domestic calls to those of the Empire. This was done predominantly through political and economic connections in India, which Ala used as a bargaining chip for concessions with the Mongols. However, Mongol and Yuan society found little use for consumer and luxury goods provided by Indian trade. Thus, the majority of deals completed by Ala involved the trading of military supplies, infrastructure material, and advisors in exchange for benefits to the Mamluk Dynasty.

Al-Musta'sim

Born from a long line of Caliph's, Al-Musta'sim inherited control of the Abbasid Caliphate in 1242. Thanks to his historied and noble upbringing, Musta'sim was especially distant to the needs and desires of local populations. Instead, Musta'sim busied himself with external pressures and interests; this includes his support for defense of the Egyptian Throne through military support in the wake of the seventh crusade. Choosing to see political relations as a personal means and the benefit of the people as secondary, Musta'sim would dispose of internal and international political rivals secretly through the use of covert caliphate soldiers. Aided by the caliphate's somewhat impressive funds, logistic, and regional power, Musta'sim attempted to dispose local and regional leaders in India and the Levant. While his operations had varying degrees of success, Musta'sim's ability to conduct small-medium scale military actions with secrecy was very impressive. The usage of bribery, infiltration, and ingrained covert operatives became mainstays of Musta'sim's role in the international community. That being said, Musta'sim only acted when emotionally and personally invested, and convincing him to dedicate forces to other objectives was difficult.

Amalananda

Amalananda was a famous South Indian Sanskrit Scholar who preached Hinduism, connection with nature, the role of self in society. Amalananda gained notoriety by traveling through the Mongol Empire and sharing his ideas with local peoples. Thanks to his outgoing nature, ability to connect with others, and general ability to provide wisdom, Amalananda quickly became famous as positive leader who would protect the people. Keen to limit dissent, the upper echelons of Mongolian society often assisted Amalananda in his endeavours, in order hopefully appease the populations they ruled over. Amalananda's travels and teachings became so prolific in the late 1200s that officials from as far as Korea actively invited him to discussions and meetings. With this political and societal power, Amalananda often attempted to better the lives of those around him or create peace. In the original Mongol attempts to control northern India, Amalananda acted as a mediator for local officials who surrendered without combat, attempting to limit further bloodshed. Despite Amalananda's ability to influence others, the logistics of traveling throughout the Mongol Empire as an individual often strangled his ability, as he had to choose carefully where to take action and when.

Iqbalmand

Iqbalmand, originally a Mongol General, was captured by the Delhi Sultanate during the Mongol invasion of 1305. The invasion culminated in the absolute decimation of Mongol troops advancing up the Ravi River thanks to, routing and the ability of Indian troops to reform. As the Mongols faced defeat, many were forced into slavery. After being sold into slavery in Delhi, Iqbalmand vowed to right his past mistakes and learn to use terrain to his advantage. Though he was able to escape slavery, Iqbalmand was stranded in Sultanate territory with only a handful of supporters. Consequently, Iqbalmand resorted to hit-and-run tactics, often eliminating food reserves and supplies before retreating through seemingly impassable terrain. Upon his eventual return to the Mongol Empire, after 20 years, Iqbalmand became a famed general due to his extensive ability to manipulate the battlefield and weaken the enemy. However, Iqbalmand's extreme hatred for the Indians and often cruel behaviour greatly limited his political support and ability to consistently lead Mongol armies.

Ahmad Fanakati

A Persian Muslim from Qara Khitai who embraced the liberation by the Mongols, Ahmad Fanakati was the finance minister for Kublai Khan's Yuan Dynasty. He was initially employed in the service of Alchin Noyan, and eventually became a chief financial advisor in 1262 through his appointment to the prefect of the Inner Mongolian capital, Kaiping. This position allowed Ahmad to rapidly acquire local support and spy rings in the upper echelons of society, which he was able to spread throughout Mongolia and the newly formed Yuan Dynasty. Using his newfound operatives, he influenced nobles and officials to accept his radical changes to Mongolian governance. He is credited with the creation of a substantial financial and taxation system throughout the Yuan dynasty, distinct from what existed in China, and was greatly involved in the expansion of the imperial monopolies on natural resources. He became an infamous figure in the dynasty as the eventual chief administrator, circa 1264, and is known as a "Villainous Minister" for his allegedly corrupt motives. In 1275, Ahmad convinced Kublai to convert the Song paper money to the Yuan bills at a high exchange, ultimately imposing the imperialist monopoly on the conquered territories.

Aju

Aju, the grandson of the legendary Subutai Batur, first went to war in 1253 against Dali, Vietnam, and the Song dynasty; he was soon to become one of Kublai's leading field commanders in South China. He conquered the kingdom of Dali, killing 40 000 Song troops. Aju's experience in inland naval warfare implored Kublai to eventually appoint him as the chief commander in the Henan, in 1263, facing mostly the waterborne enemies to the empire. His skill and tact in this field, allowed him not only to maneuver amphibious warfare with ease, but also to siege towns as needed, usually pushing them to capitulate. His use of Chinese fire ships and coordinated river blockades allowed Aju to effectively dominate the major waterways of both China and North Vietnam. However, Aju had difficulty maintaining military presence once cities were captured, often opting to place the responsibilities of administration on others. This, along with his reputation as a murderous, cocky, and selfish leader, led senior military members and the local populations to view him with great disdain. Never able to garner popular support, Aju maintained his position as a leading field commander despite desperately wanting to rise in the ranks of the Mongolian meritocracy.

Shi Tianze

Shi Tianze, from the wealthy Shi family of Yongqing county in northern Hebei, defected to the Mongol Empire's forces upon their invasion of the Jin dynasty. In 1225, the Mongols confirmed Tianze and gave him the post of his elder brother, Tianni. In 1229, he was made a Chinese myriarchs, a commander of 10 000 soldiers. He was more cultured than most of his peers, trying his luck at poetry and drama while studying history. His advocacy at the highest echelons of government allowed him to secure limitation on interest for loans and a greater separation for military and civilian households. This position was obviously stigmatizing in Chinese society, but Shi's ability to influence his peers greatly exceeded outcry from the peasants. Subsequently, Shi became very politically entrenched in the newfound Yuan Dynasty despite hatred from the public. He eventually became vice commissioner in the Bureau of Military Affairs in 1264 while maintaining his position as the grand councillor in the Secretariat. This led to Shi becoming heavily invested in matters of fiscal policy in regards to balancing military and administrative spending for the Yuan Dynasty and the Mongol Empire as a whole. Thanks in part to his personal troops, Shi often tended to liberally spend non-existent funds on military expeditions.

Guo Kan

Guo Kan was a famous Han general in the Mongol army, known specifically for his inventive marriage of siege, chinese, and mongolian tactics. Guo's military career was originally promoted as propaganda for the cultural changes brought about by the Mongol Empire. By promoting a Han general, and ethnic group who were traditional rivals of the Mongolians, the Mongol Empire was able to effectively garner support from the newly conquered Yuan Dynasty. In the process, Guo became an international figurehead for the Mongol cause and was famed for his humility, genuine affection for the people, and tactical ability. Guo famously mastered artillery tactics by using the traditional Chinese trebuchet in conjunction with proper topographical evaluation and Mongolian support; this culminated in the capitulation of Bagdad in a matter of days. Despite impressive military ability, Guo was subservient to other generals as a means to control his public appearance and actions. This led to friction with administrative leaders, who were often the first to suggest that Guo take a non-important role.

Arikhgiya

A peasant, Arikhgiya studied the Uyghur-Mongolian script for a month and then went to Mongolia for his future, joining the prince Kublai's entourage, who, when he became Khan, promoted Arikhgiya up the chain of command. He was adept at siege warfare, but was known for his advocacy for artillery technicians like in the siege of Xiangyang. Thanks to his humble background and mixed heritage, many found Arikhgiya to be one of the most approachable generals in the Mongolian army. Subsequently, he developed a vast political and military string of connections, which he regularly called on for assistance. Arikhgiya famously gathered Persian, Indian, and Arabian scientists to complete the mangonel, the longest range piece of artillery at the time. Additionally, Arikhgiya had contacts from as far as France and Japan, leaving him with ample contacts both inside and outside the empire. He was seen pacifying the colonized, either preventing deserters of imperial rule, or negotiating with tribal chiefs to maintain order. He was made senior grand councillor of the Huguang Branch Secretariat in 1281. This position along with Arikhgiya various tasks and connections left him highly flexible and useful, yet dependent on others.

Shiban (aka Shayban)

Shiban, a prince of the early Golden Horde and the Borigin house, participated in the Mongol invasion of Hungary and became a leading commander in the Battle of Mohi in 1241. He was a skilled tactician, using feigned retreats as bait to draw his opponents and then crush them. These operations were effective as, unlike the majority of other generals, Shiban actively cooperated with other generals and forces. Shiban had 12 sons who all held military positions in some form or another; by coordinating with them, Shiban was able to effectively command a number of troops dwarfing most generals. Routing, feigning and encircling tactics became a mainstay of the Shaybanids, which proved to allow for mongolian dominance in hilly terrain. However, Shiban was easily one of the most cautious generals in the Mongolian army. With family members and large numbers of troops affected by any military decision, Shiban often opted to reduce gruesome combat and use fear tactics until negotiations or other generals provided support.

Bayan of the Baarin

Bayan, a member of the Nichugun Baarin clan, was detained in the court of Kublai Khan in 1264, when Kublai was highly impressed with his skills. By 1265, he was appointed junior grand councillor and married to the niece of the Empress. Eventually, circa 1275, he was appointed senior grand councillor after his expedition against the Song. He was talked of as “Hundred Eyes,” a legendary commander whose red banner would incite fear in the hearts of his enemies. Bayan was an especially brutal and ruthless political and military commander, and was known to take no prisoners and decimate opposing armies supplies, food, and men. Subsequently, Bayan was feared abroad and internally, in part helped by his very aggressive demeanor. From Kublai, his chief mandate was to only kill as many as necessary and so, he actively attempted to spare citizens. Once a city was captured, he would often advocate for the construction of canals and the use of naval transport for logistical support. This was because Bayan’s tactics depended on defensive and survival, meaning that developed supply chains were necessary. However, this was often at odds with the sense of duty-bound fighting employed by other generals, earning him criticism from the rest of his peers for being conducive to the enemy.

Battle Strategy

The mongol army was revolutionary due to the fact that they were creative and innovative in not only battle tactics but also military configuration and general placement. It was the dominant force during the 13th and most of the 14th century. Although the mongols had very similar military sizes as others such as Alexander the Great, complex military strategy was what set them apart and ultimately determined the mongols victorious reign for so long. Below is common strategy, soldiers, and weapons that were not specific to any one Mongol General. Dependent on your character, it is highly suggested that you research one or two unique fighting styles.

Soldiers

The core of the army for the most part would only have between 21000 and 25000 soldiers. This was comprised of horsemen who were equipped with bows, hand axes and waterproofed leather clothing. Often they would use specialists and those experienced in catapults and other siege weapons from the regions that they conquered, so that they could have the most efficient attacks and not waste valuable time training soldiers to perfect the use of this type of artillery. Instead horsemen and general soldiers would be intensively trained, once again, for ultimate effectiveness. Their conduct was also expected to be fairly respectful for the time, as kidnappers of women and adulterers would be executed. This was primarily because being a soldier in the mongol army was incredibly honourable and almost everyone was involved in the army in some way or another. Many of the horsemen were Turks and it wasn't common to have many mongols as soldiers in an army. The armies had tendency to be composed of people's conquered by the mongols, such as the Turks, Persians, Slavs and any other people who had exploitable. The mongols were leaders and would not sacrifice their own people unless it became absolutely vital that they do. Although, this driving force of an army was only one part of an incredibly complex plan for victory.

Weapons

Mongol weapons were often just improved upon versions of other's weapons. Each cavalryman carried a fairly large arsenal on themselves when going into battle. They each had a mace, a lance, a bow and three arrows and daggers. Those at the front were lancers who were elevated on their saddles in order to give them a more advantageous angle as well as more power for their attacks. These improved upon weapons were a very big deal because they gave the mongols an advantage that their foe had never seen before. For example their bows could go 250 more metres than english bows could which allowed them to pick off their enemies from farther away and ultimately lowering their risk of death. They were also able to be faster through their armour, by using leather instead of chainmail like the europeans. It was more flexible and lighter than chainmail but because it was so tough it was just as impenetrable. Due to the fact that it was less impeding they were also able to put it on their horses in order to protect them as well. The leather was waterproofed with urine so the conditions wouldn't be a problem for their protection in battle.

Battle Tactics

The mongols were some of the first to implement many popular battle tactics such as hostage taking, psychological warfare, human shields, etc. They were able to advance quickly on their enemies by firing a shower of arrows on them. After this the cavalry men would be able to ride through easily and manually kill any survivors. They would trick those being attacked by placing dummies on horses and lighting fires over a large area, so that opponents would believe the mongol army was bigger than it actually was. Arrows were a preferred weapon as they abused enemies in a vulnerable position from a distance. This was how they were able to defeat nearly every army they came across, no matter the size. They would also advance on a very broad front in order to be more intimidating and use what Genghis Khan called the terror that came along with being the mongols. They also used scouts which report back to not only the army but also the khan, so that there was good and effective communication between all ranks of the military, and so that there were rarely any miss steps. When advancing on a city they would make large columns which could withstand most firepower and weren't easily penetrated. This also allowed them to move better and evade their enemies more easily. The cavalry would often attack as a swarm and did a majority of the heavy fighting.