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Seljuk Policies in Anatolia And The Significance of The First Turkish Principalities in Early Turkey History

Selçukluların Anadolu Siyaseti ve Birinci Dönem Anadolu Türk Beyliklerinin Erken Dönem Türkiye Tarihindeki Yeri

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ÖZ

Büyük Selçuklulardan Çağrı Bey'in 11. yüzyılın ilk çeyreğinde düzenlediği Doğu Anadolu Seferi, Selçukluların Anadolu'yu fethine kadar devam edecek olan yaklaşık altmış yıllık Anadolu akınlarının başlangıcıdır. Çağrı Bey, düzenlediği bu seferin ardından, Anadolu'nun Türklere yurt olabileceğini fark etmiş ve bu bölgede Türklere direnecek bir kuvvetin olmadığını dile getirmiştir. Anadolu'nun fethedilebilir olduğunun tespit edilmesinin ardından Türkler, Malazgirt Savaşı'na kadar devam edecek olan cihat, ganimet elde etme ve keşif amaçlı Anadolu akınları düzenlemişlerdir. Bu akınlar döneminde 1048 Pasinler Savaşı galibiyeti ve 1064 Ani'nin Türkler tarafından fethi gibi çok önemli askeri başarılar sağlayan Selçuklular, 1071 Malazgirt Savaşı'nda Bizans'ı mağlup ederek, Anadolu'nun Türkiye'ye dönüşmesindeki en önemli adımı gerçekleştirmiş oldular. Malazgirt Savaşı'nın ardından hem Alp Arslan hem de Melikşah'ın izlediği fetih ve iskân politikası ile Anadolu kısa süre içerisinde Türk yurdu haline geldi. Haçlı seferleri ile Anadolu'dan çıkarılmayan Türkler, Miryokefalon Zaferi ile de Anadolu'nun artık Türklere ait olduğunu Bizans'a kabul ettirdiler. Malazgirt Savaşı'nın ardından başlayan fetihler ile günümüze kadar devam edecek olan Türkiye Tarihi başladı. Bu çalışmada, Anadolu'nun Türkiye'ye dönüşmesi sürecinde Selçukluların politikaları ve Birinci Dönem Anadolu Beyliklerinin bu süreçteki rolleri incelenmiştir.

ABSTRACT

Çağrı Bey, a leader of the Great Seljuks, launched Eastern Anatolia Campaign in the first quarter of the 11th century, which marked the beginning of a 60-year period of Anatolian raids until the Seljuk conquest of Anatolia. Following the campaign, Çağrı Bey envisioned to make Anatolia a homeland for the Turk, as he did not observe any visible powers that could resist to them in the region. Considering Anatolia a fairly easy location for conquest, until the Battle of Manzikert, the Turk organized several military raids against the region for different reasons such as jihad, spoils of war and expeditions. During these raids, Seljuk victory at the Battle of Kapetron in 1048 and Turkish conquest of Ani in 1064 were important military achievements for the Seljuk state, which was followed by the victory at the Battle of Manzikert against the Byzantine Empire in 1071. Thus, the Seljuk took the first step to turn Anatolia into a Turkish territory. After the Battle of Manzikert, both Alp Arslan and Melikshah adopted effective conquest and settlement policies to turn Anatolia into a Turkish homeland in a very short period of time. The Crusaders were unable to remove the Turk from Anatolia. The Byzantine Empire acknowledged Turkish sovereignty over Anatolia after Turkish victory at the Battle of Myriokephalon. The conquests following the Battle of Manzikert initiated Turkish history which would continue until the present day. The present study focuses on Seljuk policies in Anatolia as a Turkish territory and the roles of first Anatolian principalities in this process.

Introduction

Anatolia has been the host of many different civilizations during its longstanding history due to its strategic location and favorable climate conditions. The first contact of the Turk with this land very remote from their homeland dates back to ancient times. While some historians claim that the Turk arrived in Anatolia for the first time in BC 3000-2000, it is often difficult to verify their claims due to a lack of reliable historical sources. It is generally acknowledged that European (Western) Hun Turks first appeared in this territory during the 4th century (Kaya, 2014, p. 213). In 395, a certain part of European Hun Turks migrated to Thrace, whereas others travelled to Anatolian cities via Caucasia such as Erzurum in Eastern Anatolia, Malatya in Southern Anatolia, Cilicia, Antakya and Urfa and even Syria. Later, they returned to their homeland over Azerbaijan. İbrahim Kafesoğlu states that “*this is the first appearance of the Turk in Anatolia verified by historical accounts*” (Kafesoğlu, 2007, p. 73).

In the 6th century, the Sabirs advanced towards Central Anatolia, but only to retreat later, while, in the same period, some Bulgarian Turks were settled between Trabzon and Çoruh by the Byzantine Empire. In the 7th century, the Khazar Turks conquered two Arab emirates in Anatolia, while, in the early 8th century, a certain portion of Avar and Bulgarian Turks settled in Iranian border of Anatolia and around Ceyhan and Tohma Basin, respectively. Among non-Muslim Turkish groups, it is known that Bulgarian, Khazar and Ferganian Turks settled in the ancient Cappadocia during the 10th century. In addition, Uzbeks, Cumans-Kipchaks and Pechenegs were assigned to different posts in the Byzantine army in Anatolia. Similarly, Turkish commanders who were often assigned to duties in the border regions in Umayyad and Abbasid armies such as Afshin, Amacur et-Türki and his son Ali, Ashnas, Bektemir, Boğa es-Sagir, Boğa et-Türki, Feth b. Hakan, İshak b. Kundacık, Nur sh i b. Tacbek organized military campaigns against Anatolia, and some Turkish groups in Umayyad and Abbasid armies are known to have settled in the cities of Adana, Cydnus, Ahlat, Anazarba, Amid, Hades (Göynük), Malatya, Marash, Meyyafarikin, Manzikert and Erzurum (Yinanç, 2009, pp. 21-23; Sevim, 1987a, pp. 13-17; Turan, 2014b, p. 87; Gordlevski, 2015, pp. 25-26; Kaya, 2014, pp. 214-215).

It is possible to delve into more historical details regarding the relationship between the Turk and Anatolia before the Seljuk period. However, during the above-mentioned encounters, the Turk did not aim at making Anatolia a homeland for themselves. It was the Great Seljuk State policies which aimed to turn Anatolia a Turkish homeland following their decisive victory at the Battle of Manzikert against the Byzantine Empire. The present study aims to discuss Seljuk policies on the Anatolian territory before the Battle of Manzikert and to reveal the roles of Turkish political entities in the Early Turkey History after the Battle of Manzikert.

Although the period of Anatolian principalities is of vital importance for Turkey political history, the details regarding the period are still uncertain due to a lack of historical sources. Within the framework of Turkish history writing, the very first studies on this topic were carried out by leading figures such as Halil Edhem, Ahmed Tevhid, Ali Emiri and Fuad Köprülü. Western historians such as J. H. Mortdmann, too, published some works on the Anatolian Principalities period (Öden, 2011, p. 171). In recent years, the number of studies on the history of Anatolian principalities has been increasing gradually. However, the number of modern studies on the topic in English and other languages is very limited. Therefore, the present study aims to contribute to the existing literature on the Early Turkey History and First Anatolian Principalities in languages other than Turkish.

A General Overview of Seljuks' Relations with Anatolia before the Battle of Manzikert

One of the first and foremost milestones in the transition of Anatolia to Turkey was the Great Seljuk Sultan Alp Arslan's success at the Battle of Manzikert. However, Seljuk policies and military campaigns on Anatolia prior to the battle must not be overlooked.

The Great Seljuks launched military campaigns against Eastern Anatolia via Iran and Azerbaijan nearly twenty five years before creating a political organization. Çağrı Bey's¹ well-known Eastern Anatolia military campaign lasted 5 years, the purpose of which was to familiarize himself with the Anatolian territory. At the end, he was convinced that Anatolia was a territory ready for Turkish conquest. In this respect, it is of utmost importance to gain insight into Seljuk policies and raids on the region during a half-century period until the Battle of Manzikert. Otherwise, the role of Manzikert victory as a result of half-century planning and continuous efforts may not be emphasized sufficiently. In a similar vein, thanks to Seljuks' Anatolian policies and raids before the battle, Syria, Iraq, Iran and Azerbaijan were captured by Turkish forces. In other words, the fact that Anatolian territory was surrounded by Turkic communities was another political step towards the Turkish conquest of Anatolia.²

Before the Battle of Manzikert, the first Seljuk raid towards Anatolia was the five-year campaign organized by Çağrı Bey in 1015³. Entering Anatolia over Azerbaijani territory, Çağrı Bey invaded Van Lake basin and later met Tuğrul Bey who were around Buhara during the military campaign to inform him that there were no apparent military forces that could defeat the Turk in Anatolia, which can be considered as the first indication of Anatolia being a Turkish homeland. As a result, the Great Seljuks continued their raids and military campaigns towards Anatolia. In 1037 and 1038, a Turkmen group consisting of important Turkic rulers such as Mansur, Anasıroğlu and Boğa and led by Kızıl launched a new military campaign towards Anatolia to invade various regions such as Hakkari, Batman, Bolan, Zap, Garzan, Mardin, Meyyafarikin (Silvan), Cizre and Diyarbakır and advanced towards Mosul.

The number of Seljuk raids increased even more after they created their own political organization. It was clear during military raids in 1041, 1042, 1045 and 1046 that Anatolia was a central point for Turkish forces. For instance, Hasan Bey, son of Musa Yabgu, advanced from Ganja towards Van in a military campaign in 1046, but he was killed in an ambush during this campaign. Upon this, a new military campaign was launched by İbrahim Yinal ve Kutalmış by the order of Tuğrul Bey in 1048, which led to the Battle of Kapetron (Hasankale/Pasinler). In this battle, the Seljuks defeated the Byzantine Empire and their ally, Georgians, and started play an effective role in the political history of Anatolian region. A few years later, in 1054, Sultan Tuğrul himself marched on Anatolia and entered Van region to capture Manzikert. Dividing his army into three troops, the Sultan was engaged in various military operations in Central, Northern and Eastern Anatolia and returned to the city of Ray due to approaching winter. In 1057, Yakutî, son of Çağrı Bey, continued his raids on Eastern Anatolia and advanced towards Kemah and southern regions such as Ahlat, Harput and Malatya. Certain troops affiliated with Yakutî also surrounded Urfa; however, they did not manage to capture the city. During the 1060s, Yakutî's Turkmen rulers reached Sivas in Central Anatolia and returned back to Azerbaijan in 1061. However, Yakutî launched another military campaign towards Anatolia in 1062 to march on the Byzantine forces near the Kızılırmak River and attacked important Byzantine fortresses in the region (Yinanç, 2009, pp. 23-56; Turan, 2014b, pp. 95-107; Kaya, 2014, pp. 220-225; Turan, 2013, pp. 45-50; Özgündeli, 2014, pp. 61-63).

¹ For more information, see (Piyadeoğlu, 2021)

² About the Anatolian campaigns of the Seljuks before the Battle of Manzikert see (Kaya, 2004; Ayönü, 2014, pp. 7-11).

³ Different sources date this campaign back to a period between 1015 and 1018.

Regular raids on the Anatolian territory during the reign of Tuğrul Bey cannot be solely labeled as a military operation. They also constituted a specific policy of establishing necessary conditions which would facilitate Oghuz Turks' settlement in Azerbaijan and Eastern Anatolia (Turan, 2003, p.150). Following Tuğrul Bey's period, the Great Seljuk Sultan Alp Arslan continued military campaigns towards Anatolia, when, just after his enthronement, he launched a campaign towards Caucasia and Azerbaijan, which can be considered as an extension of Tuğrul Bey's Western campaigns (Köymen, 1972, p. 24; Turan, 2014a, p. 116). It can be stated that even though the capture of Ani during this campaign was overshadowed by the great victory at the battle of Manzikert, it is still one of the most important conquests during Alp Arslan's reign. Being the capital of Bagrationi Dynasty and left to the Byzantine Empire by Gajik in 1045, Ani was located in a strategic and strong position due to high walls surrounding the city. Given various symbolic names such as "the city with one thousand and one churches", "the unconquerable city", "the eastern lock of Anatolia", Ani was one of the most significant commercial centers of the East (Cevzi, 2011, p. 135; Peacock, 2010, p. 173; Kaya, 2014, p. 225). Despite a challenging battle in front of the city, Alp Arslan conquered Ani on 16 August 1064 and opened a new gate for the Great Seljuks in Anatolia. The conquest was welcomed with joy by the Islamic community, and Kaim Biemrillah, then the Abbasid Caliph, conferred Alp Arslan the title of Abu al-Feth (the father of conquest) due to his success. The city was left to Shaddadid Emirate Menuçehr after the conquest (Turan, 2003, p. 156; Köymen, 1972, pp.32-34).

Jean-Paul Roux depicts the conquest of Ani as follows: *When Ani, the capital of Armenia, fell, Alp Arslan ordered to erect a crescent symbolizing the Turk on one of the most beautiful sceneries in the city, the cathedral, among many other hidden beauties there. It was as if this crescent rose above the defeat of Armenians, and it would soon become the symbol of Ottoman Empire and Islamic world.* (Roux, 2016, p. 213).

The conquest of Ani paved the way for new military campaigns and broadened their sphere of influence. Between 1064 and 1068, various fortresses in different Anatolian cities were captured by Turkmen groups who focused their attention on military operations in Cilicia, Antakya and Malatya (Yinanç, 2009, p. 59; Eskikurt, 2019, p. 257).

In 1070, Alp Arslan launched another military campaign towards Anatolia and Syria. Conquering Manzikert and Erçiş, Alp Arslan directed his course towards southern region to enter Diyarbakır. Later, he surrounded Urfa and signed a peace treaty in return for 50.000 dinars. Traversing Euphrates, he also surrounded Aleppo and contemplated marching on Egypt. However, upon learning that Romanos IV Diogenes, the Byzantine Emperor, was marching on Kalıkala (Erzurum) with a large army, Alp Arslan immediately traveled to Erçiş and Manzikert via Hamadan. When he defeated the Byzantine Empire at the battle of Manzikert in 1071, he initiated a new historical period for the Turk in Anatolia that would last until the present day (İbnü'l Cevzi, 2011, pp. 168-171; Göksu, 2021, 12; see also Kesik, 2014).

A General Overview of the First Anatolian Principalities from a Political History Perspective

Romanos IV Diogenes' army was almost destroyed at the Battle of Manzikert, and he was taken as a prisoner by Alp Arslan. After the battle, both parties signed a treaty on the Byzantine Empire's tribute payment to the Seljuks, mutual release of captives and the Seljuks' right to obtain subsidiary powers. However, when the Emperor Romanos IV Diogenes returned to Istanbul, he was blinded by putting hot irons on his eyes by his opponents, and he died after a short time. The death of Diogenes nullified the agreement between the Byzantine Empire and Seljuks, which again legitimized Seljuk attacks on the Anatolian territory (Ionnes, 2008, p. 141; Ostrogorsky, 2011, p. 319).

Since the Anatolian cities were weakened by Turkish raids within a few decades, no military forces existed to withstand these attacks. Being aware of his influence over Anatolia, Alp Arslan decided to help Turkish communities settle in the region as their homeland instead of jihad, spoils of war and discovery. For a rapid conquest and settlement process, Turkmen rulers entitled residents to *iqta*⁴ in the conquered regions, which facilitated Turkish military activities and settlements across Anatolia (Reşidüddin, 2010, p. 118; Şeker, 2002, p. 453). Thus, Turkmen rulers could advance towards Aegean and Marmara coast easily within a relatively short period of time (Sevim, 1987a, p. 75; Yakupoğlu, 2021, p. 21; Gordlevski, 1988, p. 39). Alp Arslan's incentives and his successor Melikshah's well-planned conquest and Turkish settlement policies⁵ for the Anatolian territory helped Turkish commanders become leading powers in the regions where they captured.

Following the Battle of Manzikert, in addition to Turkey Seljuk State, a new group of political organizations called the *First Turkish States in Anatolia* or, for a more holistic view of Turkish political history, the *First Anatolian Principalities*, emerged in this region (Alıç, 2021, p. 11). These principalities are *Mengüjeks*, *Saltukids*, *Danishmendids*, *Dılmaçs* (*Demleçs* / *Kamburs* / *Bitlisshahs*), *İnalids* (*Yinalids*), *Artuqids*, *Shar-Armens* (*Sökmenids*), *Chaka Principality* and *Çubukids* as well as *Karatekinids* around Kastamonu and Sinop, *Sandukids* and *Tanrivermishes* around Ephesus. However, there is little information about the second group in current historical sources.

Danishmendids: Danishmendid Principality was founded by Gümüştigin Ahmed Ghazi, also known as Danishmend Ghazi, who was one of the important commanders in the Great Seljuk Sultan Alp Arslan's army (Kesik, 2018, p. 61). His father, Danishmend Ali Taylu, fulfilled important duties in the Great Seljuk State such as teaching, counselling, diplomacy (Solmaz, 2001, pp. 6-11). Rashid al-Din states that Danishmend Ghazi joined the Battle of Manzikert in 1071 (Reşidüddin, 2010, p. 115). After the battle, he arrived in Anatolia and captured Sivas, Tokat, Niksar, Malatya, Elbistan (Müneccimbaşı, 2001, p. 144), Amasya (Aksarayı, 2000, p. 13; Niğdeli Kadı Ahmed, 2015, p. 431), Kayseri, Zamantı, Develi (Reşidüddin, 2010, p. 120) and Cappadocia to found Danishmendid Principality (Süryani Mihail, 1944, pp. 31-32).

After founding the principality, Danishmend Ghazi had to face the Crusaders. In 1100, he fought against Bohemond I of Antioch in Malatya and took him and his nephew, Richard, as prisoners (Azîmî, 2006, p. 38; Mateos, 2000, p. 205, Vardan, 1937, p. 188; İbn'l-Esir, 1991a, 247; Runciman, 1989, p. 249; İbnü'l-Adim, 2011; p. 100). In 1102⁶, he captured Malatya, which was one of the most important cities in that period, from Gabriel. Danishmend Ghazi's success against the Crusaders increased his fame and influence over the region (Solmaz, 2001, p. 68). However, his political power later caused a rivalry between Danishmendids and Seljuks. His date of death is still controversial in various historical sources, although it is considered that he died in 1105 (Mateos, 2000, p. 225; Turan, 1971, p. 146; Solmaz, 2001, p. 160).

After the death of Danishmend Ghazi, Emir Ghazi became his successor. He was immediately involved in the fight for the throne in Anatolian Seljuk State and supported his son-in-law, Mesud I, to help him become the new Anatolia Seljuk Sultan (İbn Bibi, 1996, p. 13). In this period, Danishmendids and Anatolian Seljuks unified against their rivals in

⁴ *İqta* can be defined the system of right holders' entitlement to a real estate property in a region by a certain ruler (Demirci, 2000, p. 43).

⁵ See (Tekindağ, 1967, p.6; Şeker, 2002, p. 453).

⁶ Sources give contradictory information about when Malatya was captured by Danishmendids. For evaluation on this matter see (Solmaz, 2001, pp. 90-93).

Anatolia, which help the former become the most influential political authority in Anatolia during Emir Ghazi period (Yinanç,2009, p. 81; Alptekin, 1992, p. 239). When Emir Ghazi died in 1134/1135, he was succeeded by his son Melik Muhammed (Solmaz, 2000, p. 149). It would not be wrong to consider him as a successful administrator. Melik Muhammed died on 6 December 1143 (Süryani Mihail, 1944, p. 119). After his death, Danishmendid Principality was divided into three branches in Kayseri, Malatya and Sivas. These three branches joined the Anatolian Seljuk State in 1169, 1175 and 1178, respectively, which brought the end of Danishmendids (Özaydın, 2002, pp. 400-403).

Danishmendids contributed to the construction of many public buildings, including grand mosques in different regions such as Sivas Grand Mosque, Niksar Grand Mosque and Kayseri Grand Mosque. Among their other architectural works are Kayseri Melik Ghazi Madrasa, Niksar Yağlıbasan Madrasa, Tokat Yağlıbasan Madrasa, Niksar Hacı Çıkrık Madrasa, Amasya Halifet Gazi Madrasa, Sunguriye Madrasa and Zawiyah, Tokat Garipler Mosque, Amasya Şamlar Mosque, Kayseri Kölük Mosque and Madrasa, Kayseri Battal Mosque, Gümenek Ribat, Süleyman Ribat, Yağlıbasan Hangah, Zahir al-Din Inn and many other sacred tombs (for more information, see Solmaz, 2001, pp. 269-331).

Artuqids: The ancestor of Artuqids was Zahir al-Din Artuk Bey, son of Eksük Bey, who was a Seljuk commander and assigned to important duties by the Seljuk Sultan Alp Arslan. After the battle of Manzikert, he was entitled to an iqta in Mardin and surrounding areas in return for his success at the battle (Reşidüddin, 2010, p. 113,118; Müneccimbaşı, 2001, p. 162). Following his death, his son founded Artuqid principality around Mardin which consisted of three branches: Hısn-ı Keyfa (Hasankeyf) (1102-1232), Mardin (1106-1409) and Harput (1112-1124/1185-1233) (Alptekin, 1991, p. 418-419).

In 1102, Sökmen, son of Artuk Bey, arrived in Hısn-ı Keyfa and took the command in the city, which became later Hısn-ı Keyfa (Tabaka-i Sökmeniye/Sökmens) branch (İbnü'l-Ezrak, 1992, p. 30; İbnü'l-Esir, 1991a, 279; Artuk, 1994, p. 29). For a certain period, Hısn-ı Keyfa branch governed important cities such as Harput (Süryani Mihail, 1994, p. 82; Abu'l Farac, 1987, p. 359), Amid, Palu, Siirt and, for nearly 130 years, developed relations with different powers such as the Great Seljuks, Zengid dynasty, Ayyubid dynasty, Khwarazmian Empire, Anatolian Seljuks and the Crusaders (Alptekin, 1991; 418). Their fall was caused by Ayyubid dynasty in 1232 (İbn Kesir, 1995, p. 269).

In 1104, Necm al-Din İlghazi, one of Artuk Bey's sons, left Baghdad to arrive in his iqta in Mardin. He founded Artuqid Principality as an affiliation of the Seljuk State in 1106. With reference to its founder, İlghazi, this principality is also called Tabaka-i İlghaziyye (İbnü'l Ezrak, 1992, p. 30; Lane-Poole, 2020, pp. 220-221; Seiv, 2000a, p. 89; Köprülü, 1978, p. 617; Alptekin, 1991, p. 415). For nearly three centuries between 1106 and 1409, Mardin Artuqids governed various cities such as Mardin, Nusaybin, Harran, Meyyafarikin, Silvan, Dârâ and Resulayn. They were destroyed by Qara Qoyunlus in 1409 (for more information, see İbnü'l Ezrak 1992; Katip Ferdi, 2006, Abdülğani Efendi, 1999; Ebu Bekr-i Tihrani, 2014; Artuk, 1944).

In 1112, Belek Ghazi, grandson of Artuk Bey, captured Harput and founded Harput Artuqid Principality, with Palu being its capital city. Governing Aleppo for some time, Belek Ghazi died in 1124, and Süleyman Bey became his successor, whose reign did not last long, as some part of Harput Artuqid territory was captured by Hısn-ı Keyfa Artuqids (Köprülü, 1978, p. 619). In 1185, Kutb al-Din Sökmen captured Harput and revived Harput Artuqid principality, which was destroyed by Turkey Seljuks during the reign of Ala al-Din Keykubad in 1234 (Sümer, 2002, p. 359).

Artuqid Principality were one of the most prominent among the First Anatolian Principalities, as manifested by the high number of architectural works during their period: Mardin Grand Mosque, Harput Grand Mosque, Meyyafarikin Grand Mosque, Düneysir Grand Mosque, Mardin Melik Mahmud Mosque, Mardin Latifiye Mosque, Mardin Şehidiye Mosque, Harput Esendiye Mosque, Harput Alacalı Mosque, Sultan İsa Madrasa, Mardin Hatuniye Madrasa, Harzem Tac al-Din Mesud Madrasa, Melik Mansur Madrasa, Altunboğa Madrasa, Kutbiyye Madrasa, Şihabiye Madrasa, Marufiye Madrasa, Şehidiye Madrasa, Diyarbakır Mesudiye Madrasa, Diyarbakır Zinciriye Madrasa, Necm al-Din Qulliya, Emin al-Din Qulliya, Hatuniye Public Bath, Maristan Public Bath, Yenikapı Public Bath, Harput Public Bath, Hısn-ı Keyfa Public Bath, Malabadi Bridge, Çermik Bridge, Hısn-ı Keyfa Bridge, Devegeçidi Bridge, Diyarbakır Artuqid Palace, Hısn-ı Keyfa Palace and Harput Fortress (for more information, see Altun, 1978; Nayır, 2010; Karaçam, 2012).

Mengüjekids: Mengüjek Ghazi, the founder of Mengüjekids, was an important commander the Great Seljuk Sultan Alp Arslan's army. After the Battle of Manzikert, he started to govern Kemah, Erzincan, Divriği and Colonia (Şebinkarahisar) to found Mengükejid Principality (Reşidüddin, 2010, p. 120; İbn Bibi, 1996, p. 12; Münecimbaş, 2001, p. 212; Süryani Mihail, 1944, p. 71; Kaya, 2006, p. 33; Sümer, 2015, p. 1). Following his death, the principality was governed by İshak Bey, who captured Palu, Dersim and surrounding areas in this period. It was finally divided into two branches, namely Erzincan-Kemah and Divriği, following the death of İshak Bey.

The first ruler of Erzincan-Kemah Davudshah I. however, historical sources offer very little information regarding his reign. After his death, the ruler of Divriği branch, Süleyman Bey, also undertook to govern Erzincan-Kemah branch (Süryani Mihail, 1944, p. 163). However, after a certain while, Fahr al-Din Behramshah became the leading authority for Erzincan-Kemah branch and governed it for nearly 60 years, becoming the most well-known ruler of Mengüjeks. Davudshah II succeeded Behramshah; however, the relations between Mengüjeks and Turkey Seljuks deteriorated in his time. In 1228, Turkey Seljuks captured Davudshah II and declared their authority over Erzincan and Kemah. He was entitled to iqta in Akşehir and Iğın. At the same time, Şebinkarahisar, which was ruled by Mezaffer al-Din Muhammed, son of Behramshah, was captured by Turkey Seljuks, which ended Erzincan-Kemah branch of Mengüjeks (İbn Bibi, 1996, pp. 354,364-371).

The first ruler of Divriği branch of Mengüjeks is Süleyman Bey. He was succeeded by Sahinshah II. Süleymanshah II, Ahmedshah ve Melik Salih, respectively. Although the date of the fall of Divriği branch is not exactly given in various historical sources, it is likely that it was before 1227 (Sümer, 2004, pp. 141-142).

Reigning more than 150 years, the borders of Mengüjekid Principality extended over Tercan in the west, Bayburt, Gümüşhane, İspir, Oltu in the north and Mengerd in the east (Kaya, 2006, p. 36). Apart from their Turkish rivals in Anatolia, Mengüjekids also fought against Armenians, Crusaders, Georgians and Byzantine Empire (see. Ali Kemali, 1932; Sümer, 2004, Özaydın, 2016b).

Mengüjekids gave importance to scientific and cultural activities and created many different architectural works such as Divriği Grand Mosque, Divriği Fortress Mosque, Şebinkarahisar Fortress Mosque, Fahr al-Din Bahramshah Mosque, Divriği Fortress Mosque, Melik Fahr al-Din Madrasa, Melik Muzafer al-Din Madrasa, Erzincan Madrasa, Divriği Fortress, Şebinkarahisar Fortress, Kemah Fortress, Erzincan Fortress, Akşehir Fortress, Kestifan Fortress, Turan Melik Hospital, Erzincan Hospital, Burmahan Caravansary, Miçirge Inn, Dipli Inn, Bekir Çavuş Public Bath, Aşağı Public Bath and Kemah Poorhouse. In addition,

Mengüjekids built 20 or more sacred tombs and zawiyahs (for more information, see Kaya, 2006).

Saltukids: Abu al-Kasım İzz al-Din Saltuk Bey, one of Sultan Alp Arslan's commanders, played an important role in the Turkish conquest of Anatolia. Due to his success in this process, he was entitled to an iqta on the land between Kars and Bayburt, thus leading to the emergence of Saltukid Principality. The borders of this principality surrounded various cities and towns such as Erzurum, Kars, Avnik, Oltu, Tercan, Tortum, Şebinkarahisar, Pasinler, Micingerd, Bayburt and Kaçmaz (Özaydın, 1994, pp. 23-24; Yinaç, 1964, p. 348; Yinaç, 1987, p. 457; Kesik, 2018, p. 49). After the death of Saltuk Bey, Saltukids were ruled by Abu al-Kasım, Emir Ali, Ziya al-Din Ghazi, Saltuk II, Nasır al-Din Muhammed, Mama Hatun and Melikshah, respectively (Gürbüz, 2002). Saltukids fought against Georgians for a long time, and İzz al-Din Saltuk was even taken as a captive by them. However, he was released in return for 100.000 dinars after a certain time (İbnü'l Esir, 1991b, pp. 229-230; Özaydın, 1994, pp. 33-34). In 1202, the Anatolian Seljuk Sultan Süleymanshah II launched a military campaign against Georgia and advanced towards Erzurum to destroy Saltukid Principality. Various sources claim that after this date, Saltukids continued their political activities in Micingerd and Çemişgezek (Gürbüz, 2002, pp. 105-115).

Some architectural works built in the Saltukid period are as follows: Fortress Mosque, Grand Mosque, Tepsi Minaret, Clock Tower, Sacred Tomb of Three Domes, Mama Hatun Tomb, Mama Hatun Public Bath, Mama Hatun Caravansary and Micingerd Fortress.

Ahlatshahs (Shah-Armens): Being one of the largest and most crowded Anatolian cities in the Middle Age, Ahlat (Merçil, 2015, p. 213) was captured by Seljuks following the Battle of Manzikert (Sümer, 1986, p. 454). In 1100⁷, Sökmen el-Kutbî, who was a Turkish-origin governor of Kutb al-Din İsmail İlarşan, the Seljuk king of Azerbaijan, was assigned to govern Ahlat. As a reference to its founder, Sökmenid Principality, also known as Shah-Armens due to its region of government, was thus founded. In 1104, Sökmen el-Kutbî triumphed against the Crusaders near Urfa. In 1111, he also undertook to govern Tabriz, Meyyafarikin, Ahlat and some other towns (İbnü'l Ezrak, 1992, p. 217; Sevim, 1987b, 465; Sümer, 1989, pp. 24-25; Kesik, 2018, p. 115). Later, important cities and towns such as Muş, Manzikert, Erciş, Adilcevaz, Vestan, Bargiri and Van came under the rule of Shah-Armens. Sökmen el-Kutbî was succeeded by Zahir al-Din İbrahim (1111-1127), Ahmed Bey, Devletşah Nasır al-Din Muhammed Sökmen (1128-1185), Seyf al-Din Bektimur (1185-1193), Aksungur Hezar Dinari (1193-1198), Kutlu Bey (1197), Mansur Muhammed (1198-1207) and İzz al-Din Balaban (1206-1208), respectively. Shah-Armens were destroyed by Ayyubid dynasty in 1207 (for more information, see Müneccimbaşı, 2001, pp. 219-226; Sümer 1986, p. 197; Özaydın, 2016a, pp. 115-128; Merçil, 2015).

Shah-Armens were affluent in terms of economic conditions, and their income was even compared with that of Egypt. However, their architectural works such as mosques, madrasas, zawiyahs and caravansaries did not reach until the present due to various factors such as natural disasters and military operations. In addition, the number of gravestone epitaphs from Shah-Armen period is fairly low (Sümer, 1989, pp. 24-28).

Chaka Principality: Its founder, Chaka Bey, advanced towards Aegean region within a short time after the Battle of Manzikert and was engaged in various military operations in Western Anatolia, including İzmir and surrounding cities (Kesik, 2018, p. 56). In a naval

⁷ According to Niğdeli Kadı Ahmed, he captured the city in 1101/1102 (Niğdeli, 2015, p. 454).

campaign against the Byzantine Empire in 1078, he was taken as a captive by Kabalika Alexander and handed over to the Byzantine Empire Nikephoros II Botaneiates. The emperor bestowed upon Chaka Bey the title of “*protonobilissimos (the first of the noblest)*” (Ayönü, 2009, p. 3) and granted him some privileges in his court. During his captivity in the Byzantine court, Chaka Bey became familiar with different war methods and naval operations (Alptekin, 1987, p. 477; İlgürel, 1993, pp. 187-188). However, he could not develop positive relations with the new Byzantine Emperor, Alexios I Komnesos, who came to the throne in 1081 and left Istanbul to arrive in İzmir where he probably founded Chaka Principality (Ayönü, 2009, pp. 3-4). He built a fleet of 40 ships (Anna Kommena, 1996, p. 269) to start conquests in various Aegean islands and captured important islands such as Foça, Urla, Chios, Lesbos, Samos and Rhodes (Şahin, 2016, p. 133). Chaka Bey’s military activities and bearing the title of Basil (Emperor) imply that he made great efforts to conquer İstanbul. He contacted Alexios I Komnesos to demand his previous privileges back and guaranteed that he would marry his daughter with the Emperor’s son and give former Byzantine land back. However, his offer was not reciprocated by the Emperor (Daş, 2009, p. 50; Aliç, 2021, p. 58). During his relatively short political life, Chaka Bey displayed an important success along the Aegean-Marmara coast line as well as Aegean islands and was killed by Turkey Seljuk Sultan Kılıç Arslan, who was also his son-in-law. Building the first Turkish naval forces and gaining the first naval victory against the Byzantine Empire, he is considered as the pioneer of Turkish naval history.

İnalids: The capital of İnalids (Yinalids), Amid (Diyarbakır), was governed by the Syrian Seljuks in the late 11th century. As a result of domestic turmoil among them, the region was shared by different Turkmen rulers. A Turkmen ruler called Sadr captured Amid and was later succeeded by his brother İnal et-Türkmanî following his death. As a reference to his name, the principality was called Inalids or, as a reference to its capital, Amid Turkmen Principality (Çevik, 2002a, pp. 212-213). Historical sources demonstrated that the reign of İnal et-Türkmanî was a short period of time, only two years. After his death, Fahr al-ddevle İbrahim succeeded him and developed positive relations with Turkey Seljuks by joining Sultan Kılıç Arslan in his campaign against Mosul. However, abstaining from the Great Seljuks, İbrahim Bey returned to Amid after a certain while (İbnü’l Esir, 1991a, pp. 343-344). In a short time, he brought nearly 30 villages around Meyyafarikin (Silvan) under his rule (Çevik, 2002c, p. 846). His son, Sad al-devle Abu Mansur İl-Aldı, became his successor in 1110. During his reign, they fought against Batnis in Diyarbakır and minimized their influence over the region (İbnü’l Esir, 1991a, p. 494). He was also successful in his struggle against the Crusaders and died in 1142. Similar to his father, he was succeeded by his son, Şems al-müluk Mahmud. For 43 years between 1140 and 1183, grand viziers called Nisanids influenced political life among İnalids. Saladin al-Ayubbi laid a siege to Amid and ended İnalid Principality in April/May 1183 (İbnü’l Esir, 1991b, pp. 391-392; Süryani Mihail, 1944, p. 262, Abu’l- Farac, 1987, pp. 430-431; Merçil, 2015, pp. 245-246; Seiv, 2000b, 258; Başar, 1994b, p. 274 Kesik, 2015, pp. 108-112).

Dilmaçs: The founding process of Dilmaç Principality is seldom mentioned in historical sources. The principality was also called Dimlaç, Demleç, Togan Arslan and Kambur Principality (El-Ahdab) (Sümer, 2015, p. VII; Çevik, 2002b, p. 117; Başar, 1994b, 268; Kesik, 2018, p. 99). Even though it is not exactly known by whom and when Dilmaç Principality was founded, it is likely that it was founded by Dilmaçoğlu Mehmed Bey who was entitled to an iqta in Bitlis by Sultan Melikshah in 1085 (Sevim, 1994, p. 257). The capital cities of this principality were Bitlis and Erzen. In addition, Vestan and Duvin were also under the rule of Dilmaç Principality for a certain period of time. Dilmaçoğlu Mehmed Bey, who is considered as the founder, served Sultan Alp Arslan during his reign. Following his death in 1113, Hüsam al-devle Alptekin started to govern Dilmaçs. He was succeeded by Şems al-devle Togan Arslan who reigned for nearly 20 years, becoming one of the most important rulers for Dilmaç

Principality. During his reign, Dilmaçs fought against Georgians (İbnü'l Ezrak, 1992, p. 34), Crusaders (İbnü'l Esir, 1991a, p. 440; Müneccimbaşı, 2001, p. 187) and Shaddadids. After the reign of Togan Arslan, Hüsam al-devle Kurti (1134-1143), Şems al-Din Yakut Arslan (1143-1146) and Fahr al-Din Devletshah (1146-1193) became rulers, respectively. During Devletshah's period, the political rivalry with Georgians intensified, and Dilmaçs came under the rule of Ayyubid dynasty. Devletshah's successor was Hüsam al-Din Tuğrul (1193-1231?) whose period witnessed a political instability due to Mongolian attacks against the Anatolian territory. It is not possible to track political history of Dilmaç Principality after this period. The existing data on their history suggest that İzz al-Din Muhammed (1282? - 1306), Melik Kahir (1306? - 1333), Mansur Celal al-Din (1333-1362) and Melik Ali (1372-1394) governed this principality. Similarly, the exact date of fall of Dilmaçs is unknown; however, it can be argued that they fell due to the political and military strength of Aq Qoyunlus in Anatolia (Çevik, 2002b, pp. 131-160; Kesik, 2018, pp. 100-105).

Çubuks: One of the subordinates of Artuk Bey, a Turkmen commander, Çubuk Bey participated in various activities in Southeastern Anatolia and Northern Syria after the Battle of Manzikert. In 1085, he was entitled to an iqta in Harput and managed to found a principality affiliated with the Seljuks (Bezer, 1997, pp. 69-80; Turan, 1971, pp. 74-75). Within a certain period of time, the borders of Çubuk Principality were expanded by cities and towns such as Palu, Mazgirt, Çemişkezek, Eğin, Arapgir, Dersim and Genç (Kesik, 2015, p. 96). Being a less prominent figure, Çubuk Bey joined the Great Seljuk Sultan Melikshah in 1092/1093 in his journey to Baghdad (İbnü'l Esir, 1991a, p. 176). Current historical sources do not offer sufficient information regarding the death of Çubuk Bey. He was succeeded by his son Muhammed and, similarly, the details about his life and political activities are very limited. Muhammed died in 1112, His successor in Çubuk Principality is not known. After the death of Muhammed, Artukid Belek Ghazi marched on the Çubuk territory. In order to prevent the fall of Çubuk Principality due to Belek Ghazi, the ruler of Harput sold the Çubuk territory to the ruler of Malatya, Emiri Tuğrul Arslan, who was affiliated with Turkey Seljuks, thus ending Çubuk principality (SüyaniMihail, 1944, p. 66; Yinanç, 1979, p. 469, Bezer, 1997, 89).

Kızıl Arslans: The information on this principality is almost non-existent in current historical sources. Its founder, Kızıl Arslan, was able to create a political organization encompassing various regions, namely Tanza, Siirt and Bahmerd. Although Kızıl Arslan's activities in the late 11th and early 12th century are revealed (İbnü'l Esir, 1991a, 293), his exact date of death is unknown (Çevik, 2002a, pp. 256-259). It is yet likely that the principality fell when Zengid dynasty defeated Yakub, son of Kızıl Arslan, during the 1140s and captured Siirt, Hizan, El-Ma'den, Fatlis, Eyruh, Tanze, Cebelcur, Bânisiye and Hısn Zulkarneyn (Sümer, 2015, p. 99).

A General Overview of Social, Cultural and Economic Life in Anatolia after the Battle of Manzikert

From the 6th century, Byzantine Empire's constant rivalry against Sasanian Empire, Umayyad and Abbasid Caliphate devastated many settlements throughout Anatolia and reduced the population in Anatolian towns and villages considerably. Therefore, Anatolian communities were forced to stay safe behind cities surrounded by walls in order to survive.

Following the Battle of Manzikert, Oghuz Turkmen communities near Syr Darya and Transoxiana migrated to the Anatolian territory rapidly, which resulted in the emergence of Anatolian principalities and revived deserted Anatolian villages. For a more effective Turkish settlement policy, those living in an urban area settled in urban areas in Anatolia, while those engaged in agriculture and animal husbandry settled in rural areas. Turkish residents in Anatolia rebuilt old villages and towns in this region to create new settlement areas for themselves. Similarly, the damaged city walls were repaired to protect Turkish cities from external attacks

(Çetin, 2002a, pp. 423-428,432). The old road networks were rebuilt, and some new networks were integrated to the old network. In addition, inns and caravansaries were built to ensure road security at a maximum level. The settlements repaired or built by the Turk were given Turkish names to take the first steps towards geographical Turkification (for more information, see Karadoğan, 2002; Yakupoğlu, 2021, p. 29) of the Anatolian territory. While some settlements were given new Turkish names, the names of some places were adapted to Turkish as can be seen in the following examples: İkonium-Konya, Brusse- Bursa, Sebastia-Sivas, Herakleia-Ereğli (Çetin, 2002, p. 433).

Since the first Turkish states in the history, the Turk have always adopted a settlement policy to maintain their existence in a new settlement area, causing the Turkification of the captured areas under certain rules. A very similar settlement policy was adopted in the Turkish conquest of Anatolia, which turned Greek, Armenian and Georgian population into minorities in Anatolia (Sevim, 1987a, p. 76).

The growing Turkish population in different regions of Anatolia also benefited the region from an economic perspective thanks to agricultural activities and animal husbandry. As for agriculture, the Turk increased the popularity of melon, watermelon, cotton and sunflower in Anatolia. Similarly, sericulture and silkworm breeding became more common in Anatolia in this period. Many cattle were also brought to Anatolia through Turkish settlements, which again increased animal husbandry in the region.

After Turkmens who settled in Anatolia created different economic domains for basic living standards, their construction activities also transformed the region into a developed territory. Shortly after the conquest, both Turkey Seljuks and Anatolian principalities built many different administrative, military and social institutions such as mosques, masjids, dervish lodges, zawayahs, madrasas, inns, public baths, fountains, bridges, closed bazaars, food kitchens and hospitals and created foundations for their consistent maintenance (Kafalı, 1996, pp. 7-13; Aliç, 2021, pp. 13-14).

For a healthy administrative system and a stable settlement policy, government staff such as governors, police force, taxmen, fortress guards and court members were assigned to bureaucratic posts in new Turkish settlement areas, which helped Turkish population growth and ensured the stability of legal order in these areas (Çetin, 2002, p. 433).

Turkish conquest of Anatolia also caused significant changes in economic conditions of Anatolian cities. For instance, as a result of semi-nomadic culture, animal husbandry and horse trade gained particular importance. In addition, different fields of occupation such as jewelry, blacksmithing, coppersmith, leather working, carpet weaving and sericulture became popular in all corners of Anatolia. In a similar vein, caravan roads and caravansaries built by Turkey Seljuks and Anatolian principalities, conquest of port cities and developing commerce thanks to a reliable trading environment created by Ahi community contributed to the welfare in Anatolia (Uzunçarşılı, 2011, pp. 246-257; Kafalı, 1996, p. 14; see also Hacıgökmen, 2005). Ahi community also contributed greatly to the popularity of new Turkish settlements, which helped the development of an urbanization culture (Koca, 2008, p. 33).

Continuous Turkish settlements in different regions of Anatolia integrated longstanding Turkish culture, traditions and customs into spiritual dimension of Islam and ancient Anatolian customs to create a new cultural framework. The importance attached to science and scholars by Turkey Seljuk State and Anatolian principalities also paved the way for scientific development in Anatolian cities. Religious values were preserved and passed onto new Anatolian communities in this period. Dervish lodges and zawayahs functioned as important socialization environments for people and offered them hospitality, humanity and a sense of trust, which spread socio-cultural perspectives of Turkmen communities all around Anatolia. These social structures also provided people in need with basic needs such as food, shelter and security, and were institutionalized and supported by prosperous foundations in the following

years, which created more crowded Turkish communities around these institutions. As such social structures set an example of hospitality and trust among the poor and people in need, it contributed significantly to the Islamization of ancient Anatolian communities and rise of Turkish-Islamic thought in the region (Aliç, 2021, p. 14; Aladağ, 2018, pp. 4-5; see also Özköse, 2003).

Turkey Seljuks and Anatolian principalities did not oppress local communities in Anatolia and showed respect to their religions. Miri land (for more information, see Kenanoğlu, pp. 157-160) regime introduced by the Turk to Anatolia guaranteed social justice in the region. As a result, because of its tolerance and justness, local Anatolian communities such as Assyrians, Armenians and Greeks preferred Turkish administration over the Byzantine Empire (Turan, 1969, p. 133).

Conclusion

The relations of the Turk with the Anatolian territory are known to date back to ancient times. However, it was thanks to the emergence of Great Seljuks in the history that the Turk showed an even more growing interest in Anatolia. For a few decades between Çağrı Bey's expeditions in 1015 and 1071, Seljuks launched military campaigns against Anatolia many times to recognize the region and witnessed the weaknesses of the Byzantine Empire there. After the ultimate victory of Seljuks at the battle of Manzikert in 1071, Sultan Alp Arslan ordered Turkish rulers around him to capture various regions in the Anatolian territory, which also continued during the reign of Melikshah.

Throughout the history, military victories and captured territories have been quite important for political stability. However, it is always more important to maintain political existence in a certain region. To this end, a nation needs to dominate a captured land culturally for political success in the long run. In this respect, Turkey Seljuks and Anatolian principalities can be considered as the leading actors of Turkish history in Anatolia, as, on the one hand, they fought against the Byzantine Empire, Armenians, Georgians and Crusaders, and, on the other hand, they contributed to daily life in Anatolia from a political, social-cultural and economic perspective. They made a certain progress in social life and craftsmanship, built a Turkish-Islamic architecture nearly in every corner of Anatolia, thus bringing their national culture to a superior position. In conclusion, Turkey Seljuks and the First Anatolian Principalities played a vital role in the transformation of Anatolia into a Turkish homeland.

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