

Yaqub Beg and Its Historical Past

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Abstract: This article provides a brief overview of the geography and history of the Seven Cities State in East Turkestan before its formation, as well as its relations with neighboring states.

Keywords: Kashgar, Seven Cities, East Turkestan, Muhammad Yaquzbek, China, Central Asia, Bukhara, Kokand.

Introduction: East Turkestan, Kashgar, or Jetshaar (the land of seven cities) is the name given to the country generally located between approximately 43° and 35° north latitude and 72° and 90° east longitude. Leaving aside the details, East Turkestan can be considered a basin with a flat bottom rising from west to east.

In the west (Lop Norda) the height of this bottom is about 2,500 feet, and in the east it is 4,000 feet. The total area of the country is about 1,900 square miles.

It is surrounded by the Tien Shan Mountains to the north, the Pamir-Aloy system to the west, the Kuenlum Mountains to the south, and the Altan-Tag Mountains to the east. The high ridges of these mountains are usually covered with eternal snow. Communication through these mountains is possible only through a few passes, most of which are located at very high altitudes. Therefore, these passes are accessible only during certain months of the year, although even then, crossing them requires considerable effort and resources. In the east, the country's geographical isolation is further reinforced by the Gobi Desert, which borders it.

The mountains surrounding East Turkestan feed its rivers. The country's main river systems are the Khotan Darya, Yarkand Darya, Oksud Darya, Kucha Darya, and Khaydu Gold. These rivers, when combined, form the Tarim River basin, which flows into Lake Lop Nor.

Although the main rivers of East Turkestan rival the main rivers of Central Asia in length (1,000 to 1,400 km), they are much smaller in flow and depth than the Syr Darya and Amu Darya. The use of East Turkestan's rivers for transport is almost impossible in most of its

regions.

The soils of the northern plains are mostly saline. The southern part is very dry, with intense heat in summer and relatively warm winters. There is little precipitation throughout the year. Therefore, agriculture is possible here only under artificial conditions. Only in some foothill areas is it possible to practice dry-fed (non-irrigated) agriculture.

Due to the aforementioned climatic conditions of the country, the population is concentrated in the lowlands, where there are relatively few small, artificially irrigated oases. Most of the territory is almost uninhabited desert.

The cultivated lands of East Turkestan, closely connected with the river system, form a narrow strip around the foothills of the Tien Shan, Pamir-Aloy and Kuen-Lun mountains. However, this belt is not a continuous mass, but a chain with large (up to 100 km) intervals of unirrigated, vast lands. By the end of the 19th century, the most important oases of the country were: Kunya-Turpan, Karashar, Kurla, Kucha (also known as Kuchar), Boy, Aksu, Maral-Boshi, Kashgar, Yangi-Hissar, Yarkand, Khotan and Kariya .

In the plains of the country, forests (tugrakovna) are found only along some rivers, some of which are bordered by narrow ravines.

The following mineral resources of the country were known and partially exploited at the end of the 19th century: gold and silver in the Keriya and Khotan regions; jade in the Khotan region; copper in the Aksu, Sairam, and Kucha regions; iron, quartz, and ammonia in the Kucha region; coal in the Kucha and Kashgar

regions; sulfur in the Kucha region and between Uch-Turfan and Kashgar; lead in the Kashgar region; and salt peter in the Nai region . More information on this topic...

To summarize all of the above, taking into account the natural conditions of East Turkestan, it is necessary to emphasize its geographical isolation, which, despite the relatively inexperienced technologies of the late 19th century, made it easy to defend against foreign invasions, which made such attacks expensive and difficult even for European countries such as Russia and England. As noted above, this geographical isolation was especially important in the east of the country, on the borders with Inner China. The geographical isolation of the country also contributed to its underexploration. At the end of the 19th century, European countries such as Russia and England had a vague idea of the political and economic situation of the country, as well as its military potential. The climatic conditions of the country, combined with the numerous desert expanses within it, also complicated military expansion within its borders. All this left its mark on the nature of East Turkestan's relations with its most important neighbors at the end of the 19th century - China, Russia and England (from the point of view of British India).

Turning to the description of the historical past of East Turkestan, we must immediately agree that our task is to give the most general idea of the political and economic relations of the country with Central Asia before the establishment of the state of Yakub Bek in East Turkestan, as well as the events that took place before the establishment of his power in this country.

Analyzing all the above data, we can easily conclude that in the first half of the 19th century, both the Central Asian khanates and East Turkestan traded mainly with foreign goods: the former mainly with Russian goods, and the latter with Chinese goods. However, such a conclusion would not be entirely correct. It should be borne in mind that in the first half of the 19th century, as in the last decades of that century, East Turkestan mainly exported coarse cotton fabrics (the so-called "daba") and imported high-quality cotton fabrics from Central Asia (including Russian fabrics in transit). The main areas of daba consumption were, of course, not the settled Central Asian regions, where daba, locally known as zarbkhona, was produced in sufficient quantities, but the nomadic Kazakh and Kyrgyz regions. Livestock and livestock products, which were consumed in large quantities in Kashgar itself, were also exported from the same nomadic regions of Central Asia. The importance of these products for East Turkestan can be judged by the fact that the Chinese, who closed the border with Kokand in 1827, did not

dare to close the border with the nomadic regions from which their cattle came. At the same time, the authors of the above information either did not visit the territories of Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan at all or only passed through their western parts. This leads to a one-sided description of the export trade of East Turkestan. As we will see below, according to Ch. Valikhonov, the important role of the heel in the export of East Turkestan was manifested even before the Central Asian khanates exported to East Turkestan. The role of Russian transit goods here was not the same at the beginning of the 19th and middle of the 19th centuries. If at the beginning of the century Russian goods were one of the components of Central Asian exports to Kashgar, then later they increasingly began to play a leading role in it.

To further describe the trade relations between East Turkestan and Central Asia before the establishment of the rule of Yakub Beg, we cite the data collected by Ch. Valikhonov in 1858-1859 during his stay in Jetishaara in those years. As Ch. Valikhonov noted in his report to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Tashkent, "the most important product in terms of wide production is daba, calico or mata ". This daba is exported to the Diko Kamenny Horde (Kyrgyzstan), the Kyrgyz steppe (Kazakh steppe), Gulja, and sometimes to Kokand and Tashkent. Other cotton fabrics, such as timpai, are also exported to the Kyrgyz and Kazakh steppes. Felt carpets produced in the Khotan region are exported in large quantities to Kokand, Bukhara and the East in general. Felt from the Aksu region is coarser, like that from Khotan, and goes mainly to Gulja. "Paper shirts, checkmen, and clothes made from them are sent to the Wild Stone Horde. Then other goods are exported to Kokand and Bukhara."

As we have seen above, in addition to trading in its own goods, which were almost entirely exported to Central Asia, East Turkestan also carried on a lively trade in Chinese transit goods. Ch. Valikhonov wrote in his report: "At present, all of Central Asia receives tea through Kashgar, in these countries its consumption has become as usual as here; therefore, the entire commercial importance of Kashgar and six other cities of East Turkestan was and still is based on Chinese products and in particular on the export of tea ". Ch. Valikhonov adds: "It is very difficult to determine the total turnover of the tea trade. It is said that from 60,000 to 80,000 horse-loads of tea pass through the Osh customs house every year, excluding tea exported from Yerkand by the Bukhara and Badakhshan peoples ". It can be added that, according to information collected by Bunyakovsky and Vern (Alma-ata) in 1968 from various local merchants, the value of Chinese tea sold annually in Kashgar amounted to 8 million silver

rubles.

of the 19th century, it should be noted that at that time various Russian goods were imported to Jetishaar, mainly goods from Western European countries, which were delivered by Bukhara merchants, as well as local goods from Central Asian countries.

Of the Russian goods imported into East Turkestan, Ch. Valikhonov names the following: cloth, chintz, chintz, muslin for turbans, belt and silk materials, Riga velvet, soft, brocade and other textile products; glass, sandalwood, spices, mercury, cinnabar, various metals: iron, tin, copper, etc.; metal products: samovars, kettles, saucers, platters, trays, ladles, etc.; various leather goods, handmade accordions, sugar (heads from 5 to 8 pounds). In addition, wooden chests, coffins, boxes, etc.

Among the Western European goods imported to East Turkestan were Swiss, English, and French chintz and English, as well as American calico.

they brought: opium, lamb skins, gold from Gujarat, and indigo.

Various cities of the Kokand Khanate supplied silk, semi-silk, and cotton fabrics.

As Ch. Valikhonov noted, "the first place in terms of imported volume and issue belongs to Russian products, because... as can be seen from the above tables, they are better sold than Asian and English goods. The insignificant volume of exported English goods is mainly explained by their high price as a result of repeated duties along the route through Mashhad, Bukhara and Kokand, as well as their lower quality compared to Russian goods. "

In addition to the above-mentioned goods, large quantities of cattle are brought to Jetishaar from neighboring nomadic Kyrgyz and Kazakh regions every year.

When discussing the economic relations between East Turkestan and Central Asia in the first half of the 19th century, it is interesting to compare them with the trade carried out between the original and Jetishaar regions of China during the same period. According to the calculations and data cited by A.N. Kuropatkin, the total amount of taxes collected by the Chinese government in East Turkestan was about 400,000 rubles per year, of which about 100,000 rubles were for bread, mint, saltpeter, sar, sacks and ropes. Almost all of these products were spent on maintaining the Chinese military garrisons and administration on a local scale. Only cloth, copper, sar and saltpeter were exported to China. In addition, gold and jade, cotton and some types of fruits were exported to China through private and state purchases. Of the Chinese

products consumed in East Turkestan itself, almost only tea and some types of fabrics were consumed. In terms of exports and imports (excluding transit trade), East Turkestan's trade turnover with its own regions of China was significantly lower than with neighboring Central Asian regions, which served as the main market for its products. Jetishaara.

Let us turn to the story of political events in East Turkestan before Yakub Beg came to power. Our goal is not to study the entire complex of events in Chinese political life in the 1830s-1860s, when the imperialist expansion of European countries, the Taiping Rebellion, and the Muslim uprising in the southwest and northwest of the country brought the Manchu Empire to the brink of collapse. We will limit ourselves to the most superficial review of the events that directly occurred in East Turkestan in 1864-1865 and led to the seizure of power in Jetishaara. Yakub Beg, we also present basic biographical information about this political figure who united the Muslim population of East Turkestan under his rule for almost 13 years.

The Muslim uprising in northwestern China began in 1861 in Shanxi province. Later it spread to Gansu province and from there to Dzungaria. Stories about the Dungan uprising in Dzungaria. A number of works in Russian and foreign languages are devoted to it. A detailed bibliography of these works is provided by LI Duman. Information about the successful results of the Dungan uprising against China gave rise to a new wave of anti-Chinese movement. The first city to openly oppose Chinese rule here was the city of Kucha (Kuchar). The uprising in Kucha began in 1862 and was led by the inhabitants of this city, Rashiddin Khoja, who declared a crusade against the infidel Chinese. The inhabitants of the city, Rashiddin's forces... He destroyed the Chinese garrison and the Chinese population. Then, through special envoys, he appealed to the inhabitants of other cities of East Turkestan, calling on them to join the uprising against the Chinese. With the help of the Dungans, the cities of Karashahr, Togeun and Kunya-Turpan were liberated from the Chinese in a short time. Isa Khoja, a relative of Daraddin Khoja, became the ruler of these cities. The supreme power in them belonged to Rasaddin.

To subdue Rashid al-Din's rule over other cities of Jetishar, his two other relatives, Jalal al-Din Khoja and Burkhan al-Din Khoja, set out for the cities of Aksu, Kashgar, Yorkand, and Khotan.

Even before the arrival of the Khojas, there had been uprisings against the Chinese in the above-mentioned cities. The Aqsuv ambassador was the first to recognize the authority of Gasheddin. The inhabitants of Kashgar also recognized his authority, and Siddiqbek, a resident

of that city and of Kipchak descent, played an important role in this recognition. Later, he was appointed governor of that city.

In Yarkand, after the complete destruction of the Chinese troops, a dual government was established in the city itself against Mullah Hazrat Abdurahman, and in the fortress of Burkhaniddin Khoja in Khotan, after the Chinese were expelled, the inhabitants elected Mullah Habibullah as their ruler. The Chinese took the title of padshi (king) and even minted coins in his name.

By the beginning of 1864, the whole country was liberated from the Chinese and recognized the authority of Rashiddin. The only city that remained independent was Khotan. However, Rashiddin and his relatives were not descendants of the khodjas who previously ruled Jetishaar. Among the inhabitants of East Turkestan, there were many supporters of the khodjas - descendants of Appaq-khodei, who lived in exile in Kokand. Among these khodjas, Buzrukhan, the son of Jingir, was especially famous in Jetishaar for his kindness and kindness. He was a weak-willed and distant man. Rashiddin's opponents decided to use his power. In 1864, the ruler of Kashgar, Sadiq Beg, turned to Kokand with a request; the governor of Jetishaar, Buzrukhan, promised him an easy victory and rule over all of East Turkestan. Buzrukhan accepted the offer and arrived in Kashgar with a group of Kokand troops and close associates. Among these close associates was Yaqub Beg, the future ruler of Kashgar, who received the title of lashkra-bashi (commander-in-chief) from Buzruk Khan.

Before giving a more detailed account of the events which led to the establishment of the rule of Yakub Beg in East Turkestan, we have found it expedient to provide some biographical information about this historical figure, remarkable in many respects. Here we shall consider the main events in his life which occurred before 1864, that is, before his arrival in the territory of Jetishaar. The subsequent events in his life, and in particular the circumstances of his death, will be discussed in the following chapters of this work.

For a number of reasons that we will discuss in more detail in the following chapters, Yakub Beg and the state he founded aroused great interest throughout his career among the government and private capitalist forces in Russia, England, China, the Muslim states of Central Asia, and Turkey. These circumstances led to the appearance of a number of printed and manuscript works devoted to Yakub Beg and his state. Below we will briefly review the main ones and also point to other sources that encourage the writing of a scholarly biography of Yakub Beg of Kashgar.

Among the biographical works, if we leave aside small

magazine articles and observations, the most important are: N. Veselovskaya - "Badaulat Yaqubbek, Kashgar Ataligi", Mulla Mirza - Description of the activities of Yaqubbek, "Risolai Yaqubiy" by an unknown author under the pseudonym Komilkhan - Ishon. In addition to the six works listed above, as the director of the Institute of Oriental Manuscripts of the Academy of Sciences of the Republic of Uzbekistan, corresponding member of the Academy of Sciences of the Republic of Uzbekistan, AA Semenov, informed us, there are two more manuscripts in the Uzbek language dedicated to the life and activities of Yaqubbek of Kashgar. These two manuscripts were donated by AA Semenov to the late academician VV Bartold. Currently, both manuscripts are stored in the library of the Institute of Oriental Studies of the USSR Academy of Sciences.

In addition to the purely biographical works listed above, biographical information about Yakub Beg, sometimes quite extensive, is also found in a number of works devoted to East Turkestan. The most notable among these works are A. N. Kuropatkin's book "Kashgariya", Professor A. A. Semenov's article in the Kaufman collection, R. Shaw's "Essays on Upper Tartary, Yarkand and Kashgar", V. Grigoriev's work "East Turkestan", which we have cited several times, Bellev's work "Kashmir Kashgar" and a number of other works devoted to East Turkestan in the second half of the 19th century, mainly in Russian and English.

It should be noted that very valuable materials for compiling a scientific biography of Yakub Bek are in the collection of the diplomatic officer of the Governor-General of Turkestan, as well as in the collection of the Governor-General's office mentioned above, both of which are stored in the Central Historical Archive of the Republic of Uzbekistan. Very interesting materials are in the archive of the Republic of Kazakhstan in Almaty, which contains documents from the office of the military governor of Yettisul. Only Professor AA Semenov used these materials in a very small amount in his above-mentioned article in the Kaufman collection. At the same time, the reports of Kaulbars, Reintal and Kuropatkin, who were at the embassy to Yakub Bek, the correspondence of Yakub Bek with Kaufman and Kalpakovsky, the reports of Russian merchants, etc. are very valuable sources for describing the personality of Yakub Bek. The purpose of this work is not to compile a scientific (critical) biography of Yakub Bey, and we will limit ourselves to providing only the briefest information about him necessary for understanding the events described below. The exact date of Yakub Bey's birth is unknown. According to Pervishev's most likely assumption, it can be assumed that he was born in 1822 or 1823 in the village of Kapa

in the Osh region, which was then part of the Kokand Khanate. His father, Mullah Latifbek, was at that time in Kapa and had jurisdiction over both Osh and Uzgent. At that time, Yakub Bey was about 15 years old; his father moved with his whole family to the city of Pskent. Later, until Yakub Bey entered the service of Muhammad Karim Kashka Parvanachi, information about Yakub Bey's life is very contradictory. Thus, according to Komiljon Khan-Eshon, after moving to Pskent and before joining Muhammad Karim Kashka, Yakub Bek served under Kerovchinsky. Hakim - Gadaybay . Mirza Ahmad approximately follows this version, only adding that during this period Yakubbek's father died and he remained in the care of his uncle. A. N. Kuropatkin gives completely different information about this period of Yakubbek's life, saying that Yakubbek lost his father and mother in childhood and, having become an orphan, lived as a. Bacheyu (dancer boy). The boy caught the attention of one of the Kokand sepoy's passing through Pskent and brought it back to Kokand, where it changed hands several times, until it fell into the hands of Muhammad Karim Kashka, who was serving at the Kokand court at that time. We hesitate to determine which of the two versions is more accurate, since in this case both Kamil Khan-Eshon and Mirza Ahmad, who were admirers of Yakub Beg, may have deliberately distorted information about this period of Yakub Beg's life, as this could have put their hero in some danger.

When the Kipchaks seized power in Kokand, the Kipchak Narmuhammad was appointed Kurama bey. Yakub bey entered his service and in a relatively short time accompanied him through all the ups and downs of his subsequent career, reaching the rank of pansati - commander of five hundred men. According to A.N. Kuropatkin, Yakub bey owed his success largely to his marriage to Narmuhammad's half-sister. Without going into the details of Yakub bey's subsequent career, we will only note that he played an active role in the rise of Khudoyar Khan to power in Kokand and the death of Muslim-kul. He served as a governor (bey) in Khujand, was disgraced, and fled to Bukhara. Returning from there, he became bey in Keriuch, participated in the struggle between Khudoyar Khan and Mulla Alim-kul, and then took part in the war against Russia. During operations near Shymkent and Tashkent, Mulla Alim-kul learned about the uprising in East Turkestan. Fearing the rivalry of Yakub Beg, he sent him to help Buzruk Khoja, who had left the Kokand Khanate for East Turkestan at the invitation of Sadiq Beg. According to Kamil Khan-ishan, even at the beginning of the campaign against Kashgar, Yakub Beg entered into relations with the governors and captains of Badakhshan, Shug'nan and Darvaz. At the same time,

the governor of Badakhshan, Jalandar-Sha, sent a detachment of 500 cavalry under the command of captain Muhammad Sadiq to help Yakub Beg. Here Kamil Khan-ishan made serious mistakes. According to Jahandar Shah's personal instructions to an official in the diplomatic department of the Turkestan Governor-General , the circumstances of sending troops from Badakhshan to Kashgar were as follows: "In 1865, when Kashgar was captured by Yakub Beg, Jahandar Shah, under the pretext of protecting 12,000 Badakhshan families who had been living on the borders of Kashgar for a long time (about 130 years), sent a three-thousand-strong army from Badakhshan to Jetishaar through Wakhan, Pamir and Sarikul - but in reality this detachment was sent to interfere in Transylvanian affairs, take advantage of the turbulent period and seize part of the territory of Jetishaar. The Badakhshan military leader Mirza-Sadiq could not manage this task and was forced to return without achieving any positive results."

It should also be remembered that Yakub Beg's moral views were superior to the general views of most modern Eastern rulers. In Yakub Beg's political activities, as we have seen above, deception and political assassination were common tactics.

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