



KORKUT ATA TÜRKİYAT ARAŞTIRMALARI DERGİSİ

Uluslararası Dil, Edebiyat, Kültür, Tarih, Sanat ve Eğitim Araştırmaları Dergisi

The Journal of International Language, Literature, Culture, History, Art and Education Research

Sayı/Issue 14 (Şubat/February 2024), s. 904-924.
Geliş Tarihi-Received: 19.01.2024
Kabul Tarihi-Accepted: 09.02.2024
Araştırma Makalesi-Research Article
ISSN: 2687-5675
DOI: 10.51531/korkutataturkiyat.1422522

Uyghur Autonomous Region (East Turkestan) from the Establishment of the People's Republic of China to the Tiananmen Incidents (1949-1989)

Çin Halk Cumhuriyeti'nin Kuruluşundan Tiananmen Olaylarına Kadar Uygur Özerk Bölgesi (Doğu Türkistan) (1949-1989)

Ömer KUL*

Summary

The people of Uyghur Autonomous Region (East Turkestan), an ancient Turkish homeland, is presently grappling with survival challenges imposed by the Chinese Communist Party. The region was predominantly inhabited by Turks during the reigns of the Huns, Göktürks, Uyghur Khaganate, Karakhanid State, Mongol Empire, Chagatai Khanate, and Saidiya Khanate. Nevertheless, its current demographic composition reveals a significant Chinese population. Following the occupation of the area by Chinese General Zhou Zho-tang in 1879, the area underwent the formation of two sovereign Turkish states in 1933 and 1944, respectively. Following their conquest of the entirety of China in 1949, the Communist forces extended their occupation to East Turkestan as well. East Turkestan's administration was seized by the Communist Party in the same year that Chinese General Tao and the head of the regional government, Burhan Shahidi, both surrendered. A movement of liquidation emerged in the early years, targeting individuals who possessed the capacity to challenge the established system. Subsequently, measures were implemented to eradicate the Communist ideology entirely. Priority was given, among the various initiatives of the Communist Party, to instill in the local populace the concept of communist loyalty. Furthermore, due to its perception of the regional religious and national distinctions as a threat, it initiated a military conflict with the aim of eradicating them. The Communist regime methodically executed its settlement policy in an effort to alter the demographic composition of the region by redistributing Chinese immigrants there. Consequently, the present percentage of the populace comprising individuals of Chinese ancestry surpasses fifty percent. The policies of the Chinese Communist Party in Uyghur Autonomous Region, including exploitation, discrimination, and demographic shifts, are the focus of this study. Despite the research's scope being limited to the period preceding the Tiananmen events of 1989, which signified the start of a new era in China, it is significant that the policies implemented by the present Chinese Communist Party have advanced to the point of genocide.

Keyword: China, Uyghur Autonomous Region, East Turkestan, population, genocide.

* Doç. Dr., İstanbul Üniversitesi, Türkiyat Araştırmaları Enstitüsü Öğretim Üyesi, e-posta: omer.kul@istanbul.edu.tr, ORCID: 0000-0003-2757-5720.

Öz

Kadim zamanlardan bu yana Türklerin anavatanlarından biri olan Uygur Özerk Bölgesi (Doğu Türkistan) halkı, günümüzde Çin Komünist Partisi'nin idaresi altında yaşam mücadelesi vermektedir. Hunlar, Göktürkler, Uygur Kağanlığı, Karahanlı Devleti, Moğol İmparatorluğu, Çağatay Hanlığı ve Saidiye Hanlığı dönemlerinde Türklerin yaşadığı bölge, bugün demografik yapısı yüksek oranda Çin etnik unsuru ile değiştirilmiş durumdadır. 1879'da Çinli Genral Zhou Zho-tang'ın işgalinden sonra bölgede sırasıyla 1933 ve 1944'te kurulan iki bağımsız Türk devletine ev sahipliği yapmıştır. 1949 yılında, Çin'in tamamını eline geçiren Komünist Birlikler, Doğu Türkistan'ı da işgal etmiştir. Aynı yıl Çinli General Tao ve Bölge Hükümeti Başkanı Burhan Şehidi'nin teslim olmasıyla Komünist Parti, Doğu Türkistan'da yönetimi devralmıştır. Komünist idare işgalin ilk yıllarında sisteme düşman olma potansiyeli taşıyan herkese karşı tasfiye hareketi başlatmış, ardından Komünist düşüncenin tamamen yerleşmesi için harekete geçmiştir. Bu dönemde Komünist Parti'nin çeşitli projeleri arasında komünizme bağlılık fikrinin Doğu Türkistan halkı arasında yaygınlaştırılmasına öncelik verilmiştir. Komünist Parti, farklılıkları tehdit olarak algılamasının bir sonucu olarak, bölgenin dinî ve millî kimliklerini ortadan kaldırmak için bir nevi savaş yürütmüştür. Komünist rejim sistematik olarak bölgenin demografik yapısını değiştirmek amacıyla Çinli göçmenleri bölgeye yerleştirmeyi amaçlayan bir yerleşim/iskân politikası takip etmiştir. Günümüzde bölge nüfusunun en az %50.1'i Çin etnik unsurundan oluşmaktadır. Bu çalışmada zikredilen dönem içerisinde Çin Komünist Partisi'nin Doğu Türkistan'daki sömürü, ayrımcılık ve demografik yapıyı değiştirmeyi kapsayan farklı politikaları tartışılmıştır. Araştırma, konuyu 1989 yılında Çin'de yeni bir dönemin başlangıcı olan Tiananmen olaylarına kadarki dönemle sınırlandırmış olsa da, günümüzde Çin Komünist Partisi'nin daha da sertleşen politikalarının soykırım boyutuna ulaşması üzerinde de kısaca durulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Çin, Uygur Özerk Bölgesi, Doğu Türkistan, nüfus, soykırım.

Introduction

East Turkestan, an ancestral territory of the Turkish nation, is situated in the northwest corner of the People's Republic of China. The region, formally recognized for its affiliation with Beijing on October 1, 1955, was designated as the "Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region" (Hayit 1975, p. 336; McMillen 1979, p. 300). It is the most expansive of the five autonomous regions of China from a geographical standpoint. Spanning an area of 1,828,418 km² and measuring 2,000 km in length from west to east and 1,650 km in length from south to north, the region is geographically located between 34-400 latitudes and 74-950 longitudes. While over 50% of the area in the region is occupied by deserts and snow-covered mountains, arable land is typically situated along riverbanks. (Alptekin 1985, p. 129; Türköz 2010, p. 1; Bekin 2000, p. 17; Aynural 2007, p. 21). The area is demarcated by China and Mongolia to the east and northeast, India, Pakistan, and Tibet to the south, Afghanistan and Tajikistan to the west, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, and Russia to the north. Yarkant, Quchar, Qumul (Hami), Tarbagatay, Altai, Hotan, Ghulja, Qaramay, Karashahr, Kashgar, Quchar, and Qumul (Hami) are among the other notable cities located in the region, alongside Urumqi (Buğra 1952, p. 5; Oraltay 1975, p. 22; Ozen 2019, p. 1; Sheng 2006, p. 6).

East Turkestan is comprised of the Tianshan Mountains, which consist of the Altai, Karakorum, Karakorum, Tarbagatay, and Tarbagatay. To the north of these mountains is the Ili Basin (Dzungaria), and to the south they are the Tarim Basin (Kashgaria). The area comprises 80,000 km² of forested land, including the Taklamakan Desert, the second largest desert in the world. Divided in two, the Tarim River empties into the Lop/Lop Nur Lake, making it the most sizable river in the area. Among the most significant lakes in the area are Sayram, Bogda, Bagrash, Ebi, and Lop. A consequence of the Taklamakan desert, the southern portion of the region is arid and hot during the winter, whereas the northern portion experiences precipitation and a cooler climate during the summer. In the mountainous areas of the region where precipitation is low, temperatures of -30°C are

experienced. In Altai, temperatures are -50°C in winter and $+50^{\circ}\text{C}$ in summer in Turfan, which is famous for its world-famous grapes (Buğra 1952).

East Turkestan, one of the earliest settlements of Turkish tribes in history, is described in exceptional detail in the epics of Şu and Alp Er Tunga. The area, which was inhabited by a part of the Great Hun Empire, came under the control of the First Turkic Khaganate in 552 and the Second Turkic Khaganate in 682. The region, which was initially targeted by the Chinese invasion in 654, remained under invasion until the establishment of the Second Turkic Khaganate in 682. Following the demise of the Second Turkic Khaganate in 744, the Uyghur Khaganate capital was renamed East Turkestan. In 840, the Kyrgyz defeated the Uyghur Khaganate, and in its place, the Karakhanids founded the Karakhanid State. The region had been under Mongol rule since 1210. Mahmud Yalavac ruled over the region left to Chagatai Khan after Genghis Khan's death (Dayı 2015, s.66-67; see Kafalı 2005 for further details on the Chagatai Khanate). The khans of the Chagatai lineage ruled over East Turkestan during the Timurid era, which began with their conquest in the 1370s and ended in 1449. This rule persisted until the 18th century. Said Khan founded the Saidiya/Yarkant Khanate in Kashgar in 1514 (Buğra 1952, p. 11). The Khojas Era was marked by unrest from the end of the 17th century until the Khanate's fall in 1679. The Kalmyks invaded Yarkant at that time, taking advantage of the internal strife in the area. According to Togan (1981), p. 18, 63; Ögel (1992), p. 59; Kafesoğlu (2010), p. 59; Çandarlıoğlu 1987, p. 233, the turbulent times persisted until the Chinese invasion in 1755. According to the sources, during the Qing dynasty, over a million people were massacred in the Ghulja region alone. Chinese immigrants started to settle in West Turkestan during this time, following hundreds of thousands of other immigrants (Aka 1991, p. 1; Hayit 1995, p. 135; Kurban 1995, p. 29; Gayretullah 2008, p. 5).

A new era began with Tsarist Russia's occupation of Turkestan in the second half of the 18th century. Yakup Beg went to Kashgar and founded a state there, taking advantage of the pressure from the tsarist armies on the Khanates in West Turkestan and the unrest in East Turkestan. After assuming the title of "Attalik Ghazi Badaulet" as the state's head of state in 1865, he prevented Chinese occupation of the area. When Yakup Khan's delegation returned from their 1870 visit to Sultan Abdulaziz, he proclaimed his allegiance to the Ottoman Empire by preaching on the caliph's behalf and minting coins bearing his name. However, his sons' power struggles after his death in May 1877 left the area vulnerable to Chinese occupation once more. Soldiers of the Qing Dynasty massacred over 500,000 people before the occupation ended in 1879. The region was renamed "Xinjiang/newly acquired land" on November 18, 1884. Thus, assimilation of various ethnicities, religions, and cultures has persisted throughout the region thus far (Alptekin 1992, p. 5; Forbes 1990, p. 27-28).

Throughout the Guomindang/Nationalist Party era (1911-1949), the Chinese Governor-General ruled East Turkestan arbitrarily. The region was engulfed in conflict as a result of the persecutions that occurred throughout the reigns of Yang Zeng-xin (1911-1928) and Jin Shu-ren (1928-1933). The establishment of new schools was prohibited, and all existing ones were shut down. Mother tongue instruction was strictly prohibited. Only the Chinese were appointed in the post, telegraph and radio administration centers. The Yang period, in which the people struggled for survival, ended when he was assassinated by Fan Yao-nan. Jin Shu-ren, on the other hand, killed Fen and ruled the region until 1933. Those who were persecuted and subjected to humiliation were unable to endure. As a result of the Kumul uprising, an independent state based in Kashgar was established on November 12, 1933. A number of notable figures emerged as leaders of the rebellion movements, including Abdulbaqi Sabit Damolla, Muhammad Amin Bughra, Sherif Han

Tore, Kyrgyz Osman Batur, and Timur Beg. Khoja Niyaz Hadji presided over the established government, and Sabit Damolla served as his prime minister (Deliorman et al. 1991, p. 23; Gayretullah 1977, p. 31; Gayretullah 2009, p. 95). The government prepared a constitutional text of 30 articles on December 3, 1933. Opposing the establishment of an independent Turkish state in the region with the fear that it might set a precedent for West Turkistan, Moscow carried out a coup by the Chinese Governor-General Sheng Shi-cai. Thus, authority was once more transferred to the Chinese, and the area remained under complete Soviet control until 1944 (Dauliatova 2007, p. 14; Karahoca 2008, p. 16; Kocaoglu 2006).

The Germans' triumph over the Soviets in the Carpathians during the midst of World War II alarmed Sheng Shi-cai. He consequently severed ties with Moscow and made an approach towards Central China. Moscow extended its support to Osman Batur over Mongolia in July 1942 in response to this circumstance. After the dismissal of Sheng Shi-cai in 1944, a new state was formed with its capital in Ghulja. The persecution intensified even further under the reign of Shin's successor, Wu Cung-shin. As a result of Vu's execution of the policy to eradicate national and religious identities, Chinese colonization of the area accelerated. People gathered, nevertheless, around Osman Batur, who was in rebellion in Altai, as a result. Moscow, similar to its position in 1933, recognized the existence of the Ghulja Republic as detrimental to its national policy. Elihan Tore Saguny failed to comply with Moscow's demands and consequently lost the opportunity (Lias 1956, p.61-62; Alptekin 1981, p.182; A History of Migration of Xinjiang Kazakh People 1993, p.101-102; Polat 1999). Under pressure from the Soviet Union, the Ghulja Government entered into negotiations in September 1945. On January 2, 1946, a mixed government comprising 25 individuals was established via the "11 Item Agreement." Dr. Mesud Sabri Baykozi was designated as the successor to Cang Ci-cung on May 19, 1947, following the abduction of Elihan Tore Saguny (Kul, "Osman Batur (1899-1951)", p. 277-278; Kul, "Alptekin, İsa Yusuf").

Table 1. East Turkestan people who were accepted as settled immigrant to Türkiye after 1952 and the cities where they were settled (Özen 2019, p. 126.)

Province	District	Family	Allocated field	Allocated House
Kayseri	Develi	104	3.328 da	104
Konya	İsmil	72	11.624 da	62
Sakarya	Adapazarı	2	-	2
Manisa	Salihli	160	-	160
Niğde	Ulukışla	226	16.995	226
Niğde	Zengin köy	10	300 da	10
Niğde	Sultan hanı	60	9.600 da	60
İstanbul	Zeytinburnu	3	-	-

The appointment of Dr. M. S. Baykozi as the head of government and his subsequent national activities caused concern in both Moscow and Beijing. The political climate in the region was strained as a result of Moscow's provocations; on July 17, 1948, Chiang Kai-shek appointed Burhan Shahidi in lieu of Baykozi. Simultaneously, Mao Zedong gained the upper hand in the Chinese civil war. A delegation led by the leader of the Ghulja group, Ehmetjan Qasim, travelled to Beijing via aeroplane in order to meet with Mao Zedong subsequent to the communist takeover of China (Tyler 2004, p.123; Karaca 2007, p. 225). The date of the plane's crash, however, was August 17, 1949. Chiang Kai-shek departed for Taiwan on November 22, 1949, while Burhan Shahidi maintained his position in East Turkestan. On October 13, 1949, the occupation of East Turkestan by Communist forces commenced. They commenced operations on September 26, 1949. As a

consequence, a group consisting of M. S. Baykozi, M. E. Bughra, İ. Y. Alptekin, Canımhan Hadji, Adil Beg, Mrs. Hadıvan Hatice, and Nurgocay Batur, who acted as a representative of Osman Batur, made the decision to depart from the area following multiple deliberations (Kul & Tuncer 2015; Tuncer 2021; Altay 1998).

1. Formation of an autonomous Uyghur region in Xinjiang

Following its establishment on October 1, 1949, the People's Republic of China promptly designated East Turkestan as an "autonomous region" and initiated the systematic elimination of any opposition factions. Invitations were extended to regional deputies to a meeting in Beijing on October 1, 1950, for the purpose of determining the administrative status of the region. During this meeting, President Li Wei-hen inquired about the delegation's perspective on the region's status as an autonomous area. The term "East Turkestan" was preferred over "Xinjiang" by every member of the delegation, who voiced their displeasure with its usage. Following the meeting, a special commission was formed, which continued its operations until December 1951. The draft that was presented to the Communist Party Council on August 8, 1952, was subsequently implemented. The communist regime established autonomous zones in almost every city and for every ethnic group, especially immigrant Chinese. Thus, the entire administrative structure of the autonomous regions was consolidated under the central government. Despite the recognition of the right to education in one's mother tongue, this policy remained dormant. A commission was formed in September 1952, comprising Burhan Shahidi, Kao Ching-chung, and Saifuddin Azizi. Five provincial autonomous oblasts and six autonomous subdistricts were established by the Commission by the conclusion of 1954. The Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region was thus established through the consolidation of eight provinces, five autonomous oblasts, and three independent municipalities. Ili Kazakh, Sanji Hui, Bayingolin Mongol Autonomous Prefecture, Bortala Mongol, and Kizilsu Kyrgyz comprised the autonomous oblasts, while Mori, Barkol Kazakh, Hoboksar Mongol, Chapchall, Shibo, Karashahr Huizu, and Tashkurgan Tajik comprised the autonomous subdistricts. Following this, an additional commission was formed with the purpose of determining the appellation for the area; it was determined to maintain the current designation of Xin-jing (Adibelli 2008, p. 19; İlyas 2022, p. 28).

2. The Period from 1949 to 1965: The Inception and Implementation of the Communist Rule

Following the Communist regime's 1949 ascension to power in East Turkestan, its distinction was perceived as that of a rival that abandoned all the pledged innovations in favor of a regional policy of exploitation and assimilation. Among these, its settlement policy in particular has fundamentally altered the region's demographic composition. On September 26, 1949, the region was transferred to the Communist forces by Burhan Shahidi. As of October 13, when Communist forces invaded the city of Kumul, they committed numerous massacres. As the delegation commemorated the inaugural day of the People's Republic of China on October 1, 1950, their deliberations regarding the prospective administrative framework of East Turkestan elicited a response from the Communist authorities. The Communist Party Minorities Department, disregarding the concerns and objections of the local populace, proclaimed the region's governance as the "Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region" in 1955 (Alptekin 1985, p. 129; Alptekin 2000, p. 47; Bekin, p. 34).

In April 1957, the Communist Party launched the "Let all the flowers bloom, let all the nightingales sing" campaign throughout China. As per the campaign, all individuals in China would have the liberty to freely express their opinions, and those found to be in

violation of the law could be held accountable. Taking advantage of this atmosphere, the people expressed their request for the name East Turkestan to be used instead of Xinjiang and complained about the Chinese working in official offices. Following the May 1957 meeting, the 1830 complainants' liquidation process commenced. Due to their opposition, the communists had murdered over 70,000 locals by April 1951. The region's contact with the outside world was cut off. Up until 1960, the Communist government began to locate natural resources and oil in order to transfer them to the Center. The lands were confiscated and transformed to the commune farms; the other Latin alphabet was accepted in 1958. As a result, the level of tension in the area increased. Chinese immigrants began moving into the area in 1956, when the railway was completed. The disruption in the balance among the religious and national groups waged a war. 1949 was the first year of the occupation, and 1.2 million people were sent to camps for forced labor, with over 700,000 deaths. The Chinese population in the region, which was 5,53% before 1949, increased to 45% by 1962. During this time, people were forced to marry Chinese people, burials were outlawed, cemeteries were converted into fields, and those who disobeyed were subject to harsh penalties. Strict rules governed the area, particularly with regard to culture. Population and settlement policies have created challenges for the region's demographic makeup. Over 100,000 intellectuals were killed and the nation's cultural artifacts were destroyed. Chinese immigrants were brought to the area and settled on the natives' lands that had been taken by force. The region's foreign representative offices were shut down, and travel to other nations was outlawed (Lias 1956, p. 278; Madadi 2021, p. 31; Özen 2019, p. 15).

Table 2. Uyghur Autonomous Region's population by nationality, 1945 (Benson 1989, pp. 30, 33; Iliyas 2022, p. 106)

Nationality	Population
Uyghur	2.988.528
Ethnic Chinese	222.401
Tungan/Hui	99.607
Kazakh	438.575
Mongolian	59.686
Russian	19.392
Uzbek	10.224
Taranchi	79.296
Tatar	5.614
Tajik	8.210
Kyrgyz	69.923
Shibo	10.626
Solon	2.506
Manchu	762
Total	4.015.350

The table above indicates that seven of the fourteen ethnic groups adhere to the Islamic faith. These seven groups comprised 92% of the regional policy as of 1945. Notwithstanding, the aforementioned era witnessed Urumqi being home to the majority of Chinese (55%). As of this particular date, the population of Urumqi stood at 136,808.

In the name of land reform, the Communist Party initiated a liquidation campaign to eliminate so-called opposition movements and seize private property. These policies included the "Moments to Suppress Counter-Revolutionaries," "The Idea Improvement Movement," "The Movement Against Three," "The Movement Against Five," "The Marriage Law Enforcement Movement," "The Great Leap Forward Movement," "The

Socialist Reform Movement,” and “The Steel Making Movement.” Initially, an assessment was conducted on the property and wealth of the inhabitants of the Uyghur Autonomous Region. Additionally, the sale of goods was prohibited, and it became mandatory for them to deposit their daily earnings in banks. Each individual was assigned an information slip, and those who desired wealth, notoriety, or extramarital affairs were groomed to spy. The requirement to notify law enforcement authorities of visits to family members was instituted. It was forbidden to travel, and in the event that authorization was granted, it became mandatory to notify the authorities of the intended destination. By engaging in such practices, a regional structure was formed that could be described as “brother ratting on brother.”

Two people’s speeches were classified as “anti-communist activity,” while more than two were thought to be incitements to rebellion. As a result, severe penalties were applied. Fear quickly prevented people from extending greetings to one another. Students were asked to provide information about their families, and those who did so were rewarded with better grades. After the mails were examined, those whose texts were unreadable were declared to be written in ciphers and faced severe punishments. The main targets of complaints about not being communists had shifted to traders and clergy. By using justifications like opposing the socialist revolution, supporting armed resistance, refusing to serve the Communist regime, and breaking the law, those who opposed it were eliminated. In a press release dated April 29, 1951, Şav Li-ing, the Second Secretary of the Autonomous Region, announced that 13,564 individuals were detained on suspicion of being anti-revolutionary. President of the Autonomous Region Burhan Shahidi stated in his report dated January 1, 1953, that during a four-year period, 20,000 people were arrested in the region on suspicion of participating in covert activities. Apart from the official figures, approximately 100,000 people were imprisoned or murdered in the region between 1949 and 1953 (Alptekin 1981, p. 24; Karahoca 2008, p. 62-63).

The Communist Party exterminated the patriots: those who claimed that Xinjiang was East Turkestan rather than Xinjiang, those who opposed the marriage of Muslim-Turkish girls to Chinese, and those who disapproved of Chinese immigrants settling in the Uyghur Autonomous Region. Under the pretext of “the need for workers,” the communist regime resettled over 2,000,000 Chinese people in the area who had been found guilty of heinous crimes beginning in 1949. These people were placed on fertile land. The “Movement Against Three” was another initiative that was put into place with the intention of establishing the communist system in the area. The true purpose of this policy, which was designed to stop illicit activities like tax evasion and bribery, was to stop the people’s work by making false accusations. Many of those who were sent to labor camps were also dismissed from the civil service, brought before the so-called “People’s Courts,” and excluded from the civil service altogether for refusing to spy, disrespecting Chinese officials, and not working selflessly (Alptekin 1981, p. 233; Anat 2003, p. 174, 177-178; Karahoca 2008, p. 65).

The goal of the “Movement Against Five” policy was to remove the merchants and high-ranking government employees who survived the “Movement Against Three” era. The attacked businessmen had their properties seized, and some of them were even put to death or banished. China’s Communist regime instituted a totalitarian government with the “Land Reform.” Land was promised to those who joined the Communist Party. After being taken from the people and given to the landless peasants, the wealth that the people had laboriously acquired was divided. It was reclaimed under cooperative labels after three years. After 1958, the “Commune System” was put into place by the communist government. This meant that workers had to report to the fields before dawn and work

until dusk. Under the name “Army of Production,” immigrants from China settled on 17,360 acres of newly opened land for agricultural use by those who were forced to labor between 1951 and 1963. Coupon shopping was encouraged for the people who were losing all forms of income and were getting poorer every day. On the grounds of the established communes, home cooking was forbidden. In the Uyghur Autonomous Region, there have been cases of starvation deaths and a rise in malnutrition-related epidemics (Deliorman, Donuk and Kocakapan 1991, p. 31; Türköz 2010, p. 154).

The Communist Party’s policies in East Turkestan were occasionally greeted with opposition after 1949, but even the smallest opposition could result in death. West Turkestan was the destination for those who managed to escape the nation. Urumqi Radio reported on January 4, 1951, that the Communist government had executed 7,759 persons in 1950 alone who were suspected of being spies, thieves, and bandits. Leaders like Osman Batur, Canımhan Hadji, and Vasil Kadı were brought before fictitious courts and executed there. On January 1, 1953, Burhan Shahidi, the President of the Regional Government at the time, declared in public that between 1951 and 1953, there were 1,490 instances of sabotage, 213 fire incidents, and 571 hit-and-run raids against the Chinese armed forces (Alptekin 1981, p. 272; İlyas 2022, p. 46).

3. The Post-1949 Economic Situation

East Turkestan’s diverse geographical structure has led to a greater variety of products due to the presence of various climates. All of the products—aside from pomegranates—grew in the area. Kashgar and Turfan cotton and rice contribute significantly to the economy of the Uyghur Autonomous Region. Only 23 percent of the region is recognized as being suitable for agriculture, despite the fact that the land is fertile. The communist regime increased arable land to 58% in the post-1949 period. In order to locate arable land, the Chinese government made people labor in desolate areas. The coal reserves in the Altai, Karashahr, and Tian Shan Mountains, as well as the cities in the regions of Urumqi, Karashahr, Kashgar, Kucha, and Turfan, are the main sources of the region’s abundance in subterranean resources. Iron is mined in and around the cities of Aksu, Ghulja and Turfan. Gold reserves can be found in the cities of Altai, Barkol, Charchan, Qoqek, and Urumqi, and rich copper reserves can be found near Ghulja, Kucha, and Urumqi. Apart from these, various mining operations are underway in the area, with the exception of those pertaining to ammonia, mercury, tin, lead, uranium, and tungsten. The Dzungaria Basin, Taklamakan Desert, and Turfan region are the primary locations for oil reserves, which are among the most significant mineral resources in the area. Chinese sources state that the region has the highest reserves of lead, manganese, tungsten, aluminum, phosphorus, and tin in the entire globe. Conversely, coal reserves are dispersed throughout the nation’s 133 regions (Bakır 2005, pp. 2-3).

Situated on the ancient Silk Road, East Turkestan has consistently faced both military and political incursions. Political instability has resulted from this circumstance in practically every historical era. Soviet colonial rule prevailed in the area, particularly under Chinese Governor-General Sheng Shi-cai. In other words, all natural resources were located, mined, and shipped to Moscow in exchange for nominal fees. These kinds of natural resources started to come into central China after 1949. The Uyghur Autonomous Region exported 71,640 tons of wheat, 22,424 tons of beans, 345 tons of dried melons, and 215 tons of dried grapes to China between 1950 and 1958. The area exported 1.3 million tons of fruit in total in 1959. Chinese scientists claim that the oil reserves in East Turkestan, one of the few oil-rich regions in the world, are 20 times greater than those in Saudi Arabia. Because of Communist Party policies, the region remains one of the few undeveloped areas in the world even with its wealth both below and above ground.

In order to extract oil, 10,000 Chinese workers were engaged for light labor and 900 residents of the area were employed for hard labor between 1975 and 1980. In 1984, 45,170,000 tons of oil were extracted from the area. These data all demonstrate how the area was colonized. Of the 12,000 employees of the "Mineral Exploration and Investigation Institute" in Urumqi, only approximately 100 belonged to the local population. For instance, the people of the area were compelled to migrate when it was discovered that oil had been discovered in Kargilik town of Kashgar city in 1976, and the Chinese were placed in their stead. Between 1953 and 1962, five tons of uranium, 1,500 thousand tons of oil from the region, 140,000 tons of silk from Hotan, 175,708 tons of iron and steel from the Bulguntay region of Urumqi, 600,000 tons of steel from the city of Kumul (Hami), 800,000 tons of iron in Urumqi, an average of 30,000 tons of sugar and 50,000 tons of cement, 3,9 million tons of cotton, 1,130 thousand tons of fruit, and 250,000 tons of coal were extracted from the region (Özüygür 1989, p. 8-9; Cengiz & Gayretullah 1983, p. 114-115).

4. Chinese Settlement Policy After 1949

The most controversial issue of East Turkestan's post-1949 period was the settlement of Chinese immigrants in the Uyghur Autonomous Region. These immigrants, whose numbers increased on a daily basis after 1950, were brought from different Chinese cities. In this way, the local population of the area was diminished to the point where they were reduced to a minority. Chinese immigrants were in much more comfortable and well-paid status, and the people of the region were forced to cultivate the barren lands. With this settlement policy, which Mao Ze-dong was personally interested in, eight agricultural, two industrial, and irrigation divisions were established. This organization was known as the "Xinjiang Production and Construction Corps," or BINGTUAN in short. From roughly 175,000 in 1954, the number of Chinese immigrants rose to 2 million in 1957. Roughly 100,000 of China's military personnel serving in the Korean War were stationed there as of 1957. By 1962, the figure had risen to 1,224,000. Between 1962 and 1966, 150,000 Chinese immigrants from Shanghai settled in the area with the same goal in mind. The ensuing years saw no change in this circumstance. From approximately 3% of the region's population in 1953 to 22.39% in 1967 and 40.72% in 1983, the Chinese population has grown over time. By the 1990s, the BINGTUAN organization – which was made up of Chinese immigrants who had been sent to the area – had grown to include three million people. One power plant, divisions dedicated to construction and dam building, eleven agricultural divisions, three farm offices, 169 official farms, and 115 independent industrial enterprises were all part of BINGTUAN's restructuring. The area saw the arrival of an additional 650,000 Chinese immigrants in 1989 (Kaşgarlı 1990, p. 10-13; Iliyas 2022, p. 66).

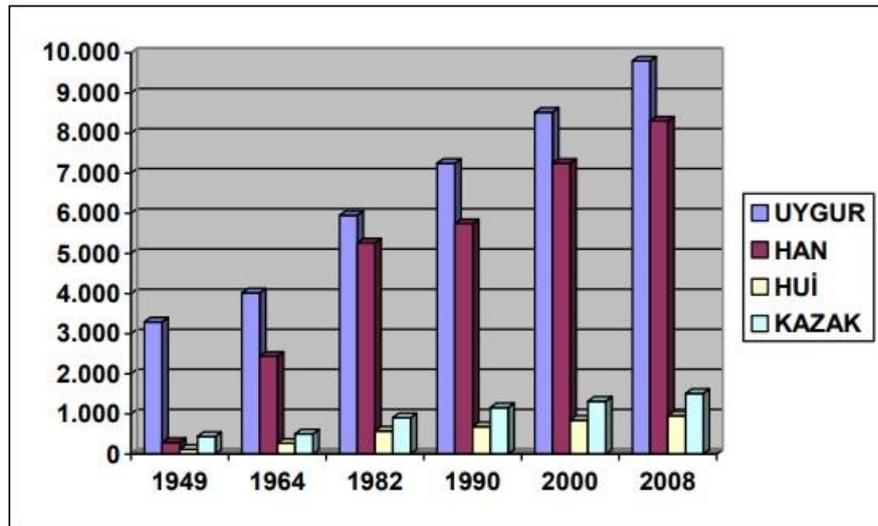


Figure: Uyghur Autonomous Region's Population Distribution (millions) Between 1949 and 2008 (Keskin 2013, p. 80).

Systematically and routinely settling in the Uyghur Autonomous Region were Chinese immigrants, who caused issues with food and inadequate housing for ethnic groups in the area. In order to meet the water demands of the Chinese immigrants who had established new settlements in Aksu, Hotan, Karashahr, Korla, Maralbishi, Urumqi, and Yarkant, numerous water channels were constructed. Indeed, the Communist Party's activities have completely exploited the region. Based on official data provided by the Chinese Communist Party, East Turkestan had a population of 4,333,400 in 1949. This figure hardly accounts for one percent of the total population of China. 1984 data indicates that the population of the region reached 13,440,800. Amidst this time frame, the annual population expansion in the region amounted to 032.9%, whereas it was 018.3% in China. According to the calculations, between 1953 and 1961, the Chinese Communist Party relocated 1,515,200 individuals to East Turkestan. The Chinese colonization of the area throughout the "Great Leap Forward," an economic and social movement that spanned from 1958 to 1961, exacerbated the region's economic turmoil to an unprecedented degree. Deng Xiao-ping, who ascended to power subsequent to Mao Zedong's demise in 1977, implemented a policy of planned population reduction alongside the formation of the "Population Planning Commission" (Karahoca 2008, p. 66-67; Qing-li 1992, p. 8-10; Keskin 2013, p. 80).

It is exceedingly challenging to produce an objective population estimate for the Uyghur Autonomous Region on the basis of all the available information, which the Communist Party administration does not distribute directly. Based on current Chinese official data, albeit unreliable, the Uyghurs constitute the most populous ethnic group in the region (Ekrem 2004, p. 6-8).

Rural and urban populations comprised the populace of East Turkestan; individuals registered as villagers were not permitted to enter the city without prior authorization. The proliferation of infamous criminals, murderers, and Chinese prisoners in the Uyghur Autonomous Region has contributed to a surge in the local crime rate. Based on official statistics from 1982, the region was inhabited by various Turkic peoples, including Mongolians, Tungans, Kazakhs, Kyrgyz, Uzbek, Salar, Tatar, and Uyghur. To finalize the regime's establishment and facilitate people's assimilation, the communist regime has maintained the following: "Xinjiang has consistently been a territory of China; no nation exists under the names Uyghur, Kazakh, or Kyrgyz." "These communities have

distinguished themselves from the Chinese in regard to their traditions, customs, and customs; they are not Turks." The repercussions of these declarations are evident in the 1970 executions by shooting of 74 individuals who proclaimed Turkish national identity. The systematic implementation of "birth control" practices and Chinese immigration policy by the Chinese Communist Party started to produce tangible outcomes in the 2000s. The Chinese population in East Turkestan stood at 14,762,023 individuals in the year 2000 (Ilyas 2022, p. 64).

Table 3: Population of Uyghur Autonomous Region Between 1953 and 1990 (Qingli 1990, p. 57).

Nationality	1953	%	1964	%	1982	%	1990	%
Uyghur	3,640,000	74.7	4,021,200	54	5,995,000	45.8	7,195,000	47.5
Chinese	299,000	6.1	2,445,400	32.9	5,284,000	40.4	5,696,000	37.6
Kazakh	492,000	10.1	501,400	6.7	903,000	6.9	1,106,000	7.3
Tungan/Hui	150,000	3.1	271,100	3.6	567,000	4.3	682,000	4.5
Kyrgyz	68,000	1.4	69,200	0.9	112,000	0.9	140,000	0.9
Other	225,000	4.6	133,500	1.8	220,500	1.7	337,900	2.2
Total	4,874,000		7,441,800		13,081,500		15,156,900	

Between 1953 and 1964, a significant number of ethnic immigrants established themselves in East Turkestan, as shown in the table above. As the population of Chinese nationals has increased, the population of Turkish nationals has decreased gradually. The most significant decline, 27.2%, is observed among Uyghur Turks. Even this numerical value clearly illustrates the 37-year shift in the region's demographic composition.

5. Language and Education Policies Implemented After 1949

The Communist Party systematically enforced policies pertaining to the regional languages utilized by minority communities. A policy of falsification has been implemented under the guise that official business and transactions can be conducted in minority languages. As a consequence, there has been widespread dissemination of the notion that the barriers posed by local languages hinder the assimilation of the Communist ideology. Likewise, commissions formed with the explicit intention of effecting change have transformed centuries for comparable motives. The primary objective was to detach the inhabitants of the Uyghur Autonomous Region from historical knowledge and abandon them in ignorance. The communist regime established the "Minority Nations Language Institute" under the "Science Academy" in February 1956 for this particular reason. The organization named Burhan Shahidi chairman. Prior to 1960, the Institute's primary objective was the development of "new languages for minority nations." Proposal by the Commission to implement Cyrillic script was rejected. It was decided in December 1959 to use the Latin alphabet rather than the Arabic alphabet, in accordance with the law that went into effect on August 1, 1966. From 1990 to 2006, the percentage of individuals residing in the region that had attended university decreased from 2.1% to a mere 3.1%. Following the end of the communist regime, all foundation properties were seized, places of worship were seized, and construction of mosques was prohibited; nothing remained uncontrollable in the region. Islam was enumerated among the most detrimental ideologies that the Communist Party sought to combat. An effort was made to separate scholars from religion, fasting was prohibited, sacrifice worship was disallowed, and pigs were provided sustenance (Buğra 1960, p. 50; Grose 2010, p. 100; Yuan 2006, p. 71).

Table 4. Educational Status of Ages Over 15 in East Turkestan (Uyghur and Ethnic Chinese) (Yuan 2006, p. 71)

Ethnic Group	Secondary School (%)	High School (%)	Above High School (%)
Uyghur	33.0	6.9	3.1
Ethnic Chinese	30.0	9.6	3.8

Table 5: Educational Status of Ethnic Chinese Population and Minorities in the Uyghur Autonomous Region (Keskin 2013, p. 89).

	Ethnic Chinese (%)	Indigenous People (%)	Average (%)
Illiterate Population	5.87	8.33	7.31
Literacy Courses	0.89	2.44	1.80
Primary School	27.79	51.44	41.63
Secondary School	36.62	25.75	30.26
High School	13.20	5.04	8.42
Specialized Secondary School	6.37	3.95	4.95
Collage	7.14	2.07	4.17
Universty	2.06	0.98	1.42

6. Reflections of the “Permanent Revolutionary Policies”

The policies implemented by the communist regime in an effort to quell the unrest sparked by the criticism of the populace have been given alternative names. Nonetheless, every act was designed to eliminate a portion of the population, justifying the measures that would fulfill the Communist Party’s aims and objectives. Actually, every act was designed to eliminate a portion of the population, justifying the measures that would fulfill the Communist Party’s aims and objectives. A policy of falsification has been implemented under the guise that minority languages are adequate for official business and transactions. As a consequence, the notion that the adoption of the Communist ideology is impeded by the local languages has been widely disseminated. The commissions, which were specifically established to alter the demographic composition of minority regions and exploit subterranean and surface resources, have also rendered the languages utilized by the local population for centuries a subject of transformation for comparable motives. Prominent among these movements was the endeavor titled “Let a Hundred Flowers Bloom, a Hundred Ideas Race.” The implementation of the initiative instigated by Mao Ze-dong commenced in 1956. The undertaking drew inspiration from Mao Zedong’s pedagogical addresses to the leaders of the Communist Party. The inception of this movement incentivized individuals to voice their opinions irrespective of the circumstances, and propaganda was produced to rectify any errors or improper conduct that had been exposed in public. “Open like flowers, sing like nightingales; you will never be punished for criticizing; even those who wish to be dependent are free to express themselves,” was one of the propaganda statements directed at the populace. Although individuals were initially terrified, the propaganda spread by Communist Party influence agents was insufficient to motivate them to speak. The global community abruptly transformed into a boiler of rumors, and individuals started to denounce the heinous acts and improper conduct. Each critique was documented, and those who had registered by the movement’s conclusion were apprehended (Alptekin 1981, p. 254-256; İlyas 2022, p. 67).

An additional endeavor that was executed was the “Steel Production Movement.” Commencing in 1953, diplomatic ties between Beijing and Moscow exhibited a discernible decline until 1960. In an effort to undermine Russian influence in the Uyghur

Autonomous Region, the Communist regime expelled Soviet officials on the grounds that they were spies, according to allegations. The strained diplomatic relations between the two nations precipitated a global crisis that culminated in Russia's decision to suspend steel exports to China. In contrast, China has initiated a steel production campaign in order to fulfill the demand. The 1959 mobilization also included students, and the general populace was compelled to utilize rudimentary techniques in steel production. Because individuals labored for an average of 20 hours per day in the steel industry, their daily sleep duration was restricted to four hours. Fruit trees were consumed in the flames during the two-year mobilization, resulting in ten years of food and wood shortages in the region. An additional initiative that was executed in the area targeted the intelligentsia and was regarded as a challenge to civil disobedience. "A person becomes stupider the more he reads," a statement made by Mao, laid the foundation for communist rule, which sought to create a society devoid of critics. The intellectual portion of society was perceived by the Communist Party as the greatest obstacle to achieving its objectives. As a result of Mao's vision of a society that obediently followed the Communist Party, numerous movements were formed to achieve this objective. By means of the "Style Correction Movement," which commenced in 1958 and persisted for a period of two years, all intellectuals were eradicated from East Turkestan. Irrespective of their gender or age, every intellectual has been apprehended and subjected to abhorrent atrocities; those incarcerated have been executed by shooting (Hayit 1975, p. 338; Anat 2003, p. 175).

7. Insurgent Movements in Uyghur Autonomous Region Following 1954

Occasional uprisings and demonstrations were orchestrated by the populace, who, unable to tolerate the communist regime's policies, even put their everyday lives at risk. Conversely, the communist regime avoided at all costs gaining knowledge of international sentiments toward those who participated in such rebellion movements. As an illustration, in 1954, reinforcements were dispatched from Urumqi and Kashgar to quell the uprising in Hotan. However, prior to the suppression of the uprising, another revolution ensued on August 1, 1955, in reaction to the adoption of the Latin alphabet. The individuals who took part in the uprising were ruthlessly refuted, and 278 bureaucrats who provided support were apprehended. An additional rebellion occurred on August 25 and November 10, 1958, but it was ruthlessly quelled. One hundred thousand individuals backed these uprisings. To observe Eid on May 20, 1959, the inhabitants of Kashgar gathered at the Idgah mosque, which was closed at the time. Those who were not permitted entry became enraged, shattered the mosque's door, and entered. As they raided the mosque, law enforcement officers randomly opened fire on the congregation. The confrontation that followed escalated the situation to the point where numerous state offices were seized. The newspaper *Le Monde* provided coverage of the two-year-long uprising. Banners were hung in the streets of Urumqi on May 20, 1958, in protest of the introduction of Chinese immigrants, sparking a new uprising. The following year, on March 20, 1959, a new uprising that began with four individuals quickly grew into a rebellion in which thousands of individuals took part. Amidst the events, over fifty Chinese officials lost their lives. Following a raid on the granary, the populace dispersed the grains. China shut down Soviet consulates in the Uyghur Autonomous Region, spreading the rumor that Moscow was responsible for the unrest. In retaliation for China's stance, Moscow ignored individuals desiring to relocate to West Turkestan. It was in the Communist regime's best interest for the persecuted, starving, and miserable populace to flee to West Turkestan so that additional Chinese immigrants could have been accommodated in the area. Those who left East Turkistan in search of

refuge established a diaspora overseas. The events that transpired became known historically as the “Bloody May Incident” (Kurban 1985, p. 5; Alptekin 1981, p. 277).

8. Uyghur Autonomous Region During the Cultural Revolution Era

Using the slogan “permanent revolution” Mao Ze-dong and his associates introduced new initiatives in East Turkestan between 1949 and 1965, believing that the communist regime had not carried out all necessary practices. The last project, Mao’s “Cultural Revolution Movement,” was the most excruciating of all. Actually, one way to characterize a cultural revolution is as an opposition to the values that permeate everyday social interactions. The movement had an impact on all ethnic groups residing in China, not just the Chinese. The danger of total assimilation was particularly present for the ethnic groups in East Turkestan. Mao was idolized because he sought to instill new traditions within the movement. Consequently, those who declined to become part of the movement were eliminated. It was acknowledged that the initiatives carried out prior to the Cultural Revolution Movement were the initial stages of the process that led to this movement. Thirteen million people made up the “Red Guard Army” at the start of the movement. They were dispersed and educated throughout the populace in an effort to challenge the sociocultural norms of the day. The Red Guard members were even given equipped weapons to use against the opposition. Mao referred to the movement as his “biggest dream,” but in reality, its goal was to create a people devoid of all forms of knowledge, purpose, faith, or creativity (Daubier 1997, p. 14; Jelohovtsev 1969, p. 163-164; Ilyas 2022, p. 79).

Every region was affected by the East Turkestan revolution. In the meantime, a large influx of Chinese immigrants forced the locals to adopt communist ideologies. Muslim-Turkish girls were forced to marry Chinese during the Movement, also known as the “Revolution of Violence.” The 10-item statement was created in support of the opposition to national identity and religion. Married people were required to work eighteen hours a day and live apart in communes. Clergymen were fired, academics, public servants, and senior administrators were humiliated and exposed. The muezzins were prevented from calling the prayers by the Red Guard members. Religious holidays were outlawed and cemeteries were demolished. The people were limited to wearing a blue uniform and were not permitted to dress in traditional clothing. During this time, bilingual education was discontinued under the guise of the Movement, and educational activities were virtually discontinued. All articles were censored, and writing on language and literature was prohibited. Students in West Turkestan faced imprisonment after being charged with Soviet sympathies. More than 300,000 printed works were burned, the Arabic alphabet was altered, and terms like “homeland,” “country,” and “nation” were forbidden from being used in the works. Even shepherds were subject to accusations of espionage and subsequent punishments (Alptekin 1986, p. 16; Anat 2003, pp. 179-180; Emet 2010, pp. 7-8).

Throughout the Cultural Revolution, individuals encountered varying accusations contingent upon their geographical region of residence. For instance, northern Kazakhs were accused of espionage on behalf of the Soviets, while those engaged in animal husbandry were labeled banditry. The most elementary transgression committed was counter-revolutionary. Those who voiced opposition to the Red Guards had their property seized and their hair was shaved at the nape of the neck for exhibition purposes. The populace was compelled to keep pigs. The public was compelled to attend the theaters, which served as the primary medium for socialist propaganda, despite their lack of comprehension. Over one million individuals perished. Regular massacres and atrocities occurred during this time period. Despite the occurrence of numerous

rebellions, their lack of success can be attributed to impossibilities. Those who managed to survive the ruthless suppression of each rebellion were executed without being brought to justice, while those who were apprehended fled the area. The initial uprising in the Uyghur Autonomous region occurred just prior to the January 1965–June 1966 movement, which rapidly spread to nearly the entire region. The resistance movement was compared to the 1940s Altai Osman Batur uprising. Although Beijing radio denied the claim, it took one and a half years to bring the situation under control. A mere 75,000 Muslims were slaughtered during the holy month of Ramadan, according to historical records (Alptekin 1981, p. 284-286; Türkistan Şehitleri 1969, p. 24).

9. Uyghur Autonomous Region Following the Cultural Revolution and East Turkestan's External Struggle

Deng Xiao-ping, who assumed leadership of the People's Republic of China following Mao Ze-dong's demise on September 9, 1976, introduced a novel initiative called "Quadruple Modernization" to advance the nation's economy via science and technology, industry, agriculture, and defense. Many reform acts were enacted during this time period, which could be interpreted as an effort to integrate the communist regime with the outside world. These actions significantly elevated the East Turkestan predicament. Independent Turkish states emerged in West Turkestan following the dissolution of the Soviet Union, which disturbed the communist administration despite the region's springlike atmosphere that it had created through its efforts. To avert a recurrence of the situation in the Uyghur Autonomous Region, the government resorted to its previous martial law policies. Novel literary, linguistic, and national identity-related works remained unblocked during the new era (Anat 2003, p. 180-181; İlyas 2022, p. 82).

A resurgence of national and cultural values instigated a period of partial cessation of cruel treatment during the revolution. Restoration efforts were undertaken to reinstate religious structures that had been destroyed, concurrently with the initiation of Quranic courses. Prominent authors, including Abdurehim Otkür and Turgun Almas, were among those who were granted amnesty during the Cultural Revolution. During this period, the ban on Chinese-language publications was lifted, and periodicals commenced their circulation. As time has passed, an increasing number of student organizations have contributed to the growth of student movements that ultimately culminated in uprisings against "Chinese Chauvinism." Chinese immigrant resettlement continued in the Uyghur Autonomous Region; the relaxed conditions that marked the 1980s were succeeded by escalated tensions in the 1990s. Following the reopening of the Soviet border in 1991, there was a notable surge in migration from the region to the autonomous Turkish states. Those who were granted the opportunity to travel abroad formed a diaspora, whereas those who were restricted to that particular area were referred to as "separatists" (En 1989, p. 5).

To maintain its authority, the communist regime in the Uyghur Autonomous Region implemented a form of martial law in 1989. The Tiananmen Uprisings of 1989 successfully facilitated the resurgence of authoritarian regimes. The Communist administration was alarmed by the fact that Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan granted asylum to the territory's inhabitants. The Soviet regime implemented stringent measures under the pretext of suppressing religious and national uprisings and eradicating external threats. Amid the escalating tensions, the inaugural occurrence in the area transpired in Barin in 1990. The old politics were substituted for positive developments via a covert circular issued after 1990. Madrasas and schools ceased operations, religious ceremonies were prohibited, and both instructors and pupils were incarcerated. A portion of the local populace has been denied access to healthcare services. Individuals were once more

compelled to wed the Chinese. The establishment of the “Chung Tang Institute” was motivated by this concern. It was forbidden for individuals to attend religious instruction before the age of 18, and the constitutional guarantee of equal citizenship rights was exclusively extended to ethnic Chinese. During the reign of Deng Xiao-ping, the 1979 “Birth Control and Abortion Policy” was the most detrimental issue to the inhabitants of the region. In the region, this policy has been implemented in an extremely brutal fashion. The age of marriage, the number of children, and the timing of these events were all regulated by means of this policy. Intended pregnancy is now a condition that requires official authorization. Minorities residing in rural areas were granted the right to have three children, while those residing in urban areas were permitted to have two children. Consequently, in the Karakash district of the city of Hotan in 1991, 18,765 pregnant women were compelled to undergo abortions (Alptekin 1986, p. 17-19; Emet 2009, p. 74-76; Utku 2006, p. 75; İlyas 2022, p. 97).

Conclusion

East Turkestan, the ancient Turkish-Islamic homeland where many Turkish states were founded throughout history, is prosperous not only because it is located on the historical Silk Road but also because it encompasses wealthy underground and surface resources. Turkish peoples, including the Asian Hun Empire, the First and Second Turkic Khaganates, the Uyghur Khaganate, the Karakhanid State, the Mongol Empire, the Chagatai Khanate, and the Saidiya Khanate, inhabited and established states in the region at various times in history. Amid the Khojas’ internal strife, the Qing Dynasty, which ruled China during the “Teachers Period,” developed an interest in the region and derived strategic advantages from it. The Kashgaria state, founded in 1863 by Yakup Khan Badaulet of Kashgar, functioned autonomously until 1877, the year the Chinese invasion commenced; this period of occupation concluded in 1879. The region was officially designated as “Xinjiang/Newly Acquired Land” and linked to China on November 18, 1884. The Chinese administrations have enacted numerous assimilation policies in the region, which has been governed with a purely colonial orientation since the period following 1884. On numerous occasions, these policies have sparked the independence movement.

Since its establishment in 1911, the Republic of China had jurisdiction over East Turkestan. During this time period, the region was governed by general governors from China. Concurrent with this period, Chinese immigration to the region began. The uprisings in Kumul in 1931 were precipitated by arbitrary practices, and Jin Shu-ren’s intention to resettle Chinese immigrants from Kansu to Kumul contributed to the unrest that culminated in the formation of an independent state in Kashgar in 1933. Following the demise of the autonomous Kashgar State at the hands of Russia and China, the Chinese Sheng Shi-cai assumed authority and governed the area in accordance with the Soviet regime for a period of ten years. Those with leadership potential were liquidated during this time, and many fled abroad.

In 1940, the arbitrary actions of Sheng Shi-cai prompted a nationwide uprising in Altai, which was spearheaded by Osman Batur. Sheng Shi-cai abandoned Moscow in 1942 and made an approach towards Central China, which resulted in the Soviet Union supporting Osman Batur, who on November 12, 1944, established an independent state in Ghulja. In response to Mongolia’s independence, Moscow withdrew its support for East Turkestan at the Yalta Conference, which formally ended World War II. On January 2, 1946, a “Mixed Government” was formed under the “11 Item Agreement.” The arrival of Mesud Sabri Baykozi in May 1947 caused concern in Moscow, prompting the Ghulja group to return to Ili and disseminate propaganda that opposed the government in

accordance with directives from Moscow. At the conclusion of 1948, Baykozi was compelled to relinquish his position to Burhan Shahidi due to the escalating tension. East Turkestan entered a new era concurrently with the victory of the Chinese civil war by Mao Zedong and his Communist supporters.

After the Communist occupation of East Turkestan came to power, the local populace convened numerous assemblies to deliberate on the viability of armed resistance or emigration as a means of struggle; ultimately, the decision was made to depart. The migration phenomenon commenced in September 1949 from the Altai region and the city of Urumqi, culminating in September 1952 with the arrival of the initial convoy in Turkey. Turkey was reached by a mere 1,850 individuals as a result of the migration, which involved tens of thousands of people. On September 26, 1949, Chinese Communist troops initiated their occupation of East Turkestan. Following this, they executed a sequence of measures that ultimately transformed the area into a fully established colony. Upon assuming power in 1952, the Communist Party initially expedited its initiative to resettle Chinese immigrants in the area. The region underwent an administrative status declaration and name change to "Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region" on October 1, 1955.

Since 1949, Chinese Communist Party officials have regarded as an "internal affairs matter" any illicit transactions and business activities they have conducted in the Uyghur Autonomous Region. They have been vehemently opposed to any initiative by the international community to intervene in the region. As a result of Chinese immigrants who settled in the region after 1952, the region's demographic composition shifted in their favor. The Chinese Communist Party's "forced abortion" and "birth control" policies, in addition to resettlement, shifted the region's demographics in their favor. The Communist Party's policy implementation in the region aligns with the UN Council on Human Rights' definition of "Genocide," given the region's history of grave human rights violations. The region was the site of "Nuclear Trials" that resulted in environmental devastation and human health risks.

The assimilation of the inhabitants of the Uyghur Autonomous Region has been facilitated by "politics of the alphabet." The revision of the religious and national affiliations of the local populace has been endorsed as the official stance of the Communist Party. The Chinese constitution provides no assurance of rights for the inhabitants of the region.

An additional concern raised by the research is the redistribution of wealth to Central China due to the region's administration based on a colonial perspective. Those who opposed the policies that favored immigrants were arrested and punished on a variety of grounds, including anti-government and pro-terrorism sentiments. The primary focus of the research was the demographic transformation of the Uyghur Autonomous Region in favor of ethnic Chinese groups. Historical records were utilized to support the claim that the Chinese population in the region has increased from approximately 5% in 1949 to over 50% at present. At present, the actions undertaken by the Chinese Communist Party in East Turkestan have escalated to the precarious status of "genocide."

Bibliography

Doğu Türkistan'ı Dolaşan Heyet (1985, Mayıs). *Doğu Türkistan'ın Sesi*, 5, 58-60.

A History of Migration of Xinjiang Kazakh People. (1993). Urumqi: Xinjiang Üniversitesi Yayınları.

Adıbelli, B. (2008). *Doğu Türkistan*. İstanbul: IQ Kültür Sanat Yayıncılık.

- Aka, İ. (1991). *Timur ve Devleti*. Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu Yayınları.
- Alptekin, A. (2000). Eastern Turkistan Reality, Chinese Migrant Flow and Self-Determination. T. Kocaoğlu (Dü.) içinde, *Human Rights Violations Eastern Turkistan* (s. 45-48). İstanbul: Genç Ofset.
- Alptekin, E. (1985). Eastern Turkestan: An Overview. *Journal Institute of Muslim Minority Affairs*, 6(1), 127-136.
- Alptekin, E. (1986). Doğu Türkistan'daki Müslüman Türklere Yapılan Zulümler. *Doğu Türkistan'ın Sesi Dergisi*, 3(9), 18-22.
- Alptekin, E. (1992). *Doğu Türkistan'dan Hicretimizin 40. Yılı*. Kayseri: Erciyes Dergisi Doğu Türkistan Yayınları.
- Alptekin, İ. Y. (1981). *Doğu Türkistan Davası*. İstanbul: Marifet Yayınları.
- Alptekin, İ. Y. (2010). *Esir Doğu Türkistan İçin-1, İsa Yusuf Alptekin'in Mücadele Hatıraları*. (Ö. Kul, Dü.) Ankara: Berikan Yayınevi.
- Alptekin, İ. Y. (2010). *Esir Doğu Türkistan İçin-2, İsa Yusuf Alptekin'in Mücadele Hatıraları (1949-1980)*. (Ö. Kul, Dü.) Ankara: Berikan Yayınları.
- Altay, H. (1998). *Anayurttan Anadolu'ya*. Ankara: Kültür Bakanlığı Yayınları.
- Anat, H. Y. (2003). *Hayatım ve Mücadelem*. (S. Yalçın, Dü.) Ankara: Özkan Matbaacılık .
- Aynural, S. (2007). Çin'in Doğu Türkistan Politikası. *Gökbayrak*, (79), 21-27.
- Bakır, A. (2005). *Doğu Türkistan İstiklâl Hareketi ve Mehmet Emin Buğra*. İstanbul: Doğu Türkistan Vakfı Yayınları.
- Bekin, M. R. (1986). Bir Muhtıra. *Doğu Türkistan'ın Sesi*, 4(13), 19-20.
- Bekin, M. R. (2000). Present Stuation in Eastern Turkistan and Her Problems. T. Kocaoğlu (Dü.) içinde, *Human Rights Violations in Eastern Turkistan* (s. 17-26). İstanbul: Genç Ofset.
- Benson, L. K. (1989). *The Ili Rebellion, The Ili Rebellion: the Moslem Challenge to Chinese Authority in Xinjiang, 1944-1949*, London: M. E. Sharpe, Publishers.
- Buğra, M. E. (1952). *Doğu Türkistan Tarihi, Coğrafi ve Şimdiki Durumu*. İstanbul: Güven Basımevi.
- Buğra, M. E. (1960). *Delhi Konferansı ve Tibet*. Ankara: Doğu Matbaası.
- Cengiz, İ., ve Gayretullah, H. (1983). *Çin'de İslamiyet ve Türkler*. İstanbul: Kent Basımevi.
- Çandarlıoğlu, G. (1987). Uygurlar Hakkında. *Tarihte Türk Devletleri* (Cilt 1, p. 223-234). içinde Ankara: Ankara Üniversitesi Rektörlüğü.
- Çandarlıoğlu, G. (2006). *Özgürlük Yolu, Nurgocay Batur'un Anlarıyla Osman Batur*. İstanbul: Doğu Kütüphanesi Yayınları.
- Dayı, Ö. (2015). Mahmud Yalavac'ın Moğol İmparatorluğundaki Faaliyetleri. *Current Research in Social Sciences*, 1(3), 63-68.
- Daubier, J. (1997). *Çin Kültür Devrimi Tarihi*. (B. Zarifoğlu, Çev.) İstanbul: Umut Yayıncılık.
- Dauliatova, Ş. (2007). *Çin'in Doğu Türkistan Politikası*. Yüksek Lisans Tezi. Ankara: Gazi Üniversitesi.
- Deliorman, A., Donuk, A., ve Kocakapan, İ. (1991). *Türklük Mücahidi İsa Yusuf*. İstanbul: Bayrak Basımevi.

- Ekrem, N. H. (2004, Mart-Nisan). Çin'in Doğum Kontrol Politikası. *Gökbayrak Dergisi*, (58), 6-8.
- Emet, E. (2009). *5 Temmuz Urumçi Olayı ve Doğu Türkistan*. Ankara: Grafiker.
- Emet, E. (2010, Mart-Nisan). Doğu Türkistan'da Çift Dilli Eğitim. *Gökbayrak Dergisi*, (94), 5-10.
- En, W. (1989, İlkbahar). Mao Muhaceretteki Doğu Türkistanlıları 'Birinci Derece Tehdit unsuru' İlan Etti. *Doğu Türkistan'ın Sesi*, (21), 5-6.
- Fairbank, J. K. (1969). *Çağdaş Çin'in Temelleri 1840-1950*. Ankara: Doğan Yayınevi.
- Forbes, A. D. (1990). *Doğu Türkistan'daki Harp Beyleri (Doğu Türkistan'ın 1911-1949 Arası Siyasi Tarihi)*. (E. Can, Çev.) Münih: Doğu Türkistan Vakfı Yayınları.
- Gayretullah, H. (1977). *Altaylar'da Kanlı Günler*. İstanbul: Hamle Yayıncılık.
- Gayretullah, H. (2008, Eylül). Bir Asır Geciken İstila. *İstiklâl Gazetesi*, p. 5.
- Gayretullah, K. (2009). *Uzaklara Balam*. (H. Gayretullah, Dü.) İstanbul: Toker Yayınları.
- Grose, T. A. (2010, March). The Xinjiang Class: Education, Integration, and the Uyghurs. *Journal of Muslim Minority Affairs*, 30(1), 97-109.
- Grubu, D. A. (2013). *Çin Kültür Devrimi*. (S. Jabban, Çev.) İstanbul: Patika Kitap.
- Hayit, B. (1975). *Türkistan: Rusya ve Çin Arasında*. (A. Sadak, Çev.) Ankara: Otağ Yayınları.
- Hayit, B. (1995). *Türkistan Devletleri'nin Milli Mücadele Tarihi*. Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu.
- İlyas, N. (2022). *Doğu Türkistan'da Nüfus Hareketi ve İskan Siyaseti*. Doktora Tezi. İstanbul: İstanbul Üniversitesi.
- Jelohovtsev, A. (1969). *Çin Kültür İhtilalinin İç Yüzü*. (N. Önel, Çev.) İstanbul: Varlık Yayınları.
- Kafalı, M. (2005). *Çağatay Hanlığı (1227-1345)*. Ankara: Berikan.
- Kafesoğlu, İ. (2010). *Türk Milli Kültürü*. İstanbul: Ötüken.
- Kanat, Ş. (2020). *Çinli Müslümanlar Huiler/Tunganlar ve Guomindang Dönemi İlişkileri (1911-1949)*. Yüksek Lisans Tezi. İstanbul: İstanbul üniversitesi.
- Karaca, R. K. (2007). Türkiye-Çin Halk İlişkilerinde Doğu Türkistan Sorunu. *Gazi Akademik Bakış*, 1(1), 219-245.
- Karahoca, A. (2008). *Doğu Türkistan Çin Müstemlekesi*. İstanbul: Doğu Türkistan Dayanışma Derneği.
- Kaşgarlı, S. M. (1989, Ekim). Doğu Türkistan Üzerine Suikast Planı. *Doğu Türkistan'ın Sesi Dergisi*, 6(23), 5.
- Kaşgarlı, S. M. (1990, Sonbahar). Çinli Yöneticilerin 20. Yüzyılda Doğu Türkistan'a Çinli Göçmen Yerleştirme Harekatı ve Onun Akıbetleri. *Doğu Türkistan'ın Sesi*, 7(27), 9-15.
- Keskin, M. (2013). *Çin'de Etnik Azınlık ve Doğu Türkistan Sorunu*. Yüksek Lisans Tezi. Yalova: Yalova Üniversitesi.
- Kocaoğlu, T. (2006). Bağımsız Doğu Türkistan Cumhuriyeti'nin 1933 Anayasası ve Türk Dünyasında Anayasa Hareketleri. *Doğu Türkistan'ın Sesi Dergisi*, 17(66), 31-40.

- Kul, Ö. (2016). Alptekin, İsa Yusuf. *TDV İslam Ansiklopedisi* (C. Ek-1, s. 89-90). İstanbul: TDV Yayınları.
- Kul, Ö. (2016). Osman Batur (1899-1951). *TDV İslam Ansiklopedisi* (C. Ek-2, s. 381-382). İstanbul: TDV Yayınları.
- Kul, Ö., ve Tuncer, T. (2015). XX. Asırda Doğu Türkistan'da Göçler. N. Sarıahmetoğlu, & İ. Kemaloğlu (Dü) içinde, *Türk Dünyasında Sürgün ve Göç* (s. 193-231). İstanbul: Türk Kültürüne Hizmet Vakfı Yayınları.
- Kurban, İ. (1985, Aralık). Kanlı Mayıs. *Doğu Türkistan'ın Sesi*, 2(7-8), 5.
- Kurban, İ. (1992). *Şarki Türkistan Cumhuriyeti: 1944-1949*. Ankara: TTK Basımevi.
- Kurban, İ. (1995). *Doğu Türkistan İçin Savaş*. Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu Yayınları.
- Lias, G. (1956). *Kazakh Exodus*. London: Evans Brothers.
- Lias, G. (1973). *Göç*. (M. Çağrı, Çev.) İstanbul: Boğaziçi Yayınları.
- Madadi, A. O. (2021). *Çin'in Doğu Türkistan Üzerindeki Soykırım ve Asimilasyon Politikası*. Yüksek Lisans Tezi. Kütahya: Kütahya Dumlupınar Üniversitesi.
- McMillen, D. H. (1979). *Chinese Communist Power and Policy in Xinjiang, 1949-1977*. Westview: Colorado & Folkestone.
- Oraltay, H. (1975). *Hürriyet Uğrunda Doğu Türkistan Kazak Türkleri*. İstanbul: Türk Kültür Yayını.
- Ögel, B. (1992). *Türk Kültürünün Gelişme Çağları* (Cilt 1). İstanbul: MEB Yayınları.
- Özen, S. (2019). *Hariçte ve Dahilde Doğu Türkistan Davası (1955-1990)*. Yüksek Lisans Tezi. İstanbul : İstanbul Üniversitesi.
- Özuygur, M. (1989). Doğu Türkistan'da Petrol ve Doğu Türkistan. *Doğu Türkistan'ın Sesi Dergisi*, 6(23), 10.
- Polat, Y. H. (1999). *Alixan Törə Saquni ve Onun Şarqi Türkistanın Azatlığı Uğrunda Mübarizəsi*. Doktora Tezi. Bakı: Qafqaz Üniversitesi.
- Qing-li, Y. (1992). Doğu Türkistan'ın 1949-1984 Arasındaki Nüfus Değişimi. (İ. Cengiz, Dü.) *Doğu Türkistan'ın Sesi*, 4 (2 (30), 8-10.
- Qingli, Y. (1990). Population Changes in Xinjiang Uighur Autonomous Region (1949-1984). *Central Asian Survey*, 9, 49-73.
- Sheng, L. (2006). *Çin'in Xinjiang Bölgesi Geçmişi ve Şimdiki Durumu*. (X. Xinyue, Çev.) Urumçi: Kaynak Yayınları.
- Togan, A. Z. (1981). *Umumî Türk Tarihine Giriş*. İstanbul: Enderun Yayınevi.
- Tuncer, T. (2019). Immigration from Eastern Turkestan to Turkey in 1961. *Emigrants Muhacir from Xinjiang to Middle East during 1940-60s* (s. 115-155). içinde Tokyo: Nihon Root Printing Publishing Co., Ltd.
- Tuncer, T. (2021). Tarihsel Süreçte Doğu Türkistan'dan Uygur Göçü. *Türk Dünyası ve Göç Vatandan Yeni Vatanlara* (s. 227-254). içinde İstanbul: Küre Yayınları.
- Türkistan Şehitleri*. (1969). İstanbul: Doğu Türkistan Göçmenler Cemiyeti Yayınları.
- Türköz, A. (2010). *Doğu Türkistan'da İnsan Hakları*. İstanbul: Doğu Kütüphanesi.
- Tyler, C. (2004). *Wild West China: The Taming of Xinjiang*. London: Rutgers University Press.

- Utku, A. (2006). *Dođu Türkistan: İpek Yolunun Mahzun Ülkesi*. İstanbul: İHH İnsani Yardım Vakfı.
- Yuan, W. (2006). *Life in Western China (Xibu Renmin de Shenghuo (Xiburenmin de shenghuo))*. Beijing: China Statistics Press.