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МОҢҒОЛДАР КЕЗІНДЕ ҚЫТАЙДА КОММЕРЦИЯЛЫҚ КЕЛІСІМДЕРДІҢ, ИМПОРТ ЖӘНЕ ЭКСПОРТТЫҢ СИПАТЫ

Аңдатпа

Мақала XIII ғасырдағы сауда тарихы, тауар алмасу және аймақтың экономикалық даму тенденциялары туралы, Оңтүстік Сун әулетінің құлауынан Юань әулетінің негізін қалаушы Құбылайдың билікке келуіне дейінгі кезеңнің құнды дереккөздері болып табылатын батыс және шығыс деректері негізінде жазылды. Автор мақаланы жазу барысында, бірқатар болжамдар мен тұжырымдарға келеді: моңғолдардың билікке келуімен Азия аймағымен байланыс күшейе түскендігі, тауарлардың түріне байланысты баж салығының, алымдардың градациясымен күрделі жүйе құрылғандығы, Оңтүстік Сун мен Юань кезеңінде Қытай көршілерімен белсенді сауда жасап, жібек, фарфор және басқа да дәрілік өсімдіктерді экспорттағанын, Оңтүстік Сун тұсында мыс экспортталғандығы, Юань кезеңінде – юньнаннан жылқылар шығарылғандығы, сондай-ақ Оңтүстік Сун кезінде камфора, піл сүйегі, құнды ағаш түрлері, тасбақа қабығы, мақта, асыл тастар, хош иісті зат, шыны және дәмдеуіштер әкелінгендігі және моңғолдар кезінде бұл тізімнің негізгі тармақтары сақталып, жылқы саудасы күшейе түскендігі айтылады. Яғни, Юань әулетінің билікке келуі аймақтағы сауда жағдайына оң әсер еткендігі тұжырымдалады.

Кілт сөздер: коммерциялық келісімдер, моңғол империясы, импорт, экспорт, баға эволюциясы.

Алғыс. Мақала Қазақстан Республикасы Ғылым және жоғары білім министрлігінің Ғылым комитетінің гранттық қаржыландыру бағдарламасын іске асыру шеңберінде дайындалды (грант АР14869443 «Ватикан материалдары мен батыстың тарихи-мұрағат деректері бойынша Еуразияның түркі әлемі (V-XIV ғғ.)).

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ХАРАКТЕР КОММЕРЧЕСКИХ СДЕЛОК, ИМПОРТА И ЭКСПОРТА КИТАЯ В ПЕРИОД МОҢҒОЛОВ

Аннотация

В статье рассматривается торговля, товарообмен и тенденция экономического роста периода династии Южная Сун и Юань, на основе западных и восточных источников. В ходе написания статьи автор приходит к ряду предположений и выводов: с приходом к власти монголов усилились связи с Азиатским регионом, сложилась сложная система с градацией пошлин, сборов в зависимости от вида товаров, в период династии Южная Сун и Юань Китай активно торговал с

соседями, экспортировал шелк, фарфор и другие лекарственные растения, при династии Южная Сун экспортировалась медь, в период династии Юань из Юньнани вывозились лошади, а также камфора, слоновая кость, ценные породы дерева, панцирь черепахи, хлопок, драгоценные камни, ладан, стекло и специи были импортированы во время Южного Сун, при монголах основные пункты этого списка сохранялись, а торговля лошадьми усилилась. То есть предполагается, что приход к власти династии Юань положительно повлиял на торговую ситуацию в регионе.

Ключевые слова: коммерческие сделки, Монгольская империя, импорт, экспорт, эволюция цен.

Благодарность. Статья подготовлена в рамках реализации Программы грантового финансирования Комитета науки Министерства науки и высшего образования Республики Казахстан (грант AP14869443 «Тюркский мир Евразии (V-XIV вв.) по западным историко-архивным источникам и материалам Ватикана»).

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THE NATURE OF COMMERCIAL AGREEMENTS, IMPORT AND EXPORT IN CHINA DURING THE MONGOLS

Annotation

In this article were considered the issues of trade, commodity exchange and the trend of economic growth during the Southern Song and Yuan Dynasty, based on Western and Eastern sources. Authors in the process of writing the article come to these such kind of number of assumptions and conclusions. With the coming to power of the Mongols, their ties with the Asian region strengthened. The complex system was formed with a gradation of duties and fees depending on the type of goods. During the Southern Song and Yuan dynasties, China actively traded with its neighbors, exported silk, porcelain and other medicinal plants. During the Southern Song Dynasty it was exported the copper. In the period of the Yuan Dynasty horses were exported from Yunnan, as well as camphor, ivory, precious woods, tortoise shell, cotton, precious stones, incense, glass and spices were imported during the Southern Song, under the Mongols, the main items on this list were preserved, and the horse trade intensified. At the result authors concluded that the coming to power of the Yuan dynasty had a positive impact on the trade situation in the region.

Keywords: commercial transactions, Mongol Empire, import, export, price evolution.

Gratitude. The article was prepared as part of the Grant Funding Program by the Science Committee of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education of the Republic of Kazakhstan (grant AP14869443 "The Turkic world of Eurasia (V-XIV centuries) on Western historical and archival sources and materials of the Vatican").

Introduction. Before the Mongol conquest, during the Song Dynasty (960-1270), China's foreign trade links were extensive. The Yuan Kingdom, realizing that trading would be of great benefit to the treasury, maintained the order established in the times of the Song Empire as a whole in this area. As before, the treasure brought profit, income, establishing a monopoly on salt, iron, precious stones and silver, oil, wine and vinegar. A trade tax was established, the authorities took care of trade routes and even tried to combat the plunder of merchants. The merchants took special care of authorities from Central, Western Asia, and Europe.

Materials and methods. The topic of international trade has always attracted historians, including medieval trade, which did not stand aside. Medieval trade and the factors that influenced its formation have repeatedly become the subject of complex study by domestic and foreign researchers. Among the many works, we can especially mention the fundamental work of W. Heyd, written at the end of the 19th century [1]. This work has not lost its scientific relevance until this day. The monograph by A.L.

Ponomarev, dedicated to the development of money circulation in the Black Sea region in the 13th-15th centuries, is also useful [2].

Among the many facts collected and analyzed by the authors, the most interesting for us are data on the Venetian monetary system. These materials are necessary for understanding the typical monetary units of Marco Polo. In addition, as one of the Mongolian states, data on the coins of the Golden Horde are important, which can be used as an analogy. Within the framework of our topic, the observations of V. Ciocîltan, presented in the book "The Mongols and the Black Sea Trade in the XIII-XIV centuries." [3] are important. He emphasizes that openness to external relations is the characteristic feature of the Mongol Empire. Ciocîltan pays great attention to the development of the Silk Road; analyzes the role of the Mongols in the development of the Black Sea trade and information on the peculiarities of the position of merchants in this region based on the works of Marco Polo, Pegolotti and other authors [3, 102-108 pp.]. He summarizes the main stages of the struggle between Genoa and Venetian merchants for dominance in the state of the Elkhans [3, 125-139 pp.].

Endicott-Westhe E. investigated the problem of the emergence of the so-called Ortak Merchant Associations in Yuan China. He dedicated an article on this topic [4]. The author analyzed the formation of government-supported groups, often representing the interests of the ruling elite of society, carrying out direct operations at their expense or dividing part of the profits. He notes trends that indicate the existence of a continuity between the special groups of merchants that existed in the Ortaq and Jurchen states and Qid, but the latter also overlook where they received less benefits from the government. At the same time, "ortak" as a phenomenon also demonstrates that before the occupation of southern China from the Mongols, Muslim merchants began to form in the process of sponsorship by the khan's neighbors [4, 132 p.]. The article notes the great role of Ortak in the development of Mongolian trade, in particular its place in control of the sea route after the fall of the South Sun empire [4, 139 p.].

The creation of the Genghis state, which placed almost all major trade areas under a single political control, had the greatest impact on Eurasian trade. In this regard, it is formal fact that researchers discuss a lot about the changes caused by the Mongol conquests. For example, S.P. Karpov emphasizes that the heyday of the Mongolian state, especially during the time of Kublai Khan, the founder of the Yuan dynasty, coincided with the heyday of Italian trade that existed until the 14th century [5]. One of the results of the Mongol conquest is that the Chinese lands more than ever actively participated in world trade. According to the results of research by economic historians, the turnover of silver in Eurasia grew rapidly, and it is assumed that all these processes took place in the middle of the 13th century and were associated with unification under the rule of the Mongols [6, 1025 p.].

However, despite the existence of such studies, some of the issues discussed in the article were not raised at all in these works. The written data used in the article were compiled in different regions by ethnically different authors. A comparative analysis of the works made it possible to identify similarities in the characteristics of a number of phenomena and processes, which confirms the accuracy of the messages of medieval authors.

Results and analyses. If we turn to the history of the development of Mongolian trade, it should start with the founder of the empire, Genghis Khan. At the beginning of the process of uniting the Mongol tribes and conquering the adjacent territories, Genghis Khan limited himself to receiving taxes in the form of various goods, precious metals and luxury goods and did not set himself the task of establishing trade relations, but over time his interest in trade increased significantly.

Dzhuveini wrote that trade with the Mongols was profitable and relatively safe, since in accordance with the decree of Genghis Khan, conditions were to be created for the unhindered passage of merchants [7, 51 p.]. In addition, the conquerors actively and successfully used merchants as their spies and agents, spreading among the local population the rumors that Genghis needed [8]. The Central Asian merchants supported Genghis Khan in every possible way during his campaign in this region, hoping for an improvement in the general trade situation [8, 120 p.].

Chingiz's successor Ogedei also invites merchants to his court to the maximum and provides them with various assistance [9, 54-59 pp.]. Rashid al-Din writes that during his reign, merchants used station horse-drawn vehicles inside the country, which was very painful for ordinary residents who performed Yam duties [9, 141 pp.]. The "inscription on the tomb of Yelü Chutsai" states that Muslim merchants, collecting taxes from all provinces, had great influence during Ogedei [10, 22.39.84 p.].

Kuik was also generous to merchants. The merchants had significant privileges and had direct contact with the Mongolian ruling elite and the Khan's relatives [10, 21-22 pp.].

After accession to the throne, Monke deprived merchants of the right to use the Yamsky horse-drawn vehicles free of charge and fixes the actual tax levied on them. However, the position of the merchants still

remained in a good degree: they were divided into several levels, some even receiving funds directly from the treasury, guaranteeing the delivery of certain goods to the palace [7, 439-440 pp.]. But more importantly, Mongke assumed the obligations of his predecessors to the Central Asian merchants [7, 434-437 pp.], thus demonstrating an understanding of the importance of trade for his state [11, 289 p.].

Even after the Empire was divided into four nations, the merchants continued to receive the protection of the khan, as the Mongols were still interested in the development of trade. V. Chociltan notes that as proof of this, the Khan of the Golden Horde, Berk, welcomed the Polo brothers traveling to the east [3, 100-101 pp.].

Thus, it can be seen that trade for the Mongols has always been recognized as a profitable and respected profession. W. Heyd rightly notes that the religious tolerance adopted by the Mongols also largely contributed to the successful development of trade relations [1, 66.71 p.]. The symbiosis of major trade representatives and great khans is also noted by Luo Zhongbang, who lists a long list of services rendered by merchants to the Mongols: intelligence and propaganda functions in enemy territory; gifts to the khan's relatives, financing of the army and construction; investment in the production of porcelain, silk, lacquerware, paper and cotton fabrics; control of the tax system and the printing of paper money [12, 308-309 pp.]. A. V. Chociltan points to the lack of intention of the Mongol rulers to close their borders to foreigners, pointing out that they limited trade only with some overseas areas [3, 2 p.]. The policy of prohibiting entry into the country for foreign merchants took place both in Europe and in Byzantium, as well as in a number of Asian states, so, as we can see, the Mongol Empire is different here.

In China before the Mongols, the situation was slightly different. The downward trend of merchants there has been observed since time immemorial. Long before the period under review, during the Shang Yang reforms in the 4th century BC. e., private trade was subject to significant restrictions on the part of the state. These measures were aimed at reducing the number of merchants and reducing the profitability of their activities, since this policy, trade, provided that the state would remain a special function [13, 113 p.]; merchants were not respected [14, 55 p.]. This situation also took place in the Han Dynasty [14, 233]. The Tang rulers also sought to limit the profits of large merchants [14, 70 p.]. Song Dynasty merchants faced significant obstacles. Under his successor, the Southern Sun, the situation changed somewhat as trade revived, which contributed to the revival of maritime relations due to the transfer of the center of the empire to the south [15, 139 p. 144-145 pp.], the northern route also strengthened its position - they traded very actively with the Jurchens [16, 29.34 p.]. After the Mongol conquests, the situation in Chinese trade continued to improve [15, 171-172 pp.].

Price evolution.

Paying attention to the evolution of prices in the region, it should be borne in mind that during this period in different countries there was a significant difference in the ratio of silver to gold. Zhao Zhugua unfortunately only gives this information about the port of Quilon on the Malabar coast, where one gold coin was worth twelve silver coins [17]. In the West, the relative proportion of 1:11 was observed in the Byzantine and Black Sea trade only at the end of the 13th century, after 1280, and in Italy, in particular in Venice, the birthplace of Marco Polo, in 1263-1285 the ratio 1: 8.5 was legalized [2, 191 p.].

When Marco Polo was in the East, gold prices were much lower than in Europe. In Western Yunnan, traders exchanged gold for silver at once for five (*Et si vous di que il donnent .I. pois d'or pour .V. pois d'argent*, in direct translation: "five silver beans for one golden bean"), and it was considered a good deal, since there were no silver deposits in these parts [18, 28 p.]; the same proportion is shown in relation to one of the cities of the Majapahit empire (west of the Malay Peninsula) - Zhao Zhugua reports that 2 Dan rice- this is 1 tael of silver, and 10 Dan of rice is 1 tael of gold, i.e. the ratio would be 1:5 [17, 68 p.] In Karajan, on the border of Yunnan and Burma, gold and silver were equal to 1:8 [18, 125 p.]. Based on this, it can be assumed that gold was much more expensive in the West, and in the countries of Southeast Asia, due to a sufficient number of own deposits, its price was not so high. Zhao Zhugua names many regions that produce gold as exports: Jiaozhi, India, Zanzibar, Ghazni, Jabrus, Busuanga, etc. [17, 46.111.126.138.153.163 p.] trade exchange.

Returning to the issue of prices, we can recognize that the work of Marco Polo gives us more information about this. The Venetian used here familiar European monetary units and the metric system. In several places where Zhao Zhugua spoke about the value of goods, he equated everything with *tel* (*liang*) of precious metals.

So, if you carefully read the "Description of distant places" (*Zhu fan zhi* (1225) by Zhao Zhugua), then in the Year of Good Harvest in Java, you can buy from ten to twenty packages of pepper (Yavan's main export product), each of which is equal to 50 sheng, for twenty-five *liang* of gold (932.525 g was, and in dry years it was half that [17, 83 p.]. In the Song era, 1 sheng was equal to 0.6641 l as a measure of the

volume of bulk solids (19, 335 p.), and in one package of pepper there were 33,205 liters, that is, from 332 liters to 664 liters of pepper were bought for 932.5 g of gold. Given that, on average, a liter of unground black pepper weighs 560 g, it can be concluded that the cost of a productive warm Javanese pepper ranged from 5 to 10 g of gold per 1 kg of pepper.

In another section of his work, Zhao Zhugua gives some data on the price of rice in the Majapahit empire, but this information says that the value of rice in relation to gold seems too high (the text says that 2 Deng of rice was worth 1 TELA of silver, and 10 The dan of rice is 1 Characterize the interdisciplinary methods and give an examples Characterize the interdisciplinary methods and give an examples tale of gold, according to the translators, the den in this case is the Indian unit of measurement of volume equal to Tole, which is approximately equal to 12 g, and 1 Tael is 37.3 g) [17, 68-69 pp.]. In Cambodia, by contrast, the price of rice, according to Zhao Zhugua, was very low: 2 bushels per 1 liang (37,301 g) liter, and given that 1 liter of rice weighs about 750 g, then 26.4 kg of rice is sold rice [17, 53 p.].

Now let's look at the details from "Marco Polo's book". In Suzhou you can buy 40 pounds of magnificent ginger for Venetian Grosu [18, 146 p.]. Venetian Grosu matapan at that time was silver, weighed 2.18 g [2, p. 192. The Venetian pound weighed 0.477 kg (in the book by S. P. Karpov there is another meaning: 1 pondo-90 kg. V. see: Karpov S. P. Italian maritime republics. S. 334.]. That is, it can be suggested that 2.18 grams of silver yielded 19.08 kg and 8.752 kg of ginger per gram of silver. In addition, ginger cost half as much in South Fujian at £80 per penny [18, 152 p.]. of ginger, you can buy three porcelain cups for a silver penny, "it is impossible to even wish for something more than such a beautiful, good item" - three pheasants [can be bought] in the city of Dehua in southeast Fujian province or in the outlets on the coast the Yellow River [18, 119 p.] And in Aden (off the coast of Arabia) there lived two big fish, one penny [18, 190 p.].

In addition to the matapan, the information on Venetian silver mark were found in the work of Marco Polo. In the period under review, it could weigh 238.7656 g of silver [2, 72 p.]. Pretty big currency. It is mentioned, for example, in the description of the trading situation in Gujarat, where it is said that red leather upholstery, embroidered with gold and silver threads, consisting of ten silver marks, and decorated with images of animals and birds, will be processed; cushions are also made there, embroidered with gold threads, on which there are six stamps [18, 181 p.].

Elsewhere, a Venetian stamp shows the value of horses that live. Horses are produced from Aden to India, one head of which costs one hundred marks, and in Maabar (on the Coromandel coast) they are sold even more expensive - five hundred gold Sai, which "is more than a hundred silver marks" [18, 167 p.]. If we try to clarify, five hundred saye is equivalent to about 2362.5 grams of gold (saye is 1/6 ounce, that is, a unit of measure, which is 4752 g). That is, the author's statement raises some doubts: one hundred marks contain 23876 g of silver, and given that the ratio of gold to silver ranges from 1: 5 to 1: 8, the cost of 2362.5 g of gold can vary from 11812.5 g to 18900 d, From which it is clear that five hundred say is less than a hundred marks. In any case, the order of magnitude is obvious.

Another monetary unit of Marco Polo is the golden bezant. Its weight for the period under review was 4.2 g of gold. According to Derek, the ruler of Aden established his monopoly on the frankincense (incense) trade: he bought it for ten bezants per gallop and sold it for forty bezants [18, 191 p.]. In one gallop 47512.5 g, that is, foreign traders bought about 283 g per 1 g of gold. The cost is significant, the price of Java Pepper in Zhao Zhugua is about (100g to 200g of commodity per 1g of gold). In another section, Marco Polo writes that a tone of white mouse skin is worth a thousand bezants, while a tone of sable skin is worth two thousand [18, 106 p.]. Skins were a rare and expensive commodity.

Summing up the comparison on this issue, several assumptions can be made. Marco Polo, as a merchant, cared more about prices than Zhao Zhugua. The Venetian was interested in expensive goods such as incense, skins, jewelry, and there is no data on the prices of everyday products such as rice in his book. Based on the available data, we can assume that in the XIII century gold prices in the region fell. This is due to the fact that under Zhao Zhugua the ratio of gold and silver ranged from 1:12, and under Marco Polo from 1:8 to 1:5 (Zhao Zhugua in his work describes the state of trade in all countries around him, notes the characteristic goods, and in some places even the development of commodity-money relations within the country provides information about the level. His work resembles some sections of the "book" Marco Polo, but chronologically they take more than fifty years). This may be due to the growing activity of merchants who invested capital into the business by filling the market with gold. Of course, it is important to understand that our calculations are approximate, because the data provide too little material for unambiguous statements.

The level of development of commodity-money relations.

Let us now turn our attention to the data concerning the level of development of commodity-money relations. Zhao Zhugua coins are made in Java (from an alloy of copper, white copper, silver and tin, 60 coins consist of 1 liang (40 g) of gold), in Malabar (only a silver coin is mentioned), in Quilon (silver and gold coins are also mentioned), in rum (both metals are used), in Japan (only copper coins are used), which have been used [17, 78.88.89.141.171 p.].

According to Zhao Zhugua, white shells are used instead of coins on the Coromandel coast [17, p. 97]. Marco Polo, in turn, notes that shells (shells) are used as a means of payment in some cities of Yunnan province, imported from India and Karajan [18, 126 p.]. In the latter case, it is possible to find out the exchange rate of shells for coins: "Eighty such shells are equal to one silver Sayeg or two Venetian pennies" [18, 125 p.]. In addition, shells and gold coins were located on the border of Yunnan and Guizhou provinces in the area Toloman, as well as in the Zardandan region [18, 128 p.].

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Given Zhao Zhugua's interest in exports and foreign trade outside of China, it can be assumed that the use of shells instead of coins in Yunnan occurred in the first half of the 13th century. At the same time, Marco Polo, who mentioned Coromandel in his work, points out that the calculations were made not with shells, but with precious metals: the local ruler bought horses from foreign merchants for five hundred gold Saye [18, 167 p.]. The implications of this episode are ambiguous. On the one hand, until the second half of the 13th century, shells in this region could go out of circulation, on the other hand, as a means of internal payment, they could also be preserved, and in the case described by Marco Polo, gold was circulated due to the fact that it was mentioned in relation to foreign trade.

At the same time, we should not forget about duties, as they are an integral part of any trading system. Based on the chronology, let's start with Zhao Zhugua. His data is not completely systematic, he provides information about some countries, some are not, which depended on the providers of these reports, since Zhao Zhugua did not personally visit the places described.

In Champa, the duty on all merchant ships was 20%, and the list of goods was compiled on board the ship immediately after arriving at the port [17, 49 p.]. The Cholas on the Coromandel coast are not famous for their traders because the tribute is heavy (unfortunately, Zhao Zhugua does not explain what is behind these words) [17, 96 p.]. Marco Polo talks more about tolls. For example, in Chengdu, Han tolls are collected at the bridge where the shops are located. And the total amount of the fee reaches a thousand gold bezants [18, 121 p.]. The amount is not specified, but a large toll is levied on the Yangtze [18, 144 p.]. As for Hangzhou, Marco Polo shows some figures: 3.3% spices, 10% silk, and many other valuable substances such as rice wine or coal [18, 150 p.]. At Quanzhou, Indian ships were subject to a 10% duty on gems and pearls; "one freight pays 30% for small items, a freight - 44% for pepper, aloe, sandalwood and other large goods - 40%, and the merchant gives all the money that he brings with him for the cargo, as a duty of the great khan" [18, 154 p.]. In maabar on the Coromandel coast, merchants paid twice: only 1/10 to the king and 1/20 to "people who charm fish so as not to harm people who dive into the water for pearls" [18, 166 p.]. Finally, without going into details, Marco Polo notes that a significant tax in favor of the Great Khan was paid by merchants from Anqing on the northern bank of the Yangtze River [18, 142 p.].

Based on the above data, it can be assumed that in the yuan era, the system for collecting trade tax became much more complicated compared to previous periods. A wide range of goods made it possible to divide them by price and, accordingly, to establish the amount of tax on them. However, we must not forget that the data given by Zhao Zhugua is, unfortunately, also incomplete.

Chinese trade according to Zhao Zhugua and Marco Polo.

Another issue that we want to raise as part of the topic of the article is the features of direct trade with China. The data in question shows the general trade issues, while for China there is no clear, systematic description of these issues. However, you can try to identify some aspects.

The main Chinese exports during the period described by Zhao Zhugua were, of course, silk and porcelain. Silk was bought in Palembang, Danmalin porcelain wares are said to be found in Majapahit, Ceylon, Malabar [17, 61-62. 67.68.73.89 p.]. Silk, blue-green and white porcelain were delivered to reality, and green porcelain to Borneo. Porcelain was also popular in the Philippines and Calamian Islands [17, 78. 156. 160. 161 p.].

However, the list of goods exported from China is not limited to these two positions. Paper, along with brushes for writing, was in great demand in Jiaozhi (the region between Guangdong and Vietnam) [17, 15 p.]. In the country of Danmaling (on the Malay Peninsula) silk umbrellas were acquired [17, 67 p.].

Some medicinal plants have been produced from Java to China. Until 1234, there should have been an active export of copper abroad, prohibited by a special decree in that year [17, 78 p.]. According to Zhao Zhugua, goods from the Arab countries are imported into China by middlemen from Palembang (Sumatra) [17, 114 p.]. On the island of Hainan, local Li tribesmen bought Chinese silk clothes, extracted colored threads from them, sewed curtains, and mixed these threads with tree cotton [17, 183 p.].

Tatyrans were well exported. Its medicinal properties were widely known to Chinese and Jurchen scholars. Yelü Zhutsai during the siege of the northern Chinese city of Linggu by the troops of Genghis Khan (1226) captured two bales of Tatyran and processed them with the Mongols who suffered from the epidemic [10, 72 p.]. Guillaume de Rubruk, who wrote about the Mongols in the middle of the 13th century, notes that the Tatars are actively used for therapeutic measures [20, 151-152 p.]. Therefore, this plant was a valuable commodity. Zhao Zhugua mentions that tattoos are best bought in East Sumatra and Malabar [17, 62.89 p.]. In the 17th century, Russian-Chinese trade began precisely with the purchase of a Tatyran.

As for imports, there is even less data on them. Camphor, sandalwood, tortoise shell (to discover honey) and ivory were imported from Borneo [17, 157 p.] - which may also be imported from other countries because Zhao Zhugua names elephant tusk exporters in large numbers. The people of Hainan have replaced Chinese salt, iron and seafood with cotton and cotton products, garou wood and hemp [17, 183 p.]. And Arab traders brought pearls, spices, incense, corals, glass to China via Palembang [17, 114-116 pp.].

Now let's see what Marco Polo wrote about Chinese trade.

At one time, tatyran were grown in the mountains of Suzhou, from where "merchants distribute it all over the world" [18, 75 p.]. Lanzhou produced "the best musk in the world", Yinchuan produced white camel hair cloth that was "delivered all over China" and perhaps even beyond [18, p. 84].

According to Marco Polo, good things from all over China, precious stones and pearls from India are imported to the capital of the Yuan Empire [18, 108 p.]. A large trade is carried out along the Yellow River - ginger, silk, game are imported [18, 119 p.]. Corals were in high demand in Tibet, which is part of the Kublai Empire [18, 123 p.]. During the reign of Zhao Zhugua, corals were imported from Chola on the Coromandel coast and from Palembang in East Sumatra (text says "coral trees"), where local traders bought corals from the Arabs and resold them to China [17, 96 .61.116 p.]. In addition, Marco Polo says that jasper and Chalcedon were imported from Cherchen (southeast of Kashgaria) to China [18, 71 p.]. In the city of Ganfu, a stop is mentioned where ships with various goods from India and other countries arrive [18, 148 p.].

Porcelain vessels are "transported around the world" from Dehua in Fujian [18, 154 p.]. Of course, about "the whole world" Marco Polo exaggerates somewhat, but the extensive export of porcelain from China is undeniable as a fact. Marco Polo also mentions high-quality musk from Erginul (Lanzhou) [18, 83 p.]. About the city of Tayanchu, from where merchants travel to different countries and produce wine, silk and harness there [18, 117 p.], it can be assumed that these goods were exported.

Conclusion. The two works we have reviewed are valuable sources of 13th-century trade history, trade, and economic trends in the region, from the fall of the Southern Song dynasty to the rise to power of Kublai, the founder of the Yuan dynasty. From them we see that during the 13th century a number of countries where China's foreign trade relations are possible did not undergo significant changes. With the coming to power of the Mongols, the connection with the Asian region is strengthened.

You may also find that during the time of Zhao Zhugua, gold was more valuable in the region than during the Marco Polo period. During the Mongol rule in China, it was discovered that gold was cheaper in the East than in the West at that time. Unfortunately, prices for other items cannot be compared because there are no other matches in this data. As for duties, during the time of the Mongols a complex system

was created with a gradation of fees depending on the type of goods. Perhaps such a phenomenon was also observed during the Southern Song Dynasty, but Zhao Zhugua does not leave details about this.

During the Southern Song and Yuan period, China actively traded with its neighbors and exported silk, porcelain, tattoos, and other medicinal plants. Under the Southern Song, copper was exported; during the Yuan period, horses were exported from Yunnan. During the Southern Song, camphor, ivory, precious woods, tortoiseshell, cotton, gems, incense, glass, and spices were brought. During the time of the Mongols, the main branches of this list were preserved, the horse trade intensified. Thus, there are good reasons to believe that the rise of the Yuan dynasty to power had a positive effect on the trade situation in the region.

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